

CAMBRIDGE

English Grammar Today

An A–Z of Spoken and
Written Grammar



Ronald Carter, Michael McCarthy,
Geraldine Mark and Anne O'Keeffe



English Grammar Today

With CD-ROM

**An A–Z of Spoken
and Written Grammar**

**Ronald Carter, Michael McCarthy,
Geraldine Mark and Anne O'Keeffe**

WARREN TWP LIBRARY
42 MOUNTAIN BLVD

NOV 07 2011

WARREN, NJ 07059
908-754-5554



CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

SOMERSET CO. LIBRARY
BRIDGEWATER, N J. 08807

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

Cambridge, New York, Melbourne, Madrid, Cape Town,
Singapore, São Paulo, Delhi, Tokyo, Mexico City

Cambridge University Press

The Edinburgh Building, Cambridge CB2 8RU, UK

www.cambridge.org

Information on this title: www.cambridge.org/9780521149877

© Cambridge University Press 2011

This publication is in copyright. Subject to statutory exception
and to the provisions of relevant collective licensing agreements,
no reproduction of any part may take place without the written
permission of Cambridge University Press.

First published 2011

Printed in the United Kingdom at the University Press, Cambridge

A catalogue record for this publication is available from the British Library

ISBN 978-0-521-73175-1 Paperback and CD-ROM

ISBN 978-0-521-14987-7 Paperback with CD-ROM and Workbook

Cambridge University Press has no responsibility for the persistence or
accuracy of URLs for external or third-party internet websites referred to in
this publication, and does not guarantee that any content on such websites is,
or will remain, accurate or appropriate.

Contents

Thanks and acknowledgements v

Introduction 1

A–Z 7

Table of irregular verbs 611

Glossary 613

Index 625

Thanks and acknowledgements

This book has been compiled by four authors in different locations over the course of four years. During this time each one of us has benefited greatly from contact with many friends and colleagues who have directly and indirectly influenced our thinking about grammar, its organisation and its teaching. We have benefited from many sources of advice and guidance, always given freely and in the spirit of collaboration, on a range of matters that have affected the design, wording and presentation of this book and its companion workbook volume. Some names deserve a special expression of our gratitude.

First and foremost we thank the editorial teams at Cambridge University Press. In particular we thank Alison Sharpe for commissioning the *English Grammar Today* project and for being a source of always perceptive, reliable advice through the earliest stages of the project. In the latter stages we have enjoyed similar advice and guidance from Robert Vernon and Matthew Duffy. In the day to day hurly burly of text construction and deconstruction we owe much to three colleagues at the Press who patiently and wisely guided us through innumerable stages of writing and re-writing: Tom Allen, Lynn Dunlop and Therese Tobin. All three got up close and personal to the manuscripts of this book and the *English Grammar Today Workbook* and provided invaluable critique, advice and insight. We owe an especial debt to Therese Tobin who has remained a close working colleague and friend over many years and who has been an unfailing source of ideas and support, at times during very difficult personal circumstances. It has been a privilege for us to work with her.

Cambridge has given us outstanding and unfailing support from the outset. First and foremost, thanks must go to Hanri Pieterse, Managing Director of Cambridge Learning at the Press from 2006, whose support for this project and its architecture has been instrumental in many ways. We are also much indebted to Ron Ragsdale, Paul Heacock and Melissa Good for the many day-to-day instances of their support and friendship. Cambridge also supplied us with corpora and expert computational support from Andrew Harley, Ann Fiddes and Dominic Glennon, to all of whom we say thank you. Jo Botrill and his team at Out of House Publishing have provided prompt, efficient and meticulous support at the many stages of proofing and manuscript production. Both Out of House and Newgen, as well as illustrators Nigel Dobbyn, Laura Martinez and Paul Moran and Alek Sotirovski, have helped with the design of *English Grammar Today* and *Workbook* and we also thank Lila Purswani and Daniel Perrett for their work on the CD-ROM. We also thank Jeanette Alfoldi and her team at the Press who have overseen the book through its final stages of production.

Development of this publication has made use of the Cambridge International Corpus (CIC). The CIC is a computer database of contemporary spoken and written English, which currently stands at over one billion words. It includes British English, American English and other varieties of English. It also includes the Cambridge Learner

Corpus, developed in collaboration with the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations. Cambridge University Press has built up the CIC to provide evidence about language use that helps to produce better language teaching materials.

Among the university and professional colleagues all the authors have shared over the years, many figures stand out as having profoundly influenced us. One deserves a special mention: John Sinclair, whose untimely death coincided with the earliest phases of this project, was, and remains a significant inspiration to us all, and to whose memory this book is dedicated.

Other British-based colleagues and friends who have supported us and given us ideas and inspiration over the years, who have provided through innumerable conversations a forum for refinement of theory and practice, and who have created platforms in corpus-informed grammar and discourse analysis that have enabled this project in so many ways include: Svenja Adolphs, Dave Allan, Fiona Barker, Michael Baynham, Bethan Benwell, Paula Buttery, Martin Bygate, Andrew Caines, Lynne Cameron, Kathy Conklin, Joanna Channell, Sarah Cole, Guy Cook, Justine Coupland, David Crystal, Joan Cutting, Zoltan Dörnyei, David Evans, Jane Evison, Bryan Fletcher, Amorey Gethin, Sarah Grandage, Peter Grundy, Julia Harrison, John Hawkins, Martin Hewings, Ann Hewings, Michael Hoey, Susan Hunston, Rebecca Hughes, Howard Jackson, Martha Jones, Almut Koester, Dawn Knight, Geoffrey Leech, Michael Lewis, Jeanne McCarten, Tony McEnery, Rosamund Moon, Louise Mullany, Felicity O'Dell, David Oakey, Kieran O'Halloran, Antoinette Renouf, John Richmond, Mario Rinvulcri, Paul Roberts, Paul Seedhouse, Norbert Schmitt, Mike Scott, Alison Sealey, Paul Simpson, Roger Smith, Peter Stockwell, Michael Swan, Joan Swann, Paul Thompson, Ivor Timmis, Brian Tomlinson, Steve Walsh, David Willis, Jane Willis, Alison Wray and Martin Wynne.

From universities and other institutions overseas, inspiration, ideas and friendly support came to us from: Jens Allwood, Carolina Amador Moreno, Gabriela Appel, Guy Aston, Michael Barlow, Douglas Biber, James Binchy, Geraldine Brosnan, Anne Burns, Dermot Campbell, Christopher Candlin, Angela Chambers, Marianne Celce-Murcia, Winnie Cheng, Brian Clancy, Sylvia de Cock, Susan Conrad, Tania Fahey Palma, Fiona Farr, Tony Fitzpatrick, Loretta Fung, Sylviane Granger, Carmen Gregori Signes, Michael Handford, Michael Halliday, Kieran Harrington, Ruquiya Hasan, Margaret Healy, Kent Hill, Jean Hudson, San San Hnin Tun, Paul Hopper, Ken Hyland, Yoshihiko Ikegami, Karen Johnson, Celeste Kinginger, James Lantolf, Diane Larsen-Freeman, Xiaofei Lu, Barbara Maleira Orfano, Anna Mauranen, John McDonagh, Nigel McQuitty, Justin McNamara, Marty Meinardi, Freda Mishan, Tom Morton, Bróna Murphy, David Nunan, Aisling O'Boyle, Eugene O'Brien, María Palma Fahey, Luke Prodromou, Nikoleta Rapti, Randi Reppen, Elaine Riordan, Ute Römer, Chris Rühlemann, Antonia Sánchez Macarro, Helen Sandiford, Elana Shohamy, Howard Siegelman, Rita Simpson, Anoma Siriwardena, Diana Slade, Carol Spöttl, Jeff Stranks, Susan Strauss, Merrill Swain, John Swales, Gerry Sweeney, Hongyin Tao, Scott Thornbury, Steven Thorne, Elena Tognini-Bonelli, Amy Tsui, Koen Van Landeghem, Elaine Vaughan, Mary Vaughn, Shih-Ping Wang, Martin Warren, Linda Waugh, Fiona Wheeler, Geoff Williams and Xuelian Xu.

Others too many to mention have inspired us with conference papers and published work, and to all of them we owe a debt of gratitude. Our domestic partners have, as always, shown great support and patience during the many hours this project has chained us to our desks. Whatever shortcomings remain in *English Grammar Today* are entirely our responsibility.

Ronald Carter, Michael McCarthy,
Geraldine Mark, Anne O'Keeffe.
Nottingham, Cambridge,
Cheltenham and Limerick, 2010.

Introduction

English Grammar Today is an up-to-date guide to the grammar of modern English. It is useful for all users of English but in particular for learners of English at an intermediate to upper-intermediate level (CEF B1–C1). It will also be helpful to teachers of English looking for clear explanations and real examples.

English Grammar Today is a reference book with accompanying CD-ROM. Together they provide a range of grammatical explanations from basic points, such as how we form questions in English, to more advanced points, such as how to use particular words and phrases to apologise, to address people, to be polite, to agree with others or to respond to what is said. They include key features of grammar, such as *adjective, adverb, noun, determiner, ellipsis, main clause, future, conjunction*, as well as individual words and pairs of words which are commonly confused, such as *above/over* and *make/do*.

The book and CD-ROM also cover more general topics, such as slang, dialect, formality, spelling and punctuation, abbreviations, geographical names and telling the time.

The emphasis is on standard modern British English although it does discuss some differences between British and American English and contains valuable information about American English.

English Grammar Today contains a lot of information about the grammar of spoken English and the **CD-ROM** enables you to listen to all the examples of sentences and dialogues from the book. We think it is important to **hear** as well as read grammar.

As well as almost 400 main sections in the book there are an additional 197 sections on the CD-ROM. (See page 4 below.)

There is also an *English Grammar Today Workbook* which contains a range of tasks and exercises (with answers) which help you to practise the most important features of grammar and usage covered in *English Grammar Today*.

Organisation

The book and CD-ROM are organised in a simple A–Z format which makes it easy to look up individual words and patterns of English Grammar. For example, if you want to know about conditionals, you can look up *Conditionals* under C or you can look up individual words that you know are linked to conditionals such as *if* under I and *unless* under U. You can also read about the differences between *if* and *whether* and learn when to say *if* and when to say *whether*.

There are cross references which take you to other connected entries in the book and CD-ROM. For example, the cross references in the *Conditionals* entry will take you to the *If* and *Whether* entries and to other words that are used to form conditionals such as *supposing*, *as long as* and *provided that*. They will also take you to entries which show how conditionals are used in speaking when we want to be polite.

The *English Grammar Today* book contains a large index which helps you to find what you are looking for as well as a glossary which gives you definitions of key

grammatical terms. The CD-ROM has a search function which allows you to look at all instances of a word, phrase or feature of grammar.

The Cambridge International Corpus

Most of the examples in *English Grammar Today* are taken from a corpus of English called the *Cambridge International Corpus* (CIC) developed by Cambridge University Press. A corpus is a large collection of written and spoken language which is stored and processed by computers so that it can be used to describe a language and to serve as a basis for examples for learners. At the time of writing, this corpus consists of over one billion words of English.

The CIC corpus has been collected over many years and consists of real texts taken from everyday written and spoken English. It contains examples drawn from a wide variety of contexts such as newspapers, popular journalism, advertising, letters, literary texts, debates and discussions, service encounters, university tutorials, formal speeches, friends talking in restaurants, families talking at home. The corpus gives us information about how English is really used, it can tell us the most frequent words and patterns in English and it can help us to describe the differences between spoken and written English.

Throughout this book the guidance we give you about English grammar and usage is informed by the *Cambridge International Corpus*. The guidance is also informed by our own experience as teachers of English and by the experience of those with whom we have worked in the writing of this book.

Typical errors

CIC also contains the *Cambridge Learner Corpus* which is a large collection of the language used by learners of English. The learner corpus is particularly helpful as it shows us the most common grammatical mistakes made by learners of English when they speak and write. Many individual entries in *English Grammar Today* contain, usually at the end of the entry, information about the **typical errors** made by learners when they use the word, phrase or grammatical pattern that is discussed in that entry.

Examples in context

In *English Grammar Today* there are many examples of real English in use. Sometimes it is necessary to explain the context in which particular patterns of grammar are used. Some examples in this book give extra information about the example in brackets []. For example:

[email]

I am away from the office until next Tuesday (Sept 21st) and will answer your email as soon as possible after that date.

[a waiter in a restaurant]

Would you like any desserts at all?

In order to illustrate the different ways we use grammar to say something, it is also sometimes important to provide examples which are longer than a single sentence or a single speaking turn. *English Grammar Today* contains several examples of such longer texts and you can listen to these on the **CD-ROM**.

Standard and non-standard

A standard language is a variety of language that is used by governments, in the media, in schools and for international communication. There are different standard varieties of English in the world, such as North American English, Australian English and Indian English. Although these standard varieties differ in terms of their pronunciation, there are few differences in grammar between them. In contrast, there are non-standard forms of a language that are used, for example, in different regional dialects and these non-standard varieties are different from each other.

English Grammar Today describes and shows you the rules of standard written and spoken British English grammar. It has examples of forms of English that are standard but that are more common in speaking than in writing. The book also has some examples of language that are non-standard and not acceptable or appropriate. All users of English make choices all the time about what is most acceptable or appropriate in different contexts. Learners of English should use standard forms of the language in most situations.

Correct English

Incorrect English is shown very clearly by crossing out the words or phrases which are wrong. For example, in the entry *Conjunctions*, we show that coordinating clauses with *but* cannot be reversed. The first sentence is correct but the second sentence is incorrect.

It rained a lot but we've still enjoyed our holiday.

Not: ~~But we've still enjoyed our holiday, it rained a lot.~~

We indicate when a grammatical structure is used in formal English and when a structure is used in informal English. Sometimes this means that you can choose whether you want to sound more formal or more informal. We also show when a grammatical structure is correct in spoken English but incorrect in written English.

Wherever it is appropriate, we explain what is correct or incorrect with reference to the context in which something is used. For example, different kinds of English such as newspaper headlines, emails or sports commentaries make use of patterns of grammar in slightly different ways.

English Grammar Today also covers some topics that people sometimes disagree about. For example, can we end a sentence with a preposition? Do we say *Who shall I give it to?* or *To whom shall I give it?* The book gives clear guidance and help with questions such as these.

Symbols used in *English Grammar Today*

!= Be careful when using this structure

→ = Cross reference to another part of the book

☞ = We use this word or expression in speaking

↔ = Compare these examples

⦿ = Look at the CD-ROM

Additional CD-ROM sections

The following entries are on the CD-ROM:

<i>A bit</i>	<i>Begin or start?</i>	<i>Fall or fall down?</i>
<i>Abbreviations, initials and acronyms</i>	<i>Beneath</i>	<i>Far or a long way?</i>
<i>Abroad</i>	<i>Beside or besides?</i>	<i>Farther, farthest or further, furthest?</i>
<i>Accommodation</i>	<i>Beyond</i>	<i>Fell or felt?</i>
<i>Advice or advise?</i>	<i>Born or borne?</i>	<i>Female or feminine; male or masculine?</i>
<i>Affect or effect?</i>	<i>Classic or classical?</i>	<i>Fit or suit?</i>
<i>Afraid</i>	<i>Commentaries</i>	<i>Following or the following?</i>
<i>After, afterwards</i>	<i>Consider or regard?</i>	<i>Forget or leave?</i>
<i>Age</i>	<i>Consist, comprise or compose?</i>	<i>Formal and informal language</i>
<i>Alike</i>	<i>Content or contents?</i>	<i>Full or filled?</i>
<i>All right and alright</i>	<i>Dare</i>	<i>Fun or funny?</i>
<i>Allow, permit, or let?</i>	<i>Detached impersonal style</i>	<i>Furniture</i>
<i>Almost or nearly?</i>	<i>Dialect</i>	<i>Gender</i>
<i>Alone, lonely, or lonesome?</i>	<i>Diminutives (-let, -y and mini-)</i>	<i>Geographical places</i>
<i>Along or alongside?</i>	<i>Down, downward or downwards?</i>	<i>Grateful or thankful?</i>
<i>Also, as well, or too?</i>	<i>During</i>	<i>Greetings and farewells: hello, goodbye, Happy New Year</i>
<i>Alternate(ly), alternative(ly)</i>	<i>Early</i>	<i>Half</i>
<i>Altogether or all together?</i>	<i>East or eastern; north or northern?</i>	<i>Happen</i>
<i>Always</i>	<i>Economic or economical?</i>	<i>Hate, like, love and prefer</i>
<i>Among and amongst</i>	<i>Efficient or effective?</i>	<i>Hear that, see that</i>
<i>Amount of, number of or quality of?</i>	<i>Elder and eldest or older and oldest?</i>	<i>Help somebody (to) do</i>
<i>Any more or anymore?</i>	<i>Enable</i>	<i>Here and there</i>
<i>Anyone, anybody or anything?</i>	<i>End or finish?</i>	<i>High or tall?</i>
<i>Apart from or except for?</i>	<i>Enjoy</i>	<i>Historic or historical?</i>
<i>Appear</i>	<i>Equipment</i>	<i>Holiday and holidays</i>
<i>Arise or rise?</i>	<i>Especially or specially?</i>	<i>Hopefully</i>
<i>Around or round?</i>	<i>Eventually</i>	<i>House or home?</i>
<i>Arouse or rouse?</i>	<i>Except, except for</i>	<i>Hyperbole</i>
<i>Arrive</i>	<i>Experience or experiment?</i>	<i>Ill or sick?</i>
<i>At all</i>	<i>Explain</i>	<i>Imply or infer?</i>
<i>Away and away from</i>	<i>Fairly</i>	<i>In case of</i>

<i>In fact</i>	<i>Nice or sympathetic?</i>	<i>Register</i>
<i>In front of</i>	<i>No doubt or without doubt?</i>	<i>Remember or remind?</i>
<i>In the way or on the way?</i>	<i>No longer, not any longer</i>	<i>Right or rightly?</i>
<i>Information</i>	<i>No more, not any more</i>	<i>Rob or steal?</i>
<i>Inside</i>	<i>No sooner</i>	<i>Same, similar, identical</i>
<i>Internet discourse and text messages</i>	<i>Not</i>	<i>Scarcely</i>
<i>It's time</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>Seem</i>
<i>Know</i>	<i>Nowadays, these days or today?</i>	<i>Sexist language</i>
<i>Largely</i>	<i>Of course</i>	<i>Slang</i>
<i>Lay or lie?</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>So that or in order that?</i>
<i>Lend or borrow?</i>	<i>Oh</i>	<i>Sometimes or sometime?</i>
<i>Look forward to</i>	<i>One and one's</i>	<i>Soon</i>
<i>Low or short?</i>	<i>Open or opened?</i>	<i>Sound or noise?</i>
<i>Luck and lucky</i>	<i>Opportunity or possibility?</i>	<i>Speech into writing</i>
<i>Made from, made of, made out of, made with</i>	<i>Outside</i>	<i>Standard and non-standard language</i>
<i>Man, mankind or people?</i>	<i>Paragraphs</i>	<i>Suggest</i>
<i>Many</i>	<i>Permit or permission?</i>	<i>Surely</i>
<i>Marry and divorce</i>	<i>Person, persons or people?</i>	<i>Swearing and taboo expressions</i>
<i>Matter</i>	<i>Pick or pick up?</i>	<i>Take</i>
<i>Maybe or may be?</i>	<i>Place names</i>	<i>Telephoning</i>
<i>Maybe or perhaps?</i>	<i>Play or game?</i>	<i>Then</i>
<i>Mind</i>	<i>Please and thank you</i>	<i>Think</i>
<i>Miss</i>	<i>Plenty</i>	<i>Towards or toward?</i>
<i>More</i>	<i>Point of view</i>	<i>Ultimately</i>
<i>More or less</i>	<i>Politics, political, politician or policy?</i>	<i>Very</i>
<i>Most, the most, mostly</i>	<i>Pretty</i>	<i>View</i>
<i>Names and titles: addressing people</i>	<i>Price or prize?</i>	<i>Wake, wake up or awaken?</i>
<i>Nationalities, languages, countries and regions</i>	<i>Principal or principle?</i>	<i>Way</i>
<i>Nearby</i>	<i>Progress</i>	<i>Weather</i>
<i>Nearest or next?</i>	<i>Promise</i>	<i>Whole</i>
<i>Never or not ever?</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>	<i>Within</i>
<i>News</i>	<i>Quiet or quite?</i>	<i>Worth or worthwhile?</i>
<i>Newspaper headlines</i>	<i>Raise or rise?</i>	<i>Yes</i>
	<i>Rather</i>	<i>You know</i>
	<i>Really</i>	<i>You see</i>
	<i>Reason</i>	

Summary

English Grammar Today:

- has a simple A–Z structure, with almost 600 entries.
- uses real examples.
- is clear, readable and very easy to use.
- has a CD-ROM so you can listen to all the sentences and dialogues in the book.
- is informed by a one-billion-word corpus of natural everyday English.
- shows you clearly what is correct and not correct and the typical mistakes which learners of English make.
- gives you information about the context in which things are said and written and what is formal and informal usage.
- gives you a lot of help with spoken English grammar.
- helps you with common grammar problems but also with many different grammar and language topics.

A/an and the

1

A/an and the: meaning

1a

A/an and the are articles. They are a type of determiner and they go before a noun. A/an before a noun shows that what is referred to is not already known to the speaker, listener, writer and/or reader (it is the indefinite article):

*Do you have **a** car?*

*A: Do you live in **a** house?*

*B: No, actually, I live in **an** apartment.*

The before a noun shows that what is referred to is already known to the speaker, listener, writer and/or reader (it is the definite article):

*Where did we park **the** car?* (The speaker and the listener know what car is being referred to.)

*We had to paint **the** apartment before we sold it.* (The speaker and the listener know what apartment is being referred to.)

The makes a noun specific.

↔ Compare

<i>Have you been to an ice rink?</i>	Have you ever been to <i>any</i> ice rink? (<i>an</i> doesn't make the noun <i>ice rink</i> specific)
<i>Have you been to the ice rink?</i>	The speaker and listener know the ice rink which is being referred to (e.g. the one in their town/the local one). <i>The</i> makes the noun <i>ice rink</i> specific.

Not specific

*Would you like **an** apple?*

*Do you have **a** cat?*

Specific ('the one you and I know')

*Would you like to try **the** apple pie?*

*Have you seen **the** cat?*

→ Determiners 98

When do we use a and when do we use an?

1b

In speaking, we use a /ə/ before a consonant sound:

a car a house a big truck a wheel a grey day

! Some words that begin with a vowel letter in writing have a consonant sound:

*/ə ju:'naɪtɪd .../ /ə ju:nɪ'vɜ:sɪti/ /ə wʌn .../
a united group a university a one-year-old child*

We use an /ən/ before a vowel sound:

an apple an old shoe an orchestra an umbrella

! Some words that begin with a consonant letter in writing have a vowel sound:

/ən aʊə(r)/ an hour /ən empi:θri: .../ an MP3 player

How do we pronounce *the*?**1c**

We pronounce *the* in two ways depending on whether the sound which comes after *the* is a vowel or a consonant:

/ði:/ before vowel sounds

/ði: eksɪt/ *the exit* /ði: æpəl/ *the apple*

/ðə/ before consonant sounds

/ðə ti:m/ *the team* /ðə ju:njən/ *the union*

When do we use articles?**1d****A/an and the with types of nouns**

Countable nouns

We only use *a/an* with singular countable nouns:

*I have **a** sister and **a** brother.*

*That was **an** excellent meal.*

We can use *the* with singular and plural countable nouns:

***The** lion roared. **The** tree fell.*

***The** lions roared. **The** trees fell.*

Uncountable nouns

We don't use *a/an* before uncountable nouns:

Could I have rice instead of potatoes with my fish?

Not: ~~Could I have a rice~~

I hope we have nice weather.

Not: ~~I hope we have a nice weather.~~

We can use *the* before uncountable nouns when they refer to a specific example:

***The** rice we bought in the Thai shop is much better than the supermarket rice.*

***The** weather was awful last summer.*

To talk about an individual quantity or more than one quantity of an uncountable noun, we use expressions such as *a bit of*, *a piece of* or *a [specific measure] of*.

*That's **an** amazing **bit of** news.*

Not: ~~That's an amazing news.~~

*We just made **a** big **bowl of** pasta.*

Not: ~~We just made a pasta.~~

*Could I have **a** **litre of** milk, please?*

Not: ~~Could I have a milk, please?~~

General nouns

We only use *the* with general plural nouns when we are referring to a specific set within a general class of people or things.

↔ Compare

<i>Books are so important in my life.</i>	I mean all books in general.
<i>The books were all over the floor.</i>	I mean specific books (that you and I know).

We can make general nouns specific by using an article and adding more information after the noun.

<i>Life is wonderful. (life in general)</i>	<i>The life of a soldier is full of danger. (specifically the life of soldiers, not life in general) She had a life of hard work. (one specific life)</i>
<i>History sometimes repeats itself. (history in general)</i>	<i>He wrote a book on the history of boxing. (specifically the history of boxing) The country has a history of going to war. (one specific history of one country)</i>

Inventions, musical instruments and cultural institutions

When we talk in general about inventions, musical instruments or cultural institutions (such as the cinema, the theatre, the circus, the opera, the ballet), we often use *the*:

***The computer** must be the greatest invention ever.* (The computer as an invention in general, not a specific computer)

***The violin** sounds different to the viola.*

*I love a night at **the opera**.*

→ Nouns 226

No article before determiners (*any, some, my, this*)

We don't use an article with other words that specify a noun (determiner), e.g. *any, some, my, her, this, that*:

I love my job.

Does she want this book?

Not: ~~I love the my job.~~

Not: ~~Does she want the this book?~~

→ Determiners 98

The with things that are universally known

We use *the* with things known to everyone (the sun, the stars, the moon, the earth, the planet) because they are a part of our physical environment or part of the natural world:

***The earth** moves around **the sun**.*

*We lay on **the grass** and watched **the stars**.*

The with everyday things

We use *the* with things that we know as part of our daily lives. *The* does not refer to particular things in this context.

*I don't buy **the newspaper** these days. It's free on **the Internet**.* (newspapers in general)

*They always take **the train**.* (trains in general)

Jobs and professions

When we talk about a person's job, we use **a**:

*She's **a** gardener.*

*He's **an** ambulance driver.*

Places

We use *the* with mountain ranges and some mountains (*the Alps, the Eiger*), groups of islands (*the West Indies*), rivers (*the Danube*), deserts (*the Gobi Desert*), seas (*the Black Sea*), geographical regions or habitats (*the Amazon rainforest*), motorways (*the M42*), the names of some countries (*the People's Republic of China*).

We don't usually use articles with individual mountains or lakes when the name includes *Mount* or *Lake*: *Mount Fuji, Lake Victoria*. We don't use articles with continents (*Asia*), countries (*Romania*), towns (*Edinburgh*), and streets (*Lombard Street*).

→ **Geographical places** ○; **Nationalities, languages, countries and regions** ○; **Place names** ○

The with groups within society

When we talk about particular groups or people within society, we use *the* + adjective:

*I think **the rich** should pay more tax and that **the poor** shouldn't pay any.*

***The young** need to be encouraged and supported in society.*

The with dates

When we say a specific date, we use *the*, but when we write it, we don't use *the*:

Speaking: *I'll see you on **the twenty fourth** of May.*

Writing: *I'll see you on **24th** May.*

When we talk about months, we don't use *the*:

*My birthday is in **September**.*

***May** is my favourite month of all.*

When we talk about seasons in general, we can use either *in* or *in the*. *In* without *the* is often used in more formal or literary contexts:

*These birds arrive in Britain **in summer**, and leave as **the winter** begins.*

***In the summer**, we usually go to the mountains.*

*We rarely get snow **in the winter**.*

When we talk about a specific season, we use *the*:

***The winter** of 1947 was one of the coldest in Britain.*

*We'll definitely visit you **in the summer**.* (meaning next summer)

→ **Nouns 226**

The with Internet, radio and newspaper but mostly not with TV

*I looked it up on **the Internet**.*

Not: ~~on~~-internet

*She was on **the radio** once.*

Not: ~~on~~-radio

*Did you see that story about parrots in **the newspaper**?*

Not: ~~in~~-newspaper

There's usually nothing on TV. (TV means television)

*There's usually nothing on **the television**. (less common)*

The with go to, be at, be in hospital, school, prison

When we talk about the activity that happens in a building rather than about the building itself, we don't use *the*.

↔ Compare

without <i>the</i>	with <i>the</i>
<i>She didn't want to be in hospital but she was too ill to go home. (in hospital means being there as a patient)</i>	<i>She didn't want to be in the hospital ... (in the hospital means being in the building)</i>
<i>When I was at school, we didn't have computers. (at school means being there as a student)</i>	<i>When I was at the school ... (at the school means being in the building)</i>

We don't use *the* with *bed* when we go there to sleep:

*I always **go to bed** at eleven o'clock.*

Not: I always go to the bed ...

We don't use *the* before *work* when we talk about the place where we do our job:

*They **go to work** at 8 am every morning.*

Not: They go to the work ...

→ At, on, and in (time) 51

Possessive expressions

We don't use *the* to refer to an individual's behaviour or to parts of an individual's body:

*He spends most of **his** free time playing computer games.*

Not: He spends most of the free time ...

*I must wash **my** hands.*

Not: I must wash the hands.

This, that and articles

We can use *this* instead of *a/an* or *the*, and *these* instead of *zero article* or *some* when we tell stories and jokes to create a sense of the present:

[beginning of a joke]

There was **this** chicken who wanted to cross the road ... (compare *There was a chicken who wanted to cross the road ...*)

These tourists came into the restaurant once and they ordered fifteen Irish coffees. (compare *Some tourists came into the restaurant once and they ordered ...*)

 In informal speaking, we can use *that* as an alternative to *the* in stories when we refer to something familiar or known to the listener. *That* highlights the fact that the thing being referred to is known to the speaker and listener:

A: *Where did you buy your skirt? I really like it.*

B: *I got it at **that** new shop next to Green's Hotel.* (compare *I got it at **the** new shop next to Green's Hotel.*)

A/an and the: typical errors

1e

- We don't use *the* with plural nouns when we are referring to things in general:
We have to protect wild animals. (referring to wild animals in general)
Not: ~~the wild animals.~~
- We don't use *the* when we refer in general to something abstract or uncountable:
I love Japanese food. (all Japanese food/Japanese food in general)
Not: ~~I love the Japanese food.~~
- We don't use *the* when the noun is not known to the listener or reader:
*Last Sunday, we saw **a** film called 'Nightmare'.* (The speaker doesn't think that the listener knows of this film.)
Not: ~~... we saw the film called 'Nightmare'.~~
- We don't use *the* instead of a possessive pronoun:
*The police asked us to put **our** hands up.*
Not: ~~The police asked us to put the hands up.~~
- We don't use an article with *go to bed*:
*I **go to bed** at eleven most nights.*
Not: ~~I go to the bed at eleven most nights.~~

About

2

About is a preposition or an adverb.

About as a preposition

2a

The most common meaning of *about* as a preposition is 'on the subject of' or 'connected with':

*Do you know anything **about** cricket?*

*I'm very worried **about** my brother. He's not well.*

About is not as specific as *on*.

↔ Compare

He wrote a book about the Spanish Civil War.	<i>about</i> is more general and slightly more informal.
He wrote a book on Barcelona during the Spanish Civil War.	<i>on</i> focuses on more specific and detailed information and is slightly more formal.

! There are some words we use with *about*:

complain, concern, excited, happy and worry:

He never **complains about** the pain.

Everybody was very **concerned about** the accident.

I'm very **excited about** coming to France and I can't wait to see you.

I'm very **happy about** my trip.

Please don't **worry about** me.

! There are some words we don't use with *about*:

aware, consider, description, discuss, experience and mention:

She's not **aware of** the rules of the road.

Have you **considered** changing your career?

Can you give us a **description** of the bag?

Let's **discuss** the new schedule.

They have no **experience of** looking after children.

She didn't **mention** where the keys were.

→ *On, onto* 245

About as an adverb

2b

We use *about* as an adverb when we talk about time, number and quantity. *About* makes the time, number or quantity less specific and more approximate:

specific

Dinner is at six.

approximate

Dinner is **about** six.

We moved house three years ago. We moved house **about** three years ago.

About can also be used (though less commonly) as an adverb with a meaning of 'around':

I was thinking of all the pollution that's floating **about** in the air.

→ *Around or round?* 20; *Vague expressions* 359; *Suggestions* 341

Be about to

2c

We use the modal expression *be about to* as an adjective in the modal expression *be about to* to refer to something that will happen very soon in the future:

He was **about** to phone the police.

→ *Modality: expressions with be* 212c

Above

3

Above is a preposition (PREP) or an adverb (ADV).

Above meaning 'higher than'

Above means 'higher than'. We usually use it when there is no contact between people or things:

[a doctor asks a patient]

[PREP]

*Can you raise your hand **above** your head for me please? (Can you raise your hand higher than your head?)*

[ADV]

*The river flowed gently through the valley, while birds flew **above**. It was a beautiful scene.*

The opposites of *above* are *under*, *below* and *beneath*.

→ Over 255; Beneath ❶; Above or over? 4

Measuring higher

We use *above* to talk about measurements and temperatures that are higher than a particular level:

*Mexico City is 2,240 metres **above** sea level.*

*Temperatures **above** 25 degrees are rare in this part of the world.*

As mentioned above: Referring back in writing

In formal writing, we often use *above* not *before* to refer back to something we have already written about. We can use *as mentioned above*, *as noted above*, *as demonstrated above*, *as shown above*:

*As **noted above**, all employees must take part in our health and safety course.*

Not: *As **noted before** ...*

*As **demonstrated above**, this problem is very complex.*

Not: *As **demonstrated before** ...*

We can also say *the above*. We only do this when the readers understand clearly what *the above* refers to:

*As **the table above** shows, there has been a rapid rise in greenhouse gases. (or **As the above** shows ... the reader understands that *the above* refers to the table)*

Above or over?

4

When we use *above* as a preposition, it means 'higher than'. Its meaning is close to that of the preposition *over*. In the following sentences, *over* can be used instead of *above*:

*The waves came up **above** her head and she started screaming. (or ... came up **over** her head ...)*

*She is a nervous flier. But once the plane got **above** the clouds, she started to relax.*
(or ... got **over** the clouds ...)

We use *above*, but not *over*, to refer to things that are at an upper or higher level:

[a 'chalet' is a small wooden building usually found in mountainous areas]
*Do they live in that chalet **above** the village?*

Not: *Do they live in that chalet over the village?*

We usually use *above*, but not *over*, when there is no contact between the things referred to. *Over* or *on top of* have a more general meaning, and can be used when one thing touches or covers another:

*They made her comfortable and put a blanket **over** her.*

Not: *They made her comfortable and put a blanket above her.*

We normally use *over* not *above* with numbers:

*I get **over** sixty emails a day.*

Not: *I get above sixty emails a day.*

*If you weigh **over** 100 kilograms, then you may need to start a diet.*

Not: *If you weigh above 100 kilograms*

! When we talk about temperatures in relation to *zero* or *(the) average*, we use *above* not *over*:

*It was three degrees **above** zero.*

Not: *It was three degrees over zero.*

When we refer to temperatures in other contexts, we can normally use *above* or *over*:

*The temperature is already **above** 30 degrees. (or ... **over** 30 degrees.)*

Typical errors

- We don't use *over* to mean 'higher level'.

*Most of the race is 500 metres **above** sea level.*

Not: *Most of the race is 500 over sea level.*

- We don't use *above* when one thing touches or covers another.

*Pour some cream **over** the tart and serve it warm.*

Not: *Pour some cream above the tart*

- We don't use *above* with numbers.

***Over** 100 people complained about the programme.*

Not: *Above 100 people complained*

→ **Over 255; Beneath 0; Above 3**

According to

5

According to means 'as reported by' or 'as stated by' and refers to an opinion which is not the speaker's opinion. *According to* usually occurs in front position. It is commonly followed by a noun phrase and sometimes by a clause:

***According to** Jeff, the film starts at 7.30.*

According to the instructions, you'll need to buy some glue.

The government, **according to** a poll taken last month, may lose the next election.

We often use *according to* in formal contexts to refer to official evidence such as statistics or reports:

According to a recent report by the Department of Health, most people still do not take enough exercise.

According to also means 'depending on' or 'in agreement with':

They take a test and are then put in to groups **according to** their ability.

The rents are high but they vary **according to** whether you want a garden.

Typical error

- We only use *according to* when we refer to an opinion from someone else or somewhere else. When we talk about our opinion, we use phrases such as 'in my opinion' or 'in our view':

In my opinion, they were not very polite.

Not: ~~According to me~~ ...

→ Opinion 249

Across, over or through?

6

Across

6a

We use *across* as a preposition (PREP) and an adverb (ADV). *Across* means on the other side of something, or from one side to the other of something which has sides or limits such as a city, road or river:

[PREP]

We took a boat **across** the river.

[PREP]

Across the room, she could see some old friends. She got up and went to join them.

[ADV]

My neighbour came **across** to see me this morning to complain about our cat.

[ADV]

The road was so busy that we found it difficult to get **across**.

We also use *across* when something touches or stretches from one side to another:

The Ponte Vecchio is a beautiful old bridge **across** the river Arno in Florence.

She divided the page by drawing a red line **across** it. Then she cut it in two.

Especially in American English, *across from* is used to refer to people or objects being 'opposite' or 'on the other side':

The pharmacy is **across from** the Town Hall.

Helen's office is just **across from** mine.

We use *across* to emphasise that something is happening at the same time in many places, e.g. within an organisation, a city or a country:

She's opened coffee shops **across** the city and they're very successful.

Across the country, people are coming out to vote for a new president.

We also use *across* to refer to the width or diagonal measurement of something:

*The size of a television screen is measured from the higher corner of one side to the lower corner of the other side, that is, from one corner **across** to the opposite corner.*

Across comes after measurements when we talk about diameter or width:

*The building is 157 metres long, 92 metres **across** and the façade is 68 metres wide.*

Over

6b

We use *over* as a preposition and an adverb to refer to something at a higher position than something else, sometimes involving movement from one side to another:

[PREF]

*From the castle tower, you can see **over** the whole city.*

[PREP]

*We toasted marshmallows **over** the fire.*

[PREP]

*We drove high up **over** the mountains on a narrow dangerous road.*

[ADV]

*Suddenly a plane flew **over** and dropped hundreds of leaflets.*

Come over often means to come to the speaker's home:

[ADV]

*You must **come over** and have dinner with us some time.*

Especially when we use them as adverbs, *over* can mean the same as *across*:

*We walked **over** to the shop.* (or *We walked **across** to the shop* – the shop is on the other side of the road)

*I was going **across** to say hello when I realised that I couldn't remember his name.*
(or *I was going **over** to say ...* meaning 'to the other side of the street or room')

Across or through?

6c

Movement

When we talk about movement from one side to another but 'in something', such as long grass or a forest, we use *through* instead of *across*:

*I love walking **through** the forest.* (*through* stresses being in the forest as I walk)

Not: *I love walking **across** the forest.*

*When my dog runs **through** long grass, it's difficult to find him.* (*through* stresses that the dog is in the grass)

Not: *When my dog runs **across** long grass ...*

Time

When referring to a period of time from start to finish, American English speakers often use *through* where British English speakers say *from ... to/till ...*:

The office is open Monday **through** Friday, 9 am – 5 pm. (preferred British form: from Monday to Friday)

-  We use *over*, not *through*, to refer to periods of time from start to finish when a number is specified (of days, weeks, etc.):

***Over** the last few days, I have been thinking a lot about quitting my job.*

Across, over and through: typical errors

6d

- When moving from one side to another while surrounded by something, we use *through* not *across*:

*We cycled **through** a number of small villages.*

Not: ~~We cycled across a number of small villages.~~

- When we talk about something extending or moving from one side to another, we use *across* not *on*:

*The papers were spread **across** the table.*

Not: ~~The papers were spread on the table.~~

- We don't use *through* when we're talking about periods of time from start to finish and we mention a specific number of days, weeks, etc:

*We haven't seen each other much **over** the last four years.*

Not: ~~We haven't seen each other much through the last four years.~~

Actual and actually

7

Actual

7a

Actual is an adjective meaning 'true', 'real' and 'the thing in itself'. It does not refer to time. *Actual* always comes immediately before the noun it is describing:

*We didn't go to the **actual** match but we watched it on TV.*

*People think she is over thirty but her **actual** age is eighteen.*

-  *Actual* is often used in speaking in the expression 'in actual fact'. It has a similar meaning to 'in fact', but it gives more emphasis to what the speaker is saying:

***In actual fact**, her health a year ago was much worse.*

→ In fact ○

Actually as a discourse marker

7b

-  *Actually* is often used in speaking as a discourse marker. We use it to indicate a new topic of conversation or a change or contrast in what is being talked about.

We also use *actually* to give more detail about a topic. We do not use it to refer to time:

A: *I suppose you're going away this weekend?*

B: ***Actually**, I am going to stay at home. I've got a lot of work to do on the computer.*

[a customer (A) in a large bookshop is asking about books about travel.]

A: *Could you tell me where your books on Austria are kept?*

B: *What kind of books?*

A: Well, **actually** I'm looking for a book on skiing in Austria.

B: Er, yes, *they're in that corner over there.*

→ Discourse markers 104

Actually as contrast

7c

 We can use *actually* to emphasise a contrast with what is expected to be true or real:

*He **actually** admitted that he enjoyed it.* (He was not expected to enjoy it)

A: *Where are they now?*

B: *They're very near to your apartment **actually**.* (They were not expected to be so near)

We can also use *actually* to correct someone politely:

*I think ten people, not eight, came to the meeting, **actually**.*

Actual and actually: typical errors

7d

- In some languages *actual* has the meaning of 'current' and 'at the present time'. This is not correct in English:

*The **current** population of the Russian Federation is 230 million.*

Not: ~~The actual population of the Russian Federation ...~~

***At the present time** she is working in London.*

Not: ~~Actually she is working in London.~~

Adjectives

8

Adjectives are one of the four major word classes, along with nouns, verbs and adverbs. Examples of adjectives are: *big, small, blue, old, rich* and *nice*. They give us more information about people, animals or things represented by nouns and pronouns:

*That's a **big** house.*

*Look at the **grey** horse.*

*Some dogs have **long** tails.*

*She is **tall**.*

→ Nouns 226; Pronouns 287

Meanings of adjectives

8a

Adjectives give us more information. They modify or describe features and qualities of people, animals and things.

Here are some of the common meanings.

examples	meaning
<i>I am fond of ice cream.</i> <i>Cairo is different from Alexandria.</i> <i>His car is similar to mine.</i> Other examples: <i>keen (on), near (to), aware (of)</i>	Relations between people and things. These adjectives usually require a word or phrase (complement) to complete their meaning.
<i>He's generous.</i> <i>She's a kind woman.</i> <i>The waiter was very polite.</i> Other examples: <i>talkative, cruel, cooperative, helpful, useful</i>	Descriptions of people and things in terms of their actions.
<i>That's an old house.</i> <i>The Olympic stadium is big.</i> Other examples: <i>tall, old, good, rough, true, ugly, red, heavy</i>	Features that will last a long time or will not change (permanent).
<i>Anyone hungry? Lunch is nearly ready.</i> <i>It's so cold in Nick's house.</i> Other examples: <i>absent, ill, dry, full, lonely, wet, hot, thirsty, angry</i>	States and conditions that can change.
<i>I saw a great French film last night.</i> <i>I don't like modern paintings.</i> <i>I live in a detached house.</i> Other examples: <i>organic (vegetables), impressionist (painter), wild (salmon)</i>	Classifying people and things into types.

→ Adjective phrases 11

Oppositeness

8b

Most common adjectives are members of a pair of opposites (antonyms):

<i>beautiful – ugly</i>	<i>dead – alive</i>	<i>happy – sad</i>	<i>rough – smooth</i>
<i>big – small</i>	<i>dry – wet</i>	<i>heavy – light</i>	<i>tall – short</i>
<i>cold – hot</i>	<i>good – bad</i>		

Gradable and ungradable

8c

Many pairs of opposites are gradable, i.e. they have different degrees of the same feature:

Small:

*This suitcase is **extremely small**.*

*This suitcase is **very small**.*

*This suitcase is **quite small**.*

Hot:

It was **reasonably hot** in Italy this summer.

It was **quite hot** in Italy this summer.

It was **pretty hot** in Italy this summer.

It was **very hot** in Italy this summer.

It was **extremely hot** in Italy this summer.



One type of adjective is not gradable. These are the adjectives that we use to classify people and things into types:

! These vegetables are **organic**.

Not: These vegetables are ~~very organic~~.

I like salmon especially when it is **wild**.

Not: I ~~like~~ salmon especially when it is ~~quite wild~~.

→ Adjective phrases 11; Gradable opposites (antonyms) 13d

Adjectives: forms

9

Unlike in many other languages, adjectives in English do not change (agree) with the noun that they modify:

All new **foreign students** are welcome to join the clubs and societies.

Not: All new ~~foreigns~~ students ...

Every room was painted in **different colours**.

Not: ... in ~~different~~s colours.

Identifying adjectives

9a

There is no general rule for making adjectives. We know they are adjectives usually by what they do (their function) in a sentence. However, some word endings (suffixes) are typical of adjectives.

suffix	examples
-able, -ible	comfortable, readable, incredible, invisible
-al, -ial	comical, normal, musical, industrial, presidential
-ful	beautiful, harmful, peaceful, wonderful
-ic	classic, economic, heroic, romantic
-ical	aeronautical, alphabetical, political
-ish	British, childish, Irish, foolish
-ive, -ative	active, alternative, creative, talkative

-less	endless, motionless, priceless, timeless
-eous, -ious, -ous	spontaneous, hideous, ambitious, anxious, dangerous, famous
-y	angry, busy, wealthy, windy



Adjectives ending in *-ic* and *-ical* often have different meanings:

The **economic** policy of this government has failed.

A diesel car is usually more **economical** than a petrol one.

→ Adjectives 8; Classic or classical? ○; Economic or economical? ○; Historic or historical? ○

Forming adjectives from other words

9b

Suffixes

Some adjectives are made from nouns and verbs by adding suffixes.

noun	adjective
hero	heroic
wind	windy
child	childish
beauty	beautiful

verb	adjective
read	readable
talk	talkative
use	useful
like	likeable

I hate **windy** days.

San Francisco is a very **hilly** place.

Some words ending in *-ly* can be both adjectives and adverbs. These include *daily*, *early*, *monthly*, *weekly*, *nightly*, *yearly*:

Adjective: She gets a **weekly** payment from her parents. (She gets money every week.)

Adverb: I pay my rent **weekly**. (I pay my rent every week.)

Some words ending in *-ly* are only adjectives and not adverbs. These include: *costly*, *cowardly*, *deadly*, *friendly*, *likely*, *lonely*, *lovely*, *oily*, *orderly*, *scholarly*, *silly*, *smelly*, *timely*, *ugly*, *woolly*.

We enjoyed the trip to America but it was a **costly** holiday.

Oily fish is very healthy because it contains omega 3.

→ Word formation 389; Adverbs 16; Prefixes 274; Suffixes 340

Prefixes

Prefixes such as *un-*, *in-*, *im-*, *il-* and *ir-* change the meaning of adjectives. Adding these prefixes makes the meaning negative:

un-

fair – *unfair*

happy – *unhappy*

sure – *unsure*

in-

active – *inactive*

appropriate – *inappropriate*

complete – *incomplete*

ir-

responsible – *irresponsible*

regular – *irregular*

reducible – *irreducible*

im-

balance – *imbalance*

polite – *impolite*

possible – *impossible*

il-

legal – *illegal*

legible – *illegible*

logical – *illogical*

→ Prefixes 274; Suffixes 340

Adjectives: comparative and superlative

9c

Many one-syllable adjectives have endings to show the comparative and superlative.

base form	comparative	superlative
<i>fine</i>	<i>finer</i>	<i>finest</i>
<i>young</i>	<i>younger</i>	<i>youngest</i>
<i>small</i>	<i>smaller</i>	<i>smallest</i>

Some two-syllable adjectives which end in an unstressed syllable also have these endings.

base form	comparative	superlative
<i>easy</i>	<i>easier</i>	<i>easiest</i>
<i>funny</i>	<i>funnier</i>	<i>funniest</i>
<i>gentle</i>	<i>gentler</i>	<i>gentlest</i>

However, we do not use these endings with two-syllable adjectives ending in a stressed syllable nor with longer adjectives with more than two syllables. The comparatives and superlatives of these adjectives are formed using *more* and *most*.

base form	comparative	superlative
<i>complete</i>	<i>more complete</i> Not: <i>completer</i>	<i>most complete</i> Not: <i>completest</i>
<i>interesting</i>	<i>more interesting</i> Not: <i>interestinger</i>	<i>most interesting</i> Not: <i>interestingest</i>

→ Comparative and superlative adjectives 77a

Adjectives: with -ing and -ed (interesting, interested)**9d**

We use the -ing and -ed forms of regular and irregular verbs as adjectives:

-ing forms

verb	example
annoy	<i>My brother is five and he's so annoying.</i>
amaze	<i>The Grand Canyon is an amazing place.</i>
boil	<i>Be careful! That's boiling water!</i>
excite	<i>This film is not very exciting, is it?</i>

-ed forms

verb	example
bore	<i>Why do teenagers always look bored?</i>
pack	<i>James Bond movies are always action-packed.</i>
smoke	<i>Not everyone likes smoked salmon.</i>
make	<i>My dress is hand-made. I really like it.</i>
teach	<i>My Master's degree was a taught course.</i>
excite	<i>I feel excited about my new job.</i>

Adjectives with -ing and -ed endings have different meanings.

-ing adjectives -ing adjectives describe the effect	-ed adjectives -ed adjectives describe how a person feels
<i>The meeting was very boring. That was an exciting game. It was shocking to see what the storm had done to the house.</i>	<i>I felt bored at the meeting. We were really excited about the game. We were shocked to see what the storm had done to the house.</i>

! Commonly confused pairs of adjectives ending in -ing and -ed are: *interesting, interested; boring, bored; exciting, excited; embarrassing, embarrassed*.

Adjectives: order

10

Order of adjectives

10a

When more than one adjective comes before a noun, the adjectives are normally in a particular order. Adjectives which describe opinions or attitudes (e.g. *amazing*) usually come first, before more neutral, factual ones (e.g. *red*):

*She was wearing an **amazing red** coat.*

Not: ... ~~red-amazing~~ coat

If we don't want to emphasise any one of the adjectives, the most usual sequence of adjectives is:

order	relating to	examples
1	opinion	<i>unusual, lovely, beautiful</i>
2	size	<i>big, small, tall</i>
3	physical quality	<i>thin, rough, untidy</i>
4	shape	<i>round, square, rectangular</i>
5	age	<i>young, old, youthful</i>
6	colour	<i>blue, red, pink</i>
7	origin	<i>Dutch, Japanese, Turkish</i>
8	material	<i>metal, wood, plastic</i>
9	type	<i>general-purpose, four-sided, U-shaped</i>
10	purpose	<i>cleaning, hammering, cooking</i>

1 6 8

*It was made of a **strange, green, metallic** material.*

4 8 10

*It's a **long, narrow, plastic** brush.*

4 7 9

*Panettone is a **round, Italian, bread-like** Christmas cake.*

Here are some invented examples of longer adjective phrases. A noun phrase which included all these types would be extremely rare.

1 2 3 5 6 7

*She was a **beautiful, tall, thin, young, black-haired, Scottish** woman.*

1 2 5 7

*What an **amazing, little, old, Chinese** cup and saucer!*

Adjectives joined by *and*

When more than one adjective occurs after a verb such as *be* (a linking verb), the second last adjective is normally connected to the last adjective by *and*:

*Home was always a warm, welcoming place. Now it is sad, dark **and** cold.*

And is less common when more than one adjective comes before the noun (e.g. *a warm, welcoming place*). However, we can use *and* when there are two or more adjectives of the same type, or when the adjectives refer to different parts of the same thing:

*It was a **blue and green** cotton shirt.*

→ Adjectives 8

Adjective phrases

11

An adjective phrase always has an adjective acting as the head. The adjective phrase may also contain words or phrases before or after the head (modifiers and complements):

Adjective (head):

*That's a **lovely** cake.*

*These flowers are **wonderful**.*

Adjective preceded by a modifier (underlined):

*That soup is pretty **cold**.*

*Many of the exercises are fairly **difficult**.*

Adjective + a modifier after it:

*The food was **tasty** enough.*

*The car is **economical** for its size.*

Adjective + a word or phrase which is required to complete its meaning (a complement):

*She was **aware** of the danger of travelling alone.*

*Some people weren't **willing** to pay extra to book a seat on the plane.*

Adjective preceded by a modifier + a word or phrase which is required to complete its meaning (a complement):

*We're not very **keen** on having an activity holiday.*

*Are you really **interested** in rock and roll?*

Some adjective phrases have more complex structures.

→ Adjectives 8; Adjective phrases: position 13

Adjective phrases: functions

12

Adjective phrases with nouns

12a

One of the main functions of adjective phrases is that they go with nouns and change or add to their meaning.

Hair: **black hair**, **brown hair**, **straight blonde hair**, **long red hair**.

Adjective phrases before a noun are called attributive phrases.

	adjective phrase	noun
<i>She speaks in a</i>	very slow	<i>voice.</i>
<i>We never cycle in</i>	heavy	<i>rain.</i>
<i>I'd love a cup of</i>	hot	<i>chocolate.</i>

Adjective phrases before a noun occur after determiners.

	determiner	adjective phrase	noun
<i>Sarah is</i>	<i>my</i>	youngest	<i>sister.</i>
<i>Where are</i>	<i>the</i>	really big	<i>bowls?</i>
<i>I know</i>	<i>some</i>	very good	<i>restaurants.</i>

If the head of the noun phrase is one of the following pronouns, the adjective phrase occurs after the pronoun:

<i>anyone</i>	<i>everyone</i>	<i>no one</i>	<i>someone</i>
<i>anybody</i>	<i>everybody</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>somebody</i>
<i>anything</i>	<i>everything</i>	<i>nothing</i>	<i>something</i>
<i>anywhere</i>	<i>everywhere</i>	<i>nowhere</i>	<i>somewhere</i>

	noun phrase		
	head	adjective phrase	
<i>There's</i>	<i>nowhere</i>	<i>nice</i>	<i>to go for a walk here.</i>
<i>I have</i>	<i>nothing</i>	<i>good</i>	<i>to say about it as a holiday resort.</i>
<i>There's</i>	<i>something</i>	<i>terribly sad</i>	<i>about saying goodbye, isn't there?</i>
<i>Let's go</i>	<i>somewhere</i>	<i>different.</i>	

If an attributive adjective needs a word or phrase to complete its meaning (a complement), either the whole adjective phrase or just its complement must follow the head noun.

↔ Compare

<i>Are they a similar colour?</i>	adjective (in bold) with no complement
<i>She was wearing a dress similar to the one that she wore when <u>she first met her husband.</u></i>	adjective (in bold) and complement (underlined) both after the noun head (<i>dress</i>)
<i>I was living in a similar apartment <u>to this one.</u></i>	adjective (in bold) before the noun head (<i>apartment</i>); complement (underlined) after the noun head

! For a number of adjectives, the whole adjective phrase must follow the noun when a complement of the adjective is used. These include *closed, eager, full, happy, keen, open, ready, responsible, (un)willing, worth*.

	noun phrase	adjective phrase + complement	
Who is	the person	responsible for security?	
	Fans	keen to get a ticket	waited all night in the queue.
We have	a boat	ready to leave in an hour.	

Adjective phrases with verbs (*Brenda is happy*)

12b

The second main function of an adjective phrase is to be a complement to a verb. It completes the meaning of verbs that describe what the subject is, does or experiences. These verbs include *be, seem, become, feel, smell, taste* (linking verbs). When adjective phrases complement verbs, this is called their predicative function.

	subject	linking verb	adjective phrase
	I	felt	sad.
	This soup	smells	really wonderful.
She thought	the room	was	very strange.
	That coffee	tastes	too strong.

Object complements

12c

We also use adjective phrases to give more information about an object (underlined) so as to complete its meaning (object complement):

Sitting in traffic drives me crazy.

The fire has made the room much warmer.

Money doesn't always make us happy.

→ Adjective phrases 11; Verbs 360; Complements 82

Adjective phrases: position

13

When an adjective is used with a noun, the usual order in English is adjective + noun:

a **yellow** balloon

Not: a balloon-yellow

→ Adjective phrases 11

Adjectives with nouns and verbs

13a

Adjectives can go before the noun (attributive) or after linking verbs such as *be*, *become*, *seem* (predicative):

*What a **beautiful** flower!* (attributive)

*This bridge looks **unsafe**.* (predicative)

Some adjectives can only be used in one position or the other.

Adjectives normally only used before a noun

Numbers and *first*, *last*

With numbers and with words like *first*, *last*, *next*, the usual order is *first/next* + number + adjective + noun:

*Special offer on the **last three** remaining sofas.*

*There used to be **two big** fields here when I was young.*

*I don't have to work for the **next four** days.*

*That's the **second large** study on unemployment this year.*

Some adjectives of degree

When we use words like *absolute*, *complete*, *perfect* to talk about degree, they can only be used before nouns. This group of adjectives includes *proper*, *pure*, *real*, *sheer*, *true*, *utter*:

*That's an **absolute** lie. I did not use your car when you were away.*

Not: ~~That lie is absolute.~~

*Lily has always been a **true** friend to me.*

Not: ~~My friend Lily is true.~~

Some adjectives of time and order

Some time and order adjectives, such as *former*, *present*, *future*, are used before the noun only. Other examples are *latter*, *old* (*an old friend* = 'a friend for many years'), *early* (*early French literature* = 'of the initial period in the history of something'), and *late* (*the late Mr Richards* = 'died recently'):

*Her **former** husband had bought the house but she never liked it.*

Not: ~~Her husband was former ...~~

*This is a church from the **early** Romanesque period*

Not: ~~This is a church from the Romanesque period. The Romanesque period was early.~~

When we use *early* after a verb (predicatively) it means something different. *The train was **early*** means that it came before we expected it.

Some adjectives that limit the following noun

Adjectives like *certain*, *main*, *major*, *only*, *particular* limit the noun that they go before (*the only people who know*, *the particular road that we travelled on*). Other examples are *principal*, *sole* (meaning 'only'), *very*, *chief*:

*The **main** reason why the cinema closed is because the building was too old and dangerous.*

Not: ~~The reason is main why the cinema ...~~

*That's the **very** tool I am looking for. (very means 'exact')*

Not: ~~That tool is very ...~~

Adjectives normally only used after a noun

We use some *-ed* forms after a noun:

*Most of the issues **mentioned** in the documentary are not very important.*

Not: ~~Most of the mentioned issues ...~~

*The difference in percentages is clear from the illustrations **shown**.*

Not: ~~... from the shown illustrations.~~

Adjectives normally only used after a verb

Adjectives with the prefix *a-*

We can't use adjectives with the prefix *a-* before a noun. We use them after linking verbs such as *be, seem, become, feel, smell, taste*. Common examples of adjectives with the prefix *a-* include *awake, alive, asleep, aboard* (on a plane, boat, bus or train), *afloat, ablaze* (on fire):

*Katie was **awake** at the time.*

Not: ~~Katie was an awake person at the time.~~

*People were **asleep** in the bedroom.*

Not: ~~There were asleep people in the bedroom.~~

*The passengers were all **aboard** when they heard the loud bang.*

Not: ~~The aboard passengers heard the loud bang.~~

If we want to express a similar meaning with an adjective in front of the noun, we can use a related adjective.

↔ Compare

before a noun	after a verb
<i>Even fourteen days after the earthquake, rescue workers were still finding live babies in the rubble.</i>	<i>Even fourteen days after the earthquake, rescue workers were still finding babies who were alive in the rubble.</i>
<i>It is very strange to see a lone wolf. They always stay together in groups called a 'pack'.</i>	<i>It is very strange to see a wolf who is alone. They always stay together in groups called a 'pack'.</i>
<i>There was a blazing fire in the cinema. It took many firemen to put it out.</i>	<i>The cinema was ablaze for many hours and it took many firemen to put out the fire.</i>

Some adjectives referring to states of health

Most commonly, the adjectives *ill* and *well* are used after a verb and not before a noun:

*I **feel ill**.*

Not: ~~He went to visit his ill sister.~~

*She's not **well**.*

Not: ~~He's not a well child.~~

Words and phrases that go before and after adjectives**13b**

The most typical words and phrases that go before adjectives (premodifiers) are adverb phrases expressing degree:

*He was **pretty surprised** then.*

*This cake tastes **a bit strange**.*

*Photographs are **really cheap** nowadays.*

The major exception is the degree adverb *enough*, which goes after the adjective (a postmodifier):

*I am **strong enough** to face the difficulties.*

*Is that car **big enough** for all of us?*

→ Enough 118

Other types of adverbs can also go before adjectives:

*He had lost his **usually calm** attitude and become very nervous.* (adverb of frequency + adjective)

*He made an **insensitively timed** remark that upset her.* (comment adverb + adjective)

Gradable adjectives and words and phrases that go before them**13c**

Most common adjectives can express different degrees of qualities, properties, states, conditions, relations, etc. These are called gradable adjectives:

*a **pretty big** meal*

*a **really big** meal*

*an **extremely big** meal*

Before gradable adjectives, we can use words which show different degrees of the feature in question. These are usually adverb phrases.

<i>The waves are fairly high in the winter.</i> <i>The waves are quite high in the winter.</i>	an adverb of degree used before gradable adjective <i>high</i> .
<i>The waves are <u>this</u> high in the winter.</i> <i>I can't believe the waves are <u>that</u> high in the winter.</i>	<i>This high</i> would usually be spoken with a gesture showing a specific height. <i>That high</i> refers to a statement made by someone about the height of the waves or to the moment of seeing the high waves.
<i>The waves are over six metres high in the winter.</i>	<i>Six metres</i> is a noun phrase. Certain adjectives expressing measurable features (e.g. height, thickness, age, time) may be modified by such noun phrases: <i>The wall is half a metre thick.</i> <i>The clock is over 100 years old.</i> <i>Sorry, we're half an hour early!</i>

Some degree adverbs (*so, too, as*) need a word or phrase to complete their meaning (a complement). The complement may be a clause or a phrase. The complement comes after the adjective head.

↔ Compare

<i>The waves were so high that they went onto the street!</i>	<i>So</i> is the degree adverb before the adjective <i>high</i> . It needs the complement <i>that they went onto the street</i> in order to complete its meaning.
<i>The waves are too high to go sailing.</i>	<i>Too</i> is the degree adverb before the adjective <i>high</i> . It needs the complement <i>to go sailing</i> in order to complete its meaning.
<i>The waves are as high as the wall in the winter.</i>	To say that things are the same, we use <i>as</i> + adjective + <i>as</i> + complement.
<i>The waves are higher than the wall in the winter.</i>	To compare two things which are different, we add the suffix <i>-er</i> to the adjective before the complement.

How is used to ask questions and to make exclamations about degree. There is an important difference in word order.

↔ Compare

<i>How high are the waves?</i>	A question about degree: <i>how</i> + adjective + verb + noun phrase?
<i>How high the waves are!</i>	An exclamation about degree: <i>how</i> + adjective + noun phrase + verb!

- ! Some adjectives cannot be made bigger, smaller, higher, lower, stronger, weaker, etc. These are called ungradable adjectives:

*The tree is **dead**.*

Not: ~~The tree is fairly dead.~~

*My dog is **female**.*

Not: ~~My dog is sort of female.~~

Other common ungradable adjectives include: *automatic/manual*; *Irish/Brazilian/Thai* etc.; *married/unmarried/single*.

Gradable opposites (antonyms)

13d

Open-ended

The most common gradable adjectives can be grouped into pairs of opposites (antonyms) which refer to features like height: *short* – *tall*; heat: *hot* – *cold*, size;

big – small, etc. These adjectives are at the upper and lower parts of an open-ended scale (a scale with no maximum or minimum):



! We can't use ungradable adverbs such as *completely*, *absolutely*, *entirely*, *utterly* or *totally* before these adjectives because they are open-ended:

*My working day is **very** long. I start work at 8 am and I don't finish until 8 pm.*

Not: *My working day is **completely** long.*

*My house is **so** hot.*

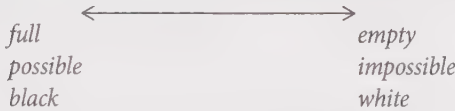
Not: *My house is **absolutely** hot.*

*This office is **extremely** small.*

Not: *This office is **totally** small.*

Maximum and minimum

Some other gradable adjectives can express features which have a maximum and/or minimum (zero) value:



We can use degree adverbs such as *absolutely*, *completely*, *entirely*, *totally* and other similar words before these adjectives:

*We haven't had rain for two months. The garden is **completely** dry.*

*The city centre is **absolutely** full of tourists at this time of year.*

Other degree adverbs which we can use before this type of gradable adjective include *almost*, *barely*, *half*, *scarcely*:

*Brain cell regeneration is **almost** possible, say scientists.*

! The ungradable adverb *quite* has different meanings depending on whether it is used with an open-ended gradable adjective (*hot – cold*) or an adjective which has a maximum and/or minimum (*black – white*).

↔ Compare

<i>It's quite cold in here.</i> <i>I'm quite hungry now. Are you?</i>	<i>quite</i> means 'fairly'
<i>The situation in my old job was quite different. It was a very small new company.</i> <i>You're quite right – the plane leaves at 3 pm, not 4 pm.</i>	<i>quite</i> means 'completely' In this context, <i>quite</i> is given extra spoken stress.

→ *Quite* 306; Gradable and ungradable adjectives 8c

Different meanings of adjectives before the noun and after the verb 13e

We can use some adjectives before the noun or after the verb but the meaning differs.

↔ Compare

before the noun (attributive)	after the verb (predicative)
<i>We can finish that job on Monday but this particular job needs to be done by today. (particular means 'this and not any other/specific')</i>	<i>My boss is very particular. He checks all our work very carefully. (particular means not easy to satisfy)</i>
<i>His late wife came from a very rich family. (late means 'dead/deceased')</i>	<i>The trains are always late on Sundays. (late means 'not on time')</i>
<i>There's a certain amount of truth in that story. (certain means 'some, but not a specific amount')</i>	<i>The police are certain that the killer was known to the victim. (certain means 'sure/definite')</i>

Adjectives before nouns that modify other nouns**13f**

A noun is sometimes used before another noun to give more information about it. This is called a noun modifier. Adjectives (ADJ) come before noun modifiers:

[ADJ] [noun] [noun]
*He drives a **red** **sports** car.*
*That's an **expensive** **laser** printer.*

→ Nouns 226**Order of adjectives in noun phrases with articles and degree modifiers 13g**

When adjectives are used before the noun (attributive function), there are also sometimes degree adverbs. Different degree adverbs require different positions for the adjective phrase.

Positions of indefinite article and degree adverbs.

indefinite article	degree adverb	adjective	noun
<i>a/an</i>	<i>fairly very moderately extremely</i>	<i>cold</i>	<i>day</i>
indefinite article	adjective	degree adverb	noun
<i>a</i>	<i>cold</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>day</i>

Special cases

Quite: *quite a cold day*

The normal order with *quite* is *quite a cold day*. The order *a quite cold day* (indefinite article + intensifier + adjective) is also possible but it is not as common.

Rather: *a rather cold day*

The normal order with *rather* is *a rather cold day*. The order *rather a cold day* (intensifier + indefinite article + adjective) is also possible but it is not as common.

→ **Quite 306; Rather 0**

As and so: *a man as/so tall as him*

The most common order with *as* and *so* in negative clauses in speaking is *a man as/so tall as him* (*as/so* + adjective + *as* + complement):

*I haven't seen a man **as tall as** him before.*

*You won't often find a room **so small as** that.*

The order *as/so tall a man as him* is also possible but it is more common in writing.

→ **Adverbs 16; Enough 118; Quite 306**

Adjectives and adjective phrases: typical errors 14

- We use *-ing* adjectives to describe an effect and *-ed* adjectives to describe how a person feels:

*That was such an **interesting** lecture. Prof. Green is such a good speaker.*

Not: *That was such an ~~interested~~ lecture.*

*I was not **interested** in the lecture.*

Not: *I was not ~~interesting~~ ...*

→ **Adjectives: with *-ing* and *-ed* 9d**

- We can't use some *-ed* forms before a noun:

*The new results are clear from the diagram **shown**.*

Not: *... from the ~~shown~~ diagram*

→ **Adjectives with nouns and verbs 13a**

- Adjectives in English do not change (agree) with the noun that they modify:

*The **tropical** birds were **beautiful**.*

Not: *The tropical birds were ~~beautifuls~~.*

→ **Adjectives: forms 9**

- Some adjectives only appear before nouns and do not follow verbs. They include adjectives of degree, time and order, and adjectives that limit the noun that follows them:

*The trip was a **complete** disaster from start to finish.*

Not: *The disaster was ~~complete~~*

*His **late** wife Betty was related to my mother.*

Not: *His wife was ~~late~~*

The **only** person who can sort this out is Keith.

Not: The person was only

→ **Adjectives with nouns and verbs 13a**

- Take care to spell the suffix *-ful* with one l:

<i>careful</i>	<i>carefull</i>	<i>helpful</i>	<i>helpfull</i>
<i>grateful</i>	<i>gratefull</i>	<i>wonderful</i>	<i>wonderfull</i>
<i>powerful</i>	<i>powerfull</i>	<i>beautiful</i>	<i>beautifull</i>

- Other errors with common adjectives

Most people go to the popular **tourist** destinations.

Not: ... the popular ~~touristic~~ destinations.

It can be **fun** to work with young children.

Not: ... ~~funny~~ to work with ... (*fun* means 'enjoyable', *funny* means that something makes you laugh or that it is strange)

I have a very **stressful** job.

Not: ... a very ~~stressing~~ job.

We went to a **nearby** restaurant.

Not: ... a ~~near~~ restaurant.

What are the **necessary** ingredients for this dish?

Not: ... the ~~needed~~ ingredients ...?

I noticed an **open** window.

Not: ... an ~~opened~~ window

I was really **surprised** when I heard the news.

Not: I was really ~~surprise~~ ...

We're having a party on Friday. Everybody is **welcome**.

Not: Everybody is ~~welcomed~~.

The **younger** generation often lack ambition.

Not: The ~~young~~ generation often lack ambition.

→ **Actual 7a; Fun or funny? ○**

Adjuncts

15

Adjuncts are one of the five major elements of clause structure. The other four are subject (s), verb (v), object (o) and complement (c). Adjuncts (A) are sometimes called adverbials.

An adjunct is a phrase which is not necessary to the structure of the clause, but which adds some extra meaning to it.

In the sentence *They waited outside for ages*, the phrases *outside* and *for ages* add extra meaning to *waited*. They tell us where, and for how long, the people waited. They are adjuncts:

They waited **outside for ages**.

I kept a copy of the letter **in my desk**.

She **quickly** realised her mistake.

Suddenly, it started to rain.

Adjuncts and complements

Adjuncts and complements are different. An adjunct is not necessary, and adds extra information. A complement is necessary in order to complete the meaning:

He put some salt **in the soup**.

The verb *put* must have a complement saying *where* something is put. Without the complement (*in the soup*), the clause would not be complete. We cannot just say *He put some salt*.

Adjuncts and postmodifiers in noun phrases

Adjuncts are different from postmodifiers in noun phrases. An adjunct adds extra information to a clause. A postmodifier tells us more about the noun (N):

They've closed **that restaurant on Market Street**.

on Market Street is a postmodifier. It is part of the object noun phrase. It tells us which restaurant we are talking about.

→ Complements 82; Complements and adjuncts 82b; Noun phrases: postmodifiers 235d

Adverbs

16

Adverbs: uses

16a

Adverbs are one of the four major word classes, along with nouns, verbs and adjectives. We use adverbs to add more information about a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a clause or a whole sentence and, less commonly, about a noun phrase.

Can you move it **carefully**? It's fragile.

Quickly! We're late.

She swims **really** well.

Don't go so **fast**.

You have to turn it **clockwise**.

Come over **here**.

Actually, I don't know her.

I haven't seen them **recently**.

The bathroom's **upstairs** on the left.

Adverbs: meanings and functions**16b**

Adverbs have many different meanings and functions. They are especially important for indicating the time, manner, place, degree and frequency of something.

time	<i>I never get up early at the weekends.</i>
manner	<i>Walk across the road carefully!</i>
place	<i>When we got there, the tickets had sold out.</i>
degree	<i>It's rather cold, isn't it?</i>
frequency	<i>I'm always losing my keys.</i>

→ Adverbs: types 19; Adverb phrases 22

Adverbs: forms**17****Adverbs ending in -ly****17a**

Adverbs have a strong connection with adjectives. Adjectives and adverbs are usually based on the same word. Adverbs often have the form of an adjective + -ly.

↔ Compare

adjective	adverb
<i>He was calm when I told him.</i>	<i>He behaved calmly.</i>
<i>That was a beautiful presentation, Carla.</i>	<i>Your work is beautifully presented, Carla.</i>

Adverbs ending in -ly are usually adverbs of manner (*slowly*) and degree (*completely, fairly*).

Adverbs formed from adjectives ending in -l have double l:

beautiful → *beautifully*, *careful* → *carefully*, *hopeful* → *hopefully*, *historical* → *historically*
*Magda looked **hopefully** at her mother.*

***Historically**, there was never any conflict between the two communities.*

Adverbs formed from adjectives ending in -y change the y to i:

easy → *easily*, *busy* → *busily*, *lucky* → *luckily*, *angry* → *angrily*

***Luckily**, I had a backup copy of the data on a disk.*

*I've never seen him react so **angrily**.*

Adverbs ending in a consonant +e keep the e:

definite → *definitely*, *fortunate* → *fortunately*, *extreme* → *extremely*, *absolute* → *absolutely*

*I am **extremely** grateful to you.*

*We were **absolutely** exhausted at the end of it all.*

Adverbs ending in **-ward(s) or -wise**

17b

There is a small group of adverbs which end in *-ward(s)* or *-wise*. The *-ward(s)* words can end in either *-ward* or *-wards* (*inward*, *inwards*).

-wards: *inwards*, *eastwards*, *upwards*, *downwards*

-wise: *clockwise*, *lengthwise*, *likewise*

*The doctor asked her to move her head **upwards** but she couldn't.*

*Turn the handle **clockwise** to start it.*

*He's the one that they all love. Whatever he does, they do **likewise**. (They do the same thing.)*

Adverbs with the same form as adjectives

17c

Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives. The most common are: *fast* (not *fastly*), *left*, *hard*, *outside*, *right*, *straight*, *late*, *well*, and time words such as *daily*, *weekly*, *monthly*, *yearly*.

↔ Compare

adjective	adverb
<i>This coconut is really hard. You'll need a hammer to break it up.</i>	<i>You have to bang the door hard to shut it.</i>
<i>She drives a fast car.</i>	<i>They can swim quite fast now actually.</i>
<i>An outside light would be a really good idea for our house.</i>	<i>When I went outside, the light came on automatically.</i>
<i>I get a monthly pay cheque.</i>	<i>My company pays me monthly.</i>

! Don't confuse adjectives and adverbs. Adjectives modify nouns or are used after verbs such as *be*, *become*, *seem*, *look*, *smell*, *taste*.

*She walks very **elegantly**. (adverb of manner, describing how she walks)*

*He wore an **elegant** suit and a silk tie. (adjective describing the suit)*

*She looks very **elegant** in that long skirt. (adjective after look)*

Adjectives ending in **-ly**

17d

Some adjectives end in *-ly*, e.g. *lively*, *lonely*, *ugly*. We don't form adverbs from these adjectives because they are not easy to pronounce. We usually reword what we want to say instead.

*Don't act **in a silly way**.*

Not: *Don't act ~~silly~~.*

*She said it **in a friendly way**.*

Not: *She said it ~~friendly~~.*

Adverbs not related to adjectives17e

Some adverbs (e.g. *just, quite, so, soon, too, very*) are not directly related to adjectives:

- This is **just** what I am looking for.* (*just* = exactly)
- These cups are not **quite** the same.* (*not quite* = not exactly)
- Why is this road **so** narrow?*
- I look forward to seeing you **soon**.*
- That's **too** expensive.*
- That's a **very** strange story.*

Gradable adverbs17f

Most adverbs, like most adjectives, are gradable (they can express different degrees of qualities, properties, states, conditions and relations). We can modify adverbs using other types of adverbs and comparative forms to make longer adverb phrases.

↔ Compare

<i>He plays the piano amazingly.</i> <i>He plays the piano really amazingly.</i>	<i>really</i> is a degree adverb
<i>She played golf skilfully this time.</i> <i>She played golf more skilfully this time.</i>	<i>more</i> is a degree adverb <i>more skilfully</i> is a comparative form

→Comparative and superlative adjectives 77a

Adverbs: functions18

Adverbs can modify verbs, adjectives, nouns, other adverbs and whole phrases or sentences:

example	function
<i>Sit quietly!</i>	modifying a verb (<i>sit</i>)
<i>Claire was rather quiet.</i>	modifying an adjective (<i>quiet</i>)
<i>That week seemed to go by incredibly slowly.</i>	modifying another adverb (<i>slowly</i>)
<i>It takes quite a lot of courage to jump from a plane.</i>	modifying a noun phrase (<i>a lot of courage</i>)
<i>I'm going for a run later so I don't want to eat anything now.</i>	modifying the whole clause (<i>I'm going for a run</i>)
<i>Personally, I don't like the plans.</i>	modifying the whole sentence (<i>I don't like the plans</i>). It gives the speaker's attitude. We often use commas with the adverb when it modifies the whole sentence.

→Adverbs 16

Adverbs: types

19

Time, place and manner adverbs (*early, there, slowly*)

19a

Time adverbs

Time adverbs tell us about *when* something happens.

<i>already</i>	<i>lately</i>	<i>still</i>	<i>tomorrow</i>
<i>early</i>	<i>now</i>	<i>soon</i>	<i>yesterday</i>
<i>finally</i>	<i>recently</i>	<i>today</i>	<i>yet</i>

*Have you seen Laurie **today**?*

*I'd prefer to leave **early**.*

*I went to the cinema on my own **recently**.*

*There's been an increase in house burglary **lately**.*

→ Adverb phrases 22; *Already, still or yet?* 31

Place adverbs

Place adverbs tell us about *where* something happens or where something is.

*There was somebody standing **nearby**.*

*Is that your scarf **there**?*

*You go **upstairs** and do your homework. I'll come up in a minute.*

Manner adverbs

Manner adverbs tell us about *the way* something happens or is done.

<i>accurately</i>	<i>beautifully</i>	<i>expertly</i>	<i>professionally</i>
<i>anxiously</i>	<i>carefully</i>	<i>greedily</i>	<i>quickly</i>
<i>badly</i>	<i>cautiously</i>	<i>loudly</i>	<i>quietly</i>

Manner adverbs are often formed from adjectives by adding *-ly*:

*She spoke very **loudly**. We could all hear what she was saying.*

*We waited **anxiously** by the phone.*

*We walked up the stairs very **quietly** because Mum and Dad were asleep.*

Some common manner adverbs have the same form as adjectives and they have similar meanings (e.g. *fast, right, wrong, straight, tight*).

adjective	adverb
<i>I was never a fast swimmer</i>	<i>Driving fast is dangerous</i>
<i>All of your answers were wrong.</i>	<i>People always spell my name wrong.</i>
<i>Is that the right time?</i>	<i>That builder never does anything right!</i>
<i>My hair is straight.</i>	<i>Let's go straight to the airport.</i>

Degree adverbs (slightly) and focusing adverbs (generally)**19b**

Degree and focusing adverbs are the most common types of modifiers of adjectives and other adverbs. Degree adverbs express degrees of qualities, properties, states, conditions and relations. Focusing adverbs point to something.

Degree adverbs

<i>absolutely</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>perfectly</i>	<i>somewhat</i>
<i>a (little) bit</i>	<i>entirely</i>	<i>pretty</i>	<i>terribly</i>
<i>a lot</i>	<i>extremely</i>	<i>quite</i>	<i>too</i>
<i>almost</i>	<i>fairly</i>	<i>rather</i>	<i>totally</i>
<i>awfully</i>	<i>highly</i>	<i>remarkably</i>	<i>utterly</i>
<i>completely</i>	<i>lots</i>	<i>slightly</i>	<i>very</i>

*Mary will be staying **a bit longer**. (a bit longer = for a little more time)*

*It all happened **pretty quickly**.*

*She was **quite** surprised they came, **actually**.*

*It was £3.52 if you want to be **totally** accurate.*

Focusing adverbs

<i>especially</i>	<i>just</i>	<i>mainly</i>	<i>particularly</i>
<i>generally</i>	<i>largely</i>	<i>only</i>	<i>simply</i>

*I **just** wanted to ask you what you thought.*

*I wouldn't **particularly** like to move to a modern house.*

→ Adverbs 16**Evaluative adverbs (surprisingly) and viewpoint adverbs (personally)****19c**

We put some adverbs outside the clause. They modify the whole sentence or utterance. Evaluative and viewpoint adverbs are good examples of this:

*The electric car, **surprisingly**, does not really offer any advantages over petrol cars. (evaluative)*

***Personally**, I think the show was great. (viewpoint)*

Linking adverbs (then, however)**19d**

Linking adverbs show a relationship between two clauses or sentences (e.g. a sequence in time, cause and effect, contrast between two things):

[sequence]

*I left my house in the morning **then** I went to pick up Leanne at her house.*

[cause] [effect]

*We talked until the early hours and **consequently** I overslept the next morning. (the result of the late night is that I was late the next morning)*

[contrast]

*The sun will be shining in France. **However**, heavy rain is expected in Spain.*

! We can use *then* and *consequently* to join clauses or sentences. We usually use *but* not *however* to connect two clauses in the same sentence:

*There was no room for them **but** they got on the train.*

*There was no room for them. **However**, they got on the train.*

Adverbs as discourse markers (*anyway, finally*) 20

Discourse markers organise longer pieces of conversation or text. They can mark the openings or closings of conversations, changes in topics, and other functions connected with organising a conversation or text. Most discourse markers belong to the class of adverbs.

***Anyway**, I've got to go and pick up the children.* (signals that the conversation is finishing)

***Finally**, we need to consider the broader economic issues.* (signals the last item in a list of points or arguments)

***Right**, now, sorry to keep you waiting.* (signals something new)

***So** you want to go to Spain, do you?* (focuses on a topic)

→ Adverbs 16; British and American English 62; Discourse markers 104

Adverbs as short responses (*definitely, certainly*) 21

Attitude and viewpoint

! We often use some adverbs in speaking as short responses to show attitude or viewpoint:

A: *You know DVDs? Can you record onto them?*

B: ***Absolutely**.*

A: *Dr Kahn is very nice. He's very interested in his patients.*

B: *Oh, do you think so?*

A: ***Definitely**.*

A: *There might be a film on at 2 pm that we could watch.*

B: *Yeah, **probably**.*

A: *Mandy isn't going because she just doesn't like Rick.*

B: ***Exactly**.*

A: *Maybe she bought two of the same sweaters in case something happened to one.*

B: *Yeah, **possibly**.*

A: *It should be called 'English Test' not 'Test of English'.*

B: ***Precisely**.*

! We often use *not really* in this way to soften a *no*-answer:

A: *Do you not like chocolate?*

B: *No, **not really**.*

Replies to requests

We use *certainly* and *of course* typically as a reply to a request for a service or favour:

A: *Can I have the bill please?*

B: ***Certainly.***

[in a clothes shop]

A: *Is it OK if I try these on?*

B: ***Of course.***

Intensifying adverbs

We often use adverbs that make the meaning stronger (*very*, *extremely*, *really*) as a short response:

A: *He's an intelligent dog, isn't he?*

B: Yes, ***very/extremely/highly.***

→ Discourse markers as responses 104c; Adverbs 16; Adverbs: types 19

Adverb phrases

22

Adverb phrases: forms

22a

An adverb phrase consists of one or more words. The adverb is the head of the phrase and can appear alone or it can be modified by other words. Adverbs are one of the four major word classes, along with nouns, verbs and adjectives.

In the examples the adverb phrases are in bold. The other words that modify the adverb are underlined:

We ***usually*** go on holiday in August.

Time goes ***very*** quickly.

The day passed ***quickly*** enough.

This works ***really well*** for its size.

Luckily for us, the cost was not so high.

We kept the new money ***quite separately from what we'd already collected.***

In general, these patterns are similar to adjective phrases.

→ Adjective phrases 11

Adverb phrases: types and meanings

22b

An adverb phrase can consist of one adverb or an adverb plus other words before it (premodification) or after it (postmodification). Adverb phrases have many different meanings.

In the examples the adverb phrases are in bold. The other words that modify the adverb are underlined.

example	type	used to give information about
We walked very carefully across the floor.	manner	how something happens
Here is where I was born. That's it. Right there .	place	where something happens
Dad got home very late .	time	when something happens
This pill will take away the pain temporarily .	duration	how long something happens
They almost never invite people to their house these days.	frequency	how often something happens
A: Want some sugar in your coffee? B: Only half a spoon, please.	focusing	something specific
That dog behaves incredibly stupidly !	degree	how much or to what degree something happens
The train will probably be late. It doesn't necessarily mean that.	certainty or necessity	how certain or necessary something is
Unfortunately for me , I can't speak Italian.	evaluative	the speaker's opinion of something
Personally , I don't see why the party has to start so early.	viewpoint	the speaker's perspective or reaction
It rained very heavily this summer. Therefore , many of the vegetables were very small.	linking	relationships between clauses and sentences

→ Adverbs: types 19

Adverb phrases: functions

22c

Adverb phrases + verbs

We use adverb phrases most commonly to modify verbs. In the examples the adverb phrases are in bold. The verbs that they modify are underlined:

Children grow up **really quickly**.

I exercise **very regularly** and I eat **quite healthily**.

Adverb phrases + be

We use adverb phrases with *be*. This is especially typical of adverbs of place:

I'm **upstairs**. I'll only be a minute.

A: *Have you seen my gloves?*

B: *They're **right there**, on the table.*

Adverb phrases + adjectives/adverbs

We use adverb phrases (ADV) to modify adjectives and other adverbs:

[ADV] [adjective]

*I found it **extremely difficult** to talk to her.*

[ADV] [ADV]

*He drives **really carefully**.*

Adverb phrases + other phrases

We use adverb phrases (ADV) to modify noun phrases (NP) and prepositional phrases:

[ADV] [NP]

*That's **quite a tree**.* (it's a tree that is special in some way, e.g. it's very big)

[ADV] [pronoun]

*There was **hardly anyone** at the concert.*

[ADV] [prepositional phrase]

*We climbed **right over the top of the hill** and down again.*

Adverb phrases + determiners

We use adverb phrases to modify determiners, especially words like *all*, *some*, *half*, *many* (quantifiers):

***Only half** of my friends could come to my party.*

***Very few** people have heard of my city. It's very small.*

Adverbs and adverb phrases: position

23

We can put adverbs and adverb phrases at the front, in the middle or at the end of a clause.

The front position of the clause is the first item in the clause:

***Suddenly** I felt afraid.*

***Yesterday** detectives arrested a man and a woman in connection with the murder.*

The end position of the clause is the last item in the clause:

*Why do you always have to eat **so fast**?*

The mid position is between the subject and the main verb:

*Apples **always** taste best when you pick them straight off the tree.*

Where there is more than one verb, mid position means after the first auxiliary verb or after a modal verb:

*The government has **occasionally** been forced to change its mind.* (after the first auxiliary verb)

*You can **definitely never** predict what will happen.* (after a modal verb)

*We mightn't **ever** have met.* (after the modal verb and before the auxiliary verb)

In questions, mid position is between the subject and the main verb:

*Do you **ever** think about living there?*

Adverbs usually come after the main verb *be*, except in emphatic clauses:

*She's **always** late for everything.*

When *be* is emphasised, the adverb comes before the verb:

*Why should I have gone to see Madonna? I **never** was a fan of hers.* (emphatic)

→ Adverb phrases 22; *Be* as a main verb 53c

Types of adverbs and their positions

23a

Different types of adverbs go in different places.

type	position	example
manner	They usually go in end position. They sometimes go in mid position if the adverb is not the most important part of the clause or if the object is very long.	<i>She ate quickly.</i> <i>She quickly ate her dinner and ran out.</i>
place	They usually go in end position. They sometimes go in front position, especially in writing.	<i>Can you come over here?</i> <i>We'll be at that table there.</i> <i>Here she sat.</i> <i>Outside, there was a small pond.</i>
time	They usually go in end position. They sometimes go in front position especially if we want to emphasise the adverb.	<i>I'm flying to Edinburgh tomorrow.</i> <i>Today, I'm going to clean the house.</i>
duration	They usually go in end position.	<i>I'm not staying long.</i>
frequency	They usually go in mid position. They sometimes go in front position. They can also go in end position. <i>Always, ever and never</i> do not usually go in front position.	<i>We often have friends to stay.</i> <i>I usually get up late on weekends.</i> <i>I could never swim fast.</i> <i>Sometimes she wore a woollen hat.</i> <i>We don't see them very often.</i> <i>Not: Never I could swim fast.</i>
degree	<i>Really, very, quite</i> usually go in mid position. <i>A lot</i> and <i>a bit</i> usually go in end position.	<i>I really like those pink flowers.</i> <i>We go to Ireland a lot.</i> <i>I'd just like to change things a bit.</i>

focusing	They usually go in mid position.	<i>He simply walked out without saying a word.</i>
certainty or obligation	Some go in mid position: <i>probably, possibly, certainly.</i> Others go in front position: <i>maybe, perhaps</i> or in end positions after a comma.	<i>It'll probably rain.</i> <i>Maybe Nick will know the answer</i> <i>Can I get you a drink, or something to eat, perhaps?</i>
viewpoint	They usually go outside the clause, often at the beginning. They can sometimes go in mid position, especially in formal writing.	<i>Personally, I'd rather not go out.</i> <i>This must, frankly, be the craziest idea anyone has ever had.</i>
evaluative	They usually go outside the clause, often at the beginning. They can sometimes go in mid position. In informal speaking they can go in end position.	<i>Unfortunately, I forgot my swimming costume so I had to sit on the side and watch.</i> <i>We have stupidly forgotten the tickets.</i> <i>They missed the bus, apparently.</i>

Manner, place and time

23b

Adverbs of manner, place and time usually come in end position:

*He played **brilliantly**.*

If the verb has an object, the adverb comes after the object:

[verb] [object] [adverb]

*We made a decision **quickly** then left.*

When there is more than one of the three types of adverb together, they usually go in the order: manner, place, time:

[manner] [place] [time]

*You start off **slowly** in the beginning.*

Not: *You start off in the beginning slowly.*

[manner] [place] [time]

*James played **brilliantly** in the match on Saturday.* (preferred to *James played brilliantly on Saturday in the match.*)

! We don't put adverbs between the verb and the object:

[verb] [object] [adverb]

*She plays the piano **really well**. I've heard her.*

Not: *She plays really well the piano.*

*I don't watch the TV **very often**.*

Evaluative and viewpoint**23c**

Adverbs indicating the attitude and point of view of the speaker or writer usually go at the beginning. These adverbs are called sentence adverbs because they refer to the whole sentence or utterance:

Actually, I think the meeting is on Wednesday, not Thursday.

Obviously, we can't tell you the result but we can give you an indication.

Position with here and there**23d**

- ! If the subject is a pronoun (*it/he/she/you* etc.), it comes directly after the adverbs *here* and *there*. If the subject is a noun, it comes directly after the verb:

Here she is.

Not: *Here is she.*

There it goes.

Not: *There goes it.*

Here comes the bus.

Not: *Here the bus comes.*

→ Adverbs: types 19

Adverbs and adverb phrases: typical errors**24**

- Many errors with adverbs are spelling errors:

*It happened quite **accidentally**.*

Not: ... quite ~~accidentally~~.

***Actually**, I've been very busy.*

Not: ~~Actualy~~ ...

*It's not something that can be done **easily**.*

Not: ... that can ~~be done easily~~.

*They were **happily** married for 20 years.*

Not: They were ~~happyly married~~ ...

*The building was **completely** destroyed.*

Not: ... ~~completly~~ destroyed.

*I felt **extremely** unhappy about it all.*

Not: I felt ~~extremly~~ unhappy ...

[end of a formal letter/email]

*Yours **sincerely**, Mark Johnson*

Not: Yours ~~sincerly~~ ...

*I am **truly** sorry for what happened.*

Not: I am ~~truely~~ sorry ...

→ Adverbs: forms 17

- Adverbs and adverb phrases indicating frequency don't usually go after the verb phrase. They usually go in mid position:

He **usually** goes to the park after school.

Not: ~~He goes usually to the park after school.~~

Our next door neighbours sometimes come here for dinner. We **hardly ever** go to theirs.

Not: ~~We go hardly ever to theirs.~~

At the end of the day, do you **often** come home from work feeling tired?

Not: ~~... do you come often home from work ...~~

- Adverbs and adverb phrases indicating time usually go in end position:

I'll post the CDs to you **tomorrow**.

Not: ~~I'll post tomorrow the CDs to you.~~

I received your email about the meeting **late**.

Not: ~~I received late your email about the meeting.~~

- We don't often put *always, usually, never*, etc. at the beginning of a sentence or clause:

She was **always** comparing herself to other people.

Not: ~~Always she was comparing herself to other people.~~

Against

25

Against is a preposition.

Against: reactions

25a

We use *against* to refer to negative, hostile or opposing reactions to situations, beliefs, people, events, etc.

Against with verbs

Millions of people **campaigned against** the war.

It's not easy **to go against** your parents' advice.

That referee **has something against** our team. (he doesn't like our team)

Here are some common verbs often followed by *against*:

act	decide	guard	speak out
advise	demonstrate	have something	struggle
argue	discriminate	protest	testify
be	fight	react	vote
campaign	go	rebel	

Against with nouns

Discrimination against people on the basis of race, age or gender is illegal.

Everyone can be part of the **fight against** litter.

The best **protection against** illness is a good diet and lots of exercise.

Here are some common nouns often followed by *against*:

<i>accusation</i>	<i>campaign</i>	<i>discrimination</i>	<i>protest</i>
<i>action</i>	<i>case</i>	<i>evidence</i>	<i>reaction</i>
<i>aggression</i>	<i>charge</i>	<i>fight</i>	<i>rebellion</i>
<i>appeal</i>	<i>complaint</i>	<i>law</i>	
<i>argument</i>	<i>defence</i>	<i>prejudice</i>	
<i>battle</i>	<i>demonstration</i>	<i>protection</i>	

Against: physical contact

25b

We often use *against* to talk about physical contact between two or more things:

*She was leaning **against** the wall reading a book.* (there was contact between her and the wall)

*The bed was **against** the wardrobe.* (there was contact between the bed and the wardrobe)

Against: competition

25c

We often use *against* with verbs and nouns connected with sport and competitions, such as *compete/competition, final, game, match, play, semi-final*:

*Japan competed **against** Germany in the semi-final.*

*England's match **against** Jamaica was cancelled.*

When we don't use against

25d

We use *about*, not *against*, to refer to taking action to solve problems:

A: *Did you enjoy last night?*

B: *We enjoyed the food but the people at the table next to us were so loud that we couldn't hear each other. We asked the waiter to do something **about** it but he said that he couldn't.*

Not: *We asked the waiter to do something against it*

To make contrasts we use phrases such as *contrary to, in contrast to* and *compared with*, not *against*:

*My opinion is **contrary to** yours.*

Not: *My opinion is against yours.*

We don't use *against* to talk about medication:

*Have you got something **for** a headache?*

Not: ... something against a headache

Against: typical error

25e

- We use *against*, not *with*, in sport when two teams or individuals compete:

*All my family play tennis and sometimes we play **against** each other in competitions.*

Not: ... we play with each other ...

Ago**26**

The adverb *ago* refers to a period of time that is completed and goes from a point in the past up to now. *Ago* follows expressions of time:

It happened a long time ago.

They arrived in Athens six weeks ago.

Not: ~~They arrived in Athens ago six weeks.~~

! We normally use *ago* with the past simple. We don't use it with the present perfect:

I received his letter four days ago.

Not: ~~I have received his letter four days ago.~~

If we refer to a point in time before a specific time in the past, we use *before* or *earlier* or *previously*, often with the past perfect:

We had got their invitation four days before.

They met on the same island where they had met ten years previously.

If we refer to how long something lasted, we use *for* (not *ago*):

When I was at school, I studied Russian for five years.

(my studies lasted for five years)

All**27****All as a determiner****27a**

All means 'every one', 'the complete number or amount' or 'the whole'. We use it most often as a determiner. We can use a countable noun or an uncountable noun after it:

All my friends are away at university.

All tickets cost 25 pounds.

All information about the new product is confidential.

As a determiner, *all* comes before articles, possessives, demonstratives and numbers.

	article	possessive	demonstrative	number	
<i>All</i>	<i>the</i>				<i>trees had died.</i>
<i>All</i>		<i>my</i>			<i>family were at the party.</i>
<i>All</i>			<i>this</i>		<i>food must be eaten today.</i>
<i>All</i>				25	<i>students took the test.</i>

All with no article**27b**

When *all* refers to a whole class of people or things, we don't use *the*:

All children love stories. (i.e. every child in the world)

Not: ~~All the children love stories.~~

We don't use *the* with time expressions such as *all day*, *all night*, *week*, *all year*, *all summer*:

*I spent **all day** looking for my car keys.*

*The party went on **all night** and some of the neighbours complained.*

→ A/an and the 1

All of 27c

We use *all of* before personal pronouns (*us*, *them*), demonstrative pronouns (*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*) and relative pronouns (*whom*, *which*). The personal pronoun is in the object form:

*I need to speak to **all of you** for a few minutes.*

*He brought gifts for **all of us**.*

*We had to contact the insurance firm and the airline, **all of which** took a lot of time.*
(*all of which* = 'contacting the insurance firm and the airline')

With demonstratives (*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*) we can say *all of* or *all* without *of*:

[talking about a pile of kitchen waste]

***All (of) this** has to go out into the rubbish bin.*

We often use *of* after *all* in definite noun phrases (i.e. before *the*, possessives and demonstratives), but it is not obligatory:

***All (of) the workers** were given a pay-rise at the end of the year.*

*I gave **all (of) my old books** to my sister when she went to university.*

*What shall we do with **all (of) this cardboard**? Throw it out?*

All without of 27d

We use *all*, not *all of*, before indefinite plural nouns referring to a whole class of people or things:

***All cats** love milk.*

Not: *All of cats love milk.*

*This book was written for **all children**, everywhere.*

We use *all*, not *all of*, before uncountable nouns:

***All junk food** is bad for you.*

Not: *All of junk food is bad for you.*

*I love **all music**, not just classical.*

! We don't normally say *all people*; we say *everybody* or *everyone*:

***Everyone** wants to achieve their personal goals in life.*

Not: *All people want to achieve ...*

All with personal pronouns 27e

When *all* refers to a personal pronoun which is the object in a clause, we can use pronoun + *all* or *all of* + pronoun. The pronoun is in the object form:

*I used to have three pens but I've lost **them all**. (or ... but I've lost **all of them**).*

Not: ... ~~but I lost all them~~.

However, in short responses, *all of* must be used:

A: *How many of these boxes are you going to need?*

B: **All of them**.

Not: ~~Them all~~.

We use *all of* with the object form of the pronoun, even when the pronoun is the subject in the clause:

All of us are hoping for good news.

A long line of people waited to speak to the officer. All of them had a story to tell.

All as a pronoun

27f

We can use *all* alone as a pronoun in formal situations:

All were happy with the outcome. (less formal: *Everyone was happy with the outcome.*)

All will be revealed to the public in 25 years' time, when the cabinet papers are released. (less formal: *Everything will be revealed to the public ...*)

Usually, *all* as a pronoun is premodified or postmodified:

More than 100 people came to the refugee centre. Almost all had lost family members or property or both.

All that we had been told turned out to be untrue.

All as an adverb

27g

When *all* refers to the subject of a clause, it usually comes in the normal mid position for adverbs (between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb):

The kids all go to school on the same bus.

These items could all have been bought cheaper on the Internet.

The students are all here now. We can start.

All meaning 'completely' or 'extremely'

27h

We can also use *all* as an adverb meaning 'completely' or 'extremely', especially in informal styles:

He lived all alone in an old cottage in the woods.

He came back all covered in mud.

I lost a good friend, and all because of my stupidity.

Maggie got all upset when she found out the house had been sold. (informal)

All: not all**27i**

We can make *all* negative by using *not* in front of it:

Not all the buses go to the main bus station, so be careful which one you get.

We *weren't all* happy with the result.

→ All or every? 28; All or whole? 29; At all 30

All: after all**27j**

We use *after all* in two main ways. We use it to mean 'in spite of what happened before'. With this meaning it usually occurs in end position:

[spoken by someone who was previously not hungry]

*I think I might have something to eat now **after all**.*

*She thought she would fail her driving test but she passed **after all**.*

After all can also mean 'it should be remembered that':

*Why don't you invite Nadia? **After all**, you do work with her every day.*

! *After all* does not mean 'finally' or 'at last':

*We spoke about it and **finally** decided to sign the contract.*

Not: ... and-after-all decided to sign the contract.

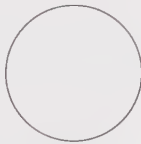
All or every?**28**

All and *every* are determiners.

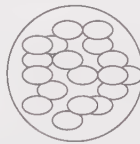
We use both *all* and *every* to refer to the total number of something. *All* refers to a complete group. *Every* refers to each member of a complete group:

*The questionnaire was sent to **all employees**.*

*The questionnaire was sent to **every employee**.*



all



every

We can use *every* to focus on each individual member.

↔ Compare

<i>All passengers must turn off their mobile phones.</i>	refers to the whole group
<i>Every passenger must turn off their mobile phone.</i> (We use <i>their</i> instead of <i>his</i> or <i>her</i> to refer back to a singular noun (<i>passenger</i>) because we are referring to both male and female passengers.)	focuses on each individual member of the whole group

We can use *all*, but not *every*, on its own without a noun. We use *everyone/everybody/everything* instead:

*The meeting is at Oriol Hall. It begins at 8 pm and **all** are welcome.*

Not: ... ~~every is welcome~~

***Everyone** is welcome to join the village social club.*

→ Every 121

All and every + nouns

28a

The meaning of *all* and *every* is very similar but we use them in different ways. We use *all* with plural and uncountable nouns and *every* with singular nouns:

***All donations** will be sent to the earthquake relief fund.*

***All equipment** must be returned by the end of June. (uncountable)*

***Every donation** is appreciated.*

We can use *all* and *all of* before determiners, but we don't use *every* before determiners:

*I invited **all (of) my** friends.*

Not: ... ~~every my friends~~

All (of) the

28b

We can use *all* and *all of* before articles (*the, a/an*), demonstratives (*this, that*) and possessives (*our, his*) but we can't use *every* before them:

[talking about a library]

*It has got **all (of) the** books that have ever been published.*

Not: It has got ~~every the book~~ or It has got ~~the every book~~

*She's gone to **all (of) their** concerts this year. She hasn't missed one.*

Not: ... ~~every their concerts~~

→ All of 27c; All without of 27d

All day, every day

28c

We use *all day*, *all week*, *all month* to mean 'one entire day/week/month':

*We spent **all day** at the beach yesterday.*

Every day (week/month) focuses on each individual day (week/month):

*We spent **every day** at the beach in the holidays.*

Not: We spent ~~all days~~ at the beach

*Fuel prices are rising **every week**.*

Not: Fuel ~~prices are rising all weeks~~.

All or every: typical errors

28d

- We don't use *every* before determiners:

*He sold **all (of) his** books.*

Not: ... ~~every his books~~.

- We don't use *every* with uncountable nouns:

All (the) information can be saved in the computer memory.

Not: Every information can be saved ...

- We don't use *every* with plural nouns:

*We should organise a trip for **all students**.*

Not: ... for every students

- We don't use *every* on its own without a noun; we use *everyone*, *everybody* or *everything* instead:

*He suggested cancelling the trip and **everyone** agreed.*

Not: ... every agreed

→ **Every 121; Everyone, everybody, everything, everywhere 122**

All or whole?

29

All and *whole* are determiners.

We use them before nouns and with other determiners to refer to a total number or complete set of things in a group.

↔ Compare

<i>All the cast had food poisoning. They were forced to cancel the show.</i>	<i>all + determiner + noun</i>
<i>The whole cast had food poisoning. They were forced to cancel the show.</i>	<i>determiner + whole + noun</i>

***All my family** lives abroad. or **My whole family** lives abroad.*

We often use *all* and *the whole* with *of the*:

*She complains **all of the** time. or She complains **the whole of the** time.*

We use *a/an* with *whole* but not with *all*:

*I spent **a whole** day looking for that book and eventually found it in a little old bookshop on the edge of town.*

Not: ... all a day ...

All or whole for single entities

29a

We use *the whole* or *the whole of* to refer to complete single things and events that are countable and defined:

***The whole performance** was disappointing from start to finish. (or **The whole of the performance** was disappointing ...)*

When we can split up a thing into parts, we can use either *whole* or *all* with the same meaning:

*You don't have to pay **the whole (of the)** bill at once.*

*You don't have to pay **all (of)** the bill at once.*

*She ate **the whole** orange.*

*She ate **all of the** orange.*

We often use *the whole of* with periods of time to emphasise duration:

*We spent **the whole (of the)** summer at the beach.*

All the with uncountable nouns

29b

We use *all the* and not *the whole* with uncountable nouns:

*She was given **all the** advice she needed.*

Not: *She was given the whole advice ...*

***All the** equipment is supplied.*

All and whole with plural nouns

29c

We usually use *all the* and *all of the* with plural nouns:

*It's funny when **all the** actors come in dressed up in their costumes.*

*She opens **all the** cupboard doors and doesn't close them after her.*

*You have to try **all of the** activities.*

When we use *whole* with plural nouns, it means 'complete' or 'entire'.

⇔ Compare

<i>Whole families normally shared one room in the nineteenth century.</i>	entire families
<i>All families normally shared one bedroom in the nineteenth century.</i>	each and every family

All and whole: typical errors

29d

- We don't use *all* before *a* and *an*:

*She ate **a whole** bar of chocolate in one go.*

Not: *She ate all a bar ...*

- We can't omit *the* before *whole* with a singular noun:

*We travelled throughout **the whole** country.*

Not: *... throughout whole country.*

Already

30

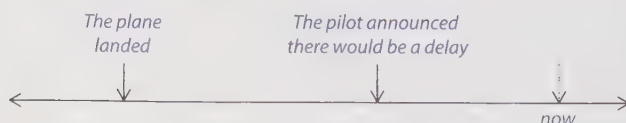
Already is an adverb.

Already: meaning

30a

We use *already* to emphasise that something was completed before something else happened. It is often used with the present perfect or past perfect:

*The plane **had already** landed when the pilot announced that there would be a delay in getting to the gate.*



Already is also used to show surprise about things that have happened or will have happened earlier than we expected.

↔ Compare

<i>It's twelve o'clock.</i>	I am not surprised that it's twelve o'clock.
<i>It's twelve o'clock already.</i>	I'm surprised. I thought it was earlier.

We use it in affirmative sentences and questions but not usually in negatives:

*There are **already** about ten people here.* (that's more than were expected at this time)

Not: ~~There aren't already any people here.~~

A: *Are you back **already**?* (A is surprised that B has returned so soon.)

B: *Yeah.*

Already: position

30b

Mid position

We usually put *already* in the normal mid position for adverbs (between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb):

*We **already** knew that he was coming to visit.*

*His family had **already** heard the news.*

*Joe's **already** here, so we can begin.*

! We don't use *already* between a verb and a direct object:

*I've **already** made the coffee.*

Not: ~~I've made already the coffee.~~

End position

We can use *already* at the end of a sentence for greater emphasis or to show greater surprise. This is especially common in informal speaking:

*Gosh, he's finished painting the kitchen **already**!* (end position is more emphatic)

*Have you booked a flight **already**?*

Front position

Less often, we put *already* in front position (before the subject). This is usually more formal:

***Already** more than fifty thousand tickets have been sold for Saturday's cup final match.*

We don't often put *already* in front position in informal speaking.

Already: typical errors

30c

- We don't use the past simple with *already* for something which was completed before something else happened. Instead, we use the past perfect.

*Their wedding in Rome was cancelled but we had **already** booked our flights and hotel, so we decided to go.*

Not: ... ~~but we already booked our flights and hotel ...~~

You may hear American English speakers using *already* with the past simple.

- We don't use *already* between the verb and its object.

[verb] [object]

I've **already** drunk three coffees today!

Not: I've drunk ~~already~~ three coffees

→ **Already, still or yet?** 31

Already, still or yet?

31

Already or yet?

31a

We use *already* to refer to something which has happened or may have happened before the moment of speaking. *Already* can sometimes suggest surprise on the part of the speaker, that something is unexpected:

*Is it seven o'clock **already**?* (The speaker didn't expect it to be so late.)

We use *yet* most commonly in questions and negatives, to talk about things which are expected but which have not happened:

*Is it seven o'clock **yet**?* (The speaker thinks that probably it's almost seven o'clock.)

A: *Where will you be staying?*

B: *I **haven't** decided **yet**, but somewhere in the city centre.*

Already refers to things which have happened or which people think may have happened. *Yet* refers to things which have not happened or which people think may not have happened.

Already, yet or still?

31b

We use *still* not *yet* or *already* to refer to the continuation of a situation:

*I **still** meet my friends from my schooldays now and then.*

(I continue to meet my friends)

Not: I ~~already~~ meet my friends or I ~~yet~~ meet my friends

↔ Compare

A: <i>Is your sister still at university?</i> B: <i>Yes. She's got one more year to do.</i>	I know she was at university. Does that continue to be true?
A: <i>Is your sister at university yet?</i> B: <i>No. She's only 17. She'll go next year.</i>	I expect that she will go to university. Is she there now?
A: <i>Is your sister already at university? She's only 17!</i> B: <i>Yes. She started this year. She's so clever they let her enter a year early.</i>	I'm surprised if your sister is at university. I did not expect it to happen until later.

Negatives with *already*, *still*, *yet***31c**

Negatives with *yet* mean that something has not happened up to now:

I haven't spoken to Henry about the car yet.

Negatives with *still* suggest that the situation should have changed, but it has not:

I still haven't found my passport. I know it's here somewhere. (I've been looking for it for a long time. I should have found it by now)

! We usually put *yet* after the main verb, whereas we usually put *still* after the subject.

↔ Compare

<i>I haven't finished yet.</i>	<i>I still haven't finished.</i>
<i>You know, it's dark now and she hasn't arrived yet.</i>	<i>You know, it's dark now and she still hasn't arrived.</i>

Negatives with *already* are far less common than negatives with *yet* and *still*. They usually refer to things which should have happened before they did happen:

If you've already registered, the price is 50 pounds. If you haven't already registered, it's 75 pounds for late registration.

I was surprised that they hadn't already told me the news.

→ *Already* 30; *Still* 331; *Yet* 396

Although or though?**32****Although and though meaning 'in spite of'****32a**

Although and *though* both mean 'in spite of something'. They are subordinating conjunctions. This means that the clause which they introduce is a subordinate clause, which needs a main clause to make it complete:

[main clause] [subordinate clause]
*Everyone enjoyed the trip to the final **although** we lost the match!*

[subordinate clause] [main clause]
***Though** it was rainy, we put on our jackets and went for a walk.*

! *Though* is more common than *although* in general and it is much more common than *although* in speaking. For emphasis, we often use *even* with *though* (but not with *although*).

! When the *though/although* clause comes before the main clause, we usually put a comma at the end of the clause. When the main clause comes first, we don't need to use a comma:

Even though I earn a lot of money every month, I never seem to have any to spare!

I still feel hungry even though I had a big lunch.

→ *Even if* 168d

Although and though with -ing clauses

In formal situations, we can use *although* and *though* to introduce an -ing clause:

[a teacher talking about a student]

Peter, **although working** harder this term, still needs to put more work into mathematics.

[a doctor talking about a patient]

The patient, **though getting** stronger, is still not well enough to come off his medication.

Although and though with reduced clauses

In formal speaking or writing, we can use *although*, *though* and *even though* to introduce a clause without a verb (a reduced clause):

Raymond, **although very interested**, didn't show any emotion when she invited him to go for a walk.

[referring to a car]

Though more expensive, the new model is safer and more efficient.

Although and though meaning 'but'

32b

When the *although/though* clause comes after a main clause, it can also mean 'but it is also true that ...':

Karen is coming to stay next week **although** I'm not sure what day she is coming.

We didn't make any profit **though** nobody knows why.

Though meaning 'however'

32c

Especially in speaking, we can use *though* (but not *although* or *even though*) with a meaning similar to *however* or *nevertheless*. In these cases, we usually put it at the end of a clause:

A: You have six hours in the airport between flights!

B: I don't mind, **though**. I have lots of work to do. I'll just bring my laptop with me.

A: It's expensive.

B: It's nice, **though**.

A: Yeah, I think I'll buy it.

As though

32d

As though has a meaning very similar to *as if*. *As if* is much more common than *as though*:

You look **as though/as if** you have seen a ghost!

He looks **as though/as if** he hasn't slept.

And

33

And is a coordinating conjunction. We use *and* to connect two words, phrases, clauses or prefixes together:

Televisions **and** computers are dominating our daily life. (noun + noun)

I have to shower **and** change. (verb + verb)

The photos are black **and** white. (adjective + adjective)

My best friend **and** my father's father both come from Wales. (phrase + phrase)

She got to the door **and** put the key in the latch. (clause + clause)

The houses were a mix of pre- **and** post-war build. (prefix + prefix)

→ **And, but, either, or, ... etc. (coordinating conjunctions) 88a**

Go and, come and 33a

 In informal speaking we often use *and* after *go* and *come* before verbs like *ask*, *buy*, *check*, *collect*, *do*, *find*, *get*:

Why don't you **go and ask** her?

I need to **go and buy** myself some running shoes.

Can you **come and do** the washing up?

She should **go and find** another job.

In informal American English speaking, we often leave out *and*:

Dad will **come collect** you on the way back from work.

I was expecting him to **go get** the keys.

Fixed expressions with and 33b

We often use *and* in common fixed expressions. The order of the words cannot change: *peace and quiet*, *pick and choose*, *come and go*, *knife and fork*, *black and white*.

And + adjective 33c

 In informal speaking, when we want to emphasise something positive, we often use *and* after *nice* or *lovely* with another adjective:

The kitchen's looking **nice and clean**.

You're **lovely and tanned**.

And in numbers 33d

When we speak or write numbers, we use *and* to separate *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* from numbers smaller than a hundred:

625: six hundred **and** twenty-five

1,000,410: one million, four hundred **and** ten

6,492: six thousand, four hundred **and** ninety-two

101: one hundred **and** one

We also use *and* between whole numbers and fractions:

23½: twenty three **and** a half

Any**34**

Any is a determiner and a pronoun.

Any as a determiner**34a**

We use *any* before nouns to refer to indefinite or unknown quantities or an unlimited entity:

*Did you bring **any** bread?*

*Mr Jacobson refused to answer **any** questions.*

*If I were able to travel back to **any** place and time in history, I would go to ancient China.*

Any as a determiner has two forms: a strong form and a weak form. The forms have different meanings.

Weak form *any*: indefinite quantities

We use *any* for indefinite quantities in questions and negative sentences. We use *some* in affirmative sentences:

*Have you got **any** eggs?*

*I haven't got **any** eggs.*

*I've got **some** eggs.*

Not: *I've got ~~any~~ eggs.*

We use weak form *any* only with uncountable nouns or with plural nouns:

[talking about fuel for the car]

*Do I need to get **any** petrol?* (+ uncountable noun)

*There aren't **any** clean knives. They're all in the dishwasher.* (+ plural noun)

! We don't use *any* with this meaning with singular countable nouns:

*Have you got **any** Italian cookery books?* (or ... **an** Italian cookery book?)

Not: *Have you got ~~any~~ Italian cookery book?*

Strong form *any* meaning 'it does not matter which'

We use *any* to mean 'it does not matter which or what', to describe something which is not limited. We use this meaning of *any* with all types of nouns and usually in affirmative sentences.

In speaking we often stress *any*:

*Call 0800675-437 for **any** information about the courses.* (+ uncountable noun)

*When you make a late booking, you don't know where you're going to go, do you? It could be **any** destination.* (+ singular countable noun)

[talking about a contract for new employees]

*Do we have **any** form of agreement with new staff when they start?* (+ singular countable noun)

[a parent talking to a child about a picture he has painted]

A: *I don't think I've ever seen you paint such a beautiful picture before. Gosh! Did you choose the colours?*

B: *We could choose **any** colours we wanted.* (+ plural countable noun)

→ **Determiners and types of noun 99; Some and any 32b**

Any as a pronoun

34b

Any can be used as a pronoun (without a noun following) when the noun is understood.

A: *Have you got some £1 coins on you?*

B: *Sorry, I don't think I have **any**.* (understood: I don't think I have any £1 coins.)

[parents talking about their children's school homework]

A: *Do you find that Elizabeth gets lots of homework? Marie gets a lot.*

B: *No not really. She gets hardly **any**.* (understood: She gets hardly any homework.)

A: *What did you think of the cake? It was delicious, wasn't it?*

B: *I don't know. I didn't get **any**.* (understood: I didn't get any of the cake.)

→ **Determiners used as pronouns 101**

Any of

34c

We use *any* with *of* before articles (*a/an, the*), demonstratives (*this, these*), pronouns (*you, us*) or possessives (*his, their*):

*Shall I keep **any of these** spices? I think they're all out of date.*

Not: ... ~~any these~~ spices?

We use *any of* to refer to a part of a whole:

*Are **any of you** going to the meeting?*

*I couldn't answer **any of these** questions.*

*I listen to Abba but I've never bought **any of their** music.*

→ **More than one determiner 100b**

Not any and no

34d

Any doesn't have a negative meaning on its own. It must be used with a negative word to mean the same as *no*.

↔ **Compare**

not any	no
<i>There aren't any biscuits left. They've eaten them all.</i>	<i>There are no biscuits left. They've eaten them all.</i>
<i>I'm selling my computer because I haven't got any space for it. Not: ... because I've got any space for it</i>	<i>I'm selling my computer because I've got no space for it.</i>

There **weren't any** technical problems. The singer had a sore throat so they cancelled the concert. Not: There ~~were any~~ technical problems.

There were **no** technical problems. The singer had a sore throat so they cancelled the concert.

The examples with *no* in the right-hand column above give greater emphasis than the examples with *not any* in the left-hand column.

→ **No or not? 224**

Any or every?

34e

We use *any* and *every* to talk about the total numbers of things in a group. Their meanings are not exactly the same:

Any doctor can prescribe medicine. (or *Every doctor can ...*)

Every always refers to the total number of something. *Any* refers to one, several or all of a total number. We use *every* not *any* with singular countable nouns when we mean 'each individual member of a group of something'.

↔ Compare

<i>You can come over for dinner any evening.</i>	It doesn't matter which one, or you can come every evening.
<i>He came over for dinner every evening last week.</i>	All of the evenings.

→ **Every 121**

Any and comparatives

34f

We use *any* with comparative adjectives and adverbs:

*You can't buy this laptop **any cheaper** than here.* (It isn't possible to buy the laptop cheaper in another place.)

*I'll see if we can go **any faster**.* (faster than we are going now)

Any: typical errors

34g

- We don't use 'weak form' *any* with singular countable nouns:

*They have a big lunch in school so they don't need **a** hot meal in the evening.*

Not: ... so they don't need ~~any~~ hot meal in the evening.

- We use *every* not *any* with singular countable nouns when we mean 'each individual member of a group':

*The hotel is luxurious and it has **every** type of activity.*

Not: ... it has ~~any~~ type of activity ...

→ **Every 121**

- We don't use 'weak form' *any* on its own in statements. We use *no* or we put a negative word, e.g. *not*, before it:

*There were **no** lifts so we had to climb five flights of stairs.*

*There weren't **any** lifts so we had to climb five flights of stairs.*

Not: *There were ~~any~~ lifts ...*

- We use *some* not *any* before countable nouns in statements to refer to an indefinite quantity of something:

*I must buy **some** plants. They're so nice.*

Not: *I must buy ~~any~~ plants.*

→ **Determiners 98; Pronouns 287**

Anyway 35

Anyway is an adverb.

We usually use *anyway* to mean 'in spite of reasons or situations already mentioned'. We also use it as a discourse marker, especially in speaking, to make boundaries in what we are saying. *Anyway* can also mean 'at least'. *Anyhow* has the same meanings as *anyway*.

Anyway meaning 'in spite of ...' 35a

We use *anyway* to contrast reasons or situations that have already been mentioned. It is usually used in end position:

[a couple are about to go for a walk]

A: *Is it raining, Greg?*

B: *No, but bring a coat **anyway**. It might rain.* (Bring a coat in spite of the fact that it is not raining now.)

A: *You're going on holiday tomorrow, aren't you?*

B: *Yeah. We're going camping. Brian's idea, not mine!*

A: *I'm sure you'll enjoy it **anyway**. It'll be fun.* (You'll enjoy it in spite of the fact that you don't really like camping.)

Anyway as a discourse marker 35b

 We often use *anyway* in speaking as a discourse marker. We use it to organise what we say so as to help the listener. In this case, we use it in front position. When we write it, it is followed by a comma.

To show a return to an earlier topic after an interruption

A: *John's wife died 10 years ago.* (main topic)

B: *Would you like some more tea?*

A: *Thanks, that'd be great. **Anyway**, after she died, he moved from Bristol and set up his own business in Manchester ...* (*anyway* is used to bring conversation back to main topic)

To move to a new part of a story or argument

*... there were lots of people in the park because it was such a nice day. People were enjoying having their lunch break, you know. **Anyway**, I suddenly realised that my bag was gone. ...*

To show that a conversation is coming to an end

[on the telephone]

A: ... *it's such a pity you missed it.*

B: *Absolutely. It sounded like such a great party.*

A: **Anyway**, thanks for calling.

B: *It was great to talk. Bye, Michelle.*

A: *Bye, Rosie.*

→ Discourse markers 104

Anyway meaning 'at least'**35c**

We can use *anyway* in a similar way to 'at least' to limit a statement.

A: *How did your exams go?*

B: *I don't have all of the results back but so far I've passed four subjects. I'm very worried about maths.*

A: *You've already passed four! Well that's great **anyway**. I'm sure maths will be fine.*

A: *Does it rain much in this country?*

B: *No, not in the south **anyway** where I come from. (or ... where I come from **anyway**.)*

A: *I'm not sure who's coming to the meeting.*

B: *We are **anyway**, but I don't know about Kate.*

Apostrophe (')**36****Apostrophe to show two words have been connected (contraction) 36a**

We sometimes connect two words to make one shorter word. We use an apostrophe to show that we have left out one or more letters:

do not → *don't* *They **don't** like salt in their food.*

it is → *it's* ***It's** a long way to walk.*

is not → *isn't* ***Isn't** that such a pretty dress?*

you have → *you've* ***You've** broken my watch!*

cannot → *can't* *We **can't** tell your father.*

will not → *won't* *She **won't** eat any vegetables.*

wh-word + 's, 'd, etc. ***What's** he doing? **Who'd** like some coffee?*

! We use **'s** for *has* and *is*:

She's seen that movie already. (has)

He's my brother. (is)

! We use **'d** for *had* and *would*:

They'd never been to Japan before. (had)

She'd love to live in the USA. (would)

→ Contractions 93

Apostrophe + s to show possession**36b**

When we show who owns something or has a close relationship with something, we use an apostrophe + s after the name or the noun. When the noun is plural, we put the apostrophe after the s:

*Is that **Frank's** camera?*

*There was a big **teachers'** conference last week in Mexico City. (a conference for teachers)*

→ Possession 272

Apostrophe with time**36c**

We can use an apostrophe + s to show duration. When the time noun is plural, the apostrophe comes after the s:

*For me, writing an essay involves at least an **hour's** work.*

*It was just ten **minutes'** walk from my house to my office. (the walk from my house to my office takes just ten minutes)*

When we write the time, we sometimes use *o'clock*:

14:00: *two **o'clock***

18:00: *six **o'clock***

→ Telling the time 350e

Apostrophe: typical error**36d**

- We use an apostrophe to contract *it is* to *it's*. We don't use an apostrophe with possessive *its*:

*The University is very proud of **its** gardens.*

Not: ... ~~of it's~~ gardens.

→ Possession 272; Possessive's 272a; Possessives with of 272b; Punctuation 293

Apposition**37**

When we use two noun phrases (NP) next to each other in a clause, and they refer to the same person or thing, we call this apposition:

[NP 1] [NP 2]

***The living room, the biggest room in the house,** looks out on to a beautiful garden. (The living room and the biggest room in the house are the same room.)*

[NP 1] [NP 2]

***Timothy, their youngest child,** is very musical. (Timothy and their youngest child are the same person.)*

The second noun phrase tells us something more about the first noun phrase (its identity or its qualities). We can also reverse the order of the phrases:

[NP 1] [NP 2]

***The biggest room in the house,** the living room, looks out on to a beautiful garden.*

[NP 1] [NP 2]

Their youngest child, Timothy, is very musical.

Types of apposition

In writing, we often separate the noun phrases by commas. We do this when the second noun phrase gives extra information which is not necessary to identify the person or thing:

Edinburgh, Scotland's capital city, has a population of around 450,000. (Scotland's capital city is extra information which is not necessary to identify Edinburgh.)

Sometimes the second noun phrase contains information which specifies which person or thing we are referring to from a number of possible people or things. In these cases, we don't use a comma.

↔ Compare

commas	no commas
<i>My brother, Philip, works at the local museum. (The speaker probably only has one brother.)</i>	<i>My brother Mark is a police officer. My brother Joe is still at university. (The speaker has more than one brother. Mark and Joe specify which brother we are talking about.)</i>

→Relative clauses: defining and non-defining 308

Approximations (around four o'clock) 38

When we speak, we often try not to be too exact or factual because it can sound very direct. As a result, we add expressions to make what we say more approximate or vague.

↔ Compare

<i>I've lived here for two years and four months.</i>	This might sound too factual or exact.
<i>I've lived here for almost two and a half years.</i>	This is more approximate and sounds less factual and exact.

Before a number

We'll pick you up around six.

In this country, we usually have dinner at about seven o'clock.

A: *How long have you been living here?*

B: *For about three years.*

Roughly 30 people are coming to my graduation party.

Up to 20 people are still missing after the earthquake.

She said she'd call here at or around ten o'clock.

We also use approximation in formal speech and writing:

The accident occurred at approximately 9 am.

In the region of 40 jobs are to be lost at the factory.

As many as 300 people were on the train when it broke down.

After a number

Number + -odd

Forty-odd people turned up at the demonstration. (at least 40 and maybe more)

A: How much oil does the tank hold?

B: I'm not sure. **Fifty-odd** litres, I'd say. (at least 50 litres and maybe more)

We do not use -odd to talk about time:

It's **about** seven o'clock at least.

Not: ... ~~seven-odd~~ o'clock ...

Number + head noun + or so

A: Can I have a lift to town with you?

B: Absolutely. I'll be leaving in **ten minutes or so**.

Number + head noun + or something

A: What's the weight limit for luggage?

B: **20 kilos or something**.

Number + head noun + or thereabouts (more formal)

[someone is giving directions]

Once you get to the school, turn left and our house is the first one on the left, **half a mile, or thereabouts**, up that road.

Number + more or less (informal speaking)

This is going to cost **four hundred pounds, more or less**. (preferred to *This is going to cost more or less four hundred pounds.*)

Using or between numbers

The bus from the airport usually costs just **three or four** pounds.

Adding the suffix -ish (informal speaking)

A: What time are we going out?

B: I think Linda said that she'd pick us up at **sixish**.

A: What age are Gabriela's children?

B: Her daughter is **fourish** and her son must be at least seven.

→ Around or round? ; Stuff 348b; Vague expressions 359

As

39

As is a preposition or a conjunction.

As as a preposition

39a

We use **as** with a noun to refer to the role or purpose of a person or thing:

I worked **as** a waiter when I was a student. Most of us did.

Not: I worked like a waiter ...

[The Daily Telegraph is a British newspaper]

The Daily Telegraph appointed Trevor Grove **as** its Sunday editor.

Internet shopping is seen **as** a cheaper alternative to shopping on the high street.

A sarong is essential holiday gear. It can be used **as** a beach towel, wrap, dress or scarf and will take up no space in your bag.

! We don't use **as** + noun to mean 'similar to'. We use **like** + noun:

It's almost **like** a real beach, but it's actually artificial.

Not: It's almost ~~as~~ a real beach ...

I would like to have a white cat **like** the one in my dream.

Not: ... ~~as the one in my dream~~

→ Like 194

As as a conjunction

39b

The conjunction **as** has several different meanings. We use **as** when one event happens while another is in progress ('during the time that'). In this case the verb after is often in the continuous form:

They arrived **as** we were leaving. (time conjunction meaning 'while' or 'when')

We use **as** to connect a result with a cause:

I went to bed at 9 pm **as** I had a plane to catch at 6 am. (reason and result meaning 'because')

We also use **as** to mean 'in the way that':

As the forecast predicted, the weather was dreadful for the whole of the weekend.

She arrived early, **as** I expected.

The same as

39c

We use **as** with **the same** to talk about identical things:

Your jacket is **the same** colour **as** mine.

→ Same, similar, identical ○

As: simultaneous changes

39d

We use **as** to introduce two events happening at the same time. After **as** with this meaning, we usually use a simple (rather than continuous) form of the verb:

As the show increases in popularity, more and more tickets are sold daily.

↔ Compare

When you get older, moving house gets harder.	One thing happens first and as a result the second thing is true.
As you get older, moving house gets harder. Not: While you get older ...	The two things happen at the same time.

! We don't use **as** alone to introduce examples. We say **such as**:

They gave them gifts **such as** flowers and fruit and sang a special welcome song.

Not: ... gifts ~~as~~ flowers ...

→ As ... as 40; Conjunctions 88; Same, similar, identical ○

As ... as**40**

We use *as* + adjective/adverb + *as* to make comparisons when the things we are comparing are equal in some way:

*The world's biggest bull is **as big as** a small elephant.*

*The weather this summer is **as bad as** last year. It hasn't stopped raining for weeks.*

*You have to unwrap it **as carefully as** you can. It's quite fragile.*

→ Comparison: adjectives 77

Not as ... as**40a**

We use *not as ... as* to make comparisons between things which aren't equal:

*It's **not as heavy as** I thought it would be, actually.*

*Rory hasn't grown **as tall as** Tommy yet.*

*She's **not singing as loudly as** she can.*

*They **didn't play as well as** they usually do.*

We can modify *not as ... as* by using *not quite as* or *not nearly as*:

*The second race was **not quite as easy as** the first one. (The second race was easy but the first one was easier.)*

*These new shoes are **not nearly as comfortable as** my old ones. (My old shoes are a lot more comfortable than these new shoes.)*

We can also use *not so ... as*. *Not so ... as* is less common than *not as ... as*:

*The cycling was good but **not so hard as** the cross country skiing we did.*

As ... as + possibility**40b**

We often use expressions of possibility or ability after *as ... as*:

*Can you come **as soon as possible**?*

*Go to **as many places as** you can.*

*We got here **as fast as** we could.*

As much as, as many as**40c**

When we want to make comparisons referring to quantity, we use *as much as* with uncountable nouns and *as many as* with plural nouns:

*Greg makes **as much money as** Mick but **not as much as** Neil.*

*They try to give them **as much freedom as** they can.*

*There weren't **as many people** there **as** I expected.*

We can use *as much as* and *as many as* before a number to refer to a large number of something:

*Scientists have discovered a planet which weighs **as much as** 2,500 times the weight of Earth.*

There were **as many as 50** people crowded into the tiny room.

→Also, as well as or too? 6; Comparison: adjectives 77

As if and as though

41

As if and as though are conjunctions.

We use *as if* and *as though* to make comparisons. They have a similar meaning. We use *as if* and *as though* to talk about an imaginary situation or a situation that may not be true but that is likely or possible. *As if* is more common than *although*:

The floods were rising *and* it was **as if** it was the end of the world.

It looks **as if** they've had a shock.

It looks **as though** you've not met before.

We can use both *as if* and *as though* followed by a non-finite clause or a prepositional phrase:

She moved her lips **as if** to smile.

They were shouting **as though** in panic.

As if and *as though* commonly follow the verbs *feel* and *look*:

She felt **as if** all her worries had gone.

They felt **as though** they had been given the wrong information.

I've got so much work it looks **as if** I'll have to stay at home this evening.

In informal English, *like* can be used in a similar way to *as if*, though it is not always considered correct in formal contexts:

It felt **like** it could snow at any minute.

→As 39; Like 194; Although or though? 32

As long as and so long as

42

As long as and *so long as* are conjunctions.

As long as

We use *as long as* to refer to the intended duration of a plan or idea, most commonly referring to the future. We always use the present simple to refer to the future after *as long as*:

We are very happy for you to stay at our house **as long as** you like.

I'll remember that film **as long as** I live.

Not: ... ~~as long as~~ I will live.

As long as and so long as

As long as or *so long as* also means 'provided that', 'providing that' or 'on condition that':

You are allowed to go **as long as** you let us know when you arrive.

So long as is a little more informal:

You can borrow the car **so long as** you don't drive too fast.

As or like?**43**

As and *like* are prepositions or conjunctions. The prepositions *as* and *like* have different meanings. *As* + noun means 'in the role of', *like* + noun means 'similar to' or 'in the same way as'.

↔ Compare

<i>As your father, I'll help you as much as I can.</i>	The speaker is the listener's father.
<i>Like your father, I'll help you as much as I can.</i>	The speaker is not the father but wishes to act in a similar way to the father.

We use *like* (but not *as*) to compare two things:

She's got a headache like me.

Not: *She's got a headache as me.*

Like the other students, he finds it a bit difficult to get to lectures early in the morning.

Not: *As the other students, he finds it ...*

When we compare appearance or behaviour, we use *like*, not *as*:

That house looks like a castle.

Not: *That house looks as a castle.*

As is commonly used to talk about jobs:

He worked for a long time as a teacher in Africa.

Not: *... like a teacher in Africa.*

The conjunctions *as* and *like* have the same meaning when used in comparisons. *Like* is a little more informal.

Nobody understands him as I do.

Nobody understands him like I do.

→ **As 39; Conjunctions 88; Like 194**

As well (as)**44****As well (as) meaning 'in addition'****44a**

As well is an adverb which means 'also', 'too' or 'in addition'. We usually use *as well* at the end of a clause:

We look forward very much to seeing you again and to meeting your wife as well.

As well as is a multi-word preposition which means 'in addition to':

She has invited Jill as well as Kate.

When they go to Austria, they like walking as well as skiing.

Might as well and may as well**44b**

We use *might as well* and *may as well* informally to mean that something is worth doing only because other things are not happening. *Might as well* is more common:

*I **might as well** paint the bedroom myself; no one else is going to do it.*

*We **may as well** go out tonight because there's not much on TV.*

As well

44c

We use *as well* and the phrase *just as well* when we say that something is probably a good thing:

*It's **as well** to have a good camera with you when you visit the bird park. (as well here means 'it's a good idea')*

*It's **just as well** we didn't go to the lecture, because it was cancelled.*

→ Also, *as well as* or *too*?  May 202; Might 206

As, because or since?

45

As, because and since are conjunctions. *As, because and since* all introduce subordinate clauses. They connect the result of something with its reason.

result	reason
<i>He decided to go to the conference in Barcelona,</i>	<i>as he was in Spain anyway.</i>
<i>Are you angry with me</i>	<i>because I opened the letter?</i>
<i>Bilardo coaches his team by telephone, (Bilardo was the coach of the Argentinian football team)</i>	<i>since half of them play in Italy, France or Spain.</i>

Because

45a

Because is more common than *as* and *since*, both in writing and speaking. When we use *because*, we are focusing on the reason:

*She spoke quietly **because** she didn't want Catherine to hear.*

*We'll come over on Sunday **because** David's got to work on Saturday.*

We often put the *because*-clause at the beginning of a sentence, especially when we want to give extra focus to the reason. We use a comma after the *because*-clause:

***Because** breathing is something we do automatically, we rarely think about it.*

We can use a *because*-clause on its own without the main clause in speaking or informal writing:

A: *Would you like to go to school there?*

B: *Yes.*

A: *Why?*

B: ***Because** my best friend goes there. (I would like to go to school there because my best friend goes there.)*

! We don't use a *because*-clause on its own in formal writing:

*In 1998, the government introduced a new import tax **because** people were importing cars from abroad.*

Not: ... a new import tax. *Because* people were importing cars from abroad.

Cos

We often shorten *because* to *cos* /kɒz/ or /kɒz/ in informal speaking and writing:

I'm laughing cos I'm so happy.

→ **Because, because of and cos, cos of 55**

As and since

45b

We often use *as* and *since* when we want to focus more on the result than the reason. *As* and *since* are more formal than *because*. We usually put a comma before *since* after the main clause:

[result] [reason]
*I hope they've decided to come **as** I wanted to hear about their India trip.*

[result] [reason]
*They're rather expensive, **since** they're quite hard to find.*

We often use *as* and *since* clauses at the beginning of the sentence. We use a comma after the *as*- or *since*- clause:

***Since** everything can be done from home with computers and telephones, there's no need to dress up for work any more.*

***As** everyone already knows each other, there's no need for introductions. We'll get straight into the business of the meeting.*

We use *because*, not *as* or *since*, in questions where the speaker proposes a reason:

*Are you feeling unwell **because** you ate too much?*

Not: *Are you feeling unwell since you ate too much? or ... as you ate too much?*

→ **Conjunctions 88**

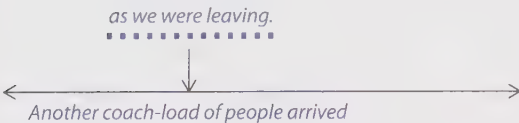
As, when or while?

46

As, *when* and *while* are conjunctions. In some uses *as*, *when* and *while* can mean the same, but they can also have slightly different meanings. We use them to introduce subordinate clauses.

We can use *as*, *when* and *while* to mean 'during the time that', to connect two events happening at the same time:

*Another coach-load of people arrived **as** we were leaving.*



We often use them with the past continuous to refer to background events:

When the men were out working in the field, I helped with milking the cows, feeding the calves and the pigs.

While he was working, he often listened to music.

We can put clauses with *as*, *when* and *while* before or after the main clause. When they come before the main clause, we use a comma:

As she was leaving the court, a crowd of photographers gathered around her. (before the main clause, followed by a comma)

Steven was very unhappy **when** things weren't going well for him.

Lucy came into the room **while** he was waiting.

As

46a

We can use *as* to introduce two events happening at the same time. After *as*, we can use a simple or continuous form of the verb. The continuous form emphasises an action that interrupts or occurs during the progress of another action:

As she walked to the door, she thanked them for a lovely dinner.

As she walked to the door

.....



.....

she thanked them for a lovely dinner.

As they were signing the contract, they noticed that a page was missing.

As they were signing the contract

.....



.....

they noticed that a page was missing.

When

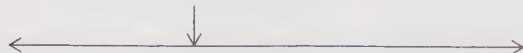
46b

We can use *when* to introduce a single completed event that takes place in the middle of a longer activity or event. In these cases, we usually use a continuous verb in the main clause to describe the background event:

He was walking back to his flat when he heard an explosion.

He was walking back to his flat

.....



when he heard an explosion.

Depending on the context, *when* can mean 'after' or 'at the same time'.

↔ Compare

<i>When you open the file, check the second page.</i>	<i>when meaning 'after'</i>
<i>I eat ice cream when I am on holiday.</i>	<i>when meaning 'at the same time'</i>

→ Conditionals 84

We often use *just* with *when* or *as* to express things happening at exactly the same time:

*The phone always rings **just when** I'm closing the front door.*

*She was a brilliant gymnast, but she had a terrible accident in 1999, **just as** her career was taking off.*

While and as 46c

We can use *while* or *as* to talk about two longer events or activities happening at the same time. We can use either simple or continuous verb forms:

*We spent long evenings talking in my sitting-room **while** he played the music he had chosen and explained his ideas.*

*We were lying on the beach sunbathing **as** they were playing volleyball.*

→ As 39; While 92c

When and while without a subject 46d

We can use *when* and *while* without a verb, or without a subject + auxiliary verb *be*:

*Go past the village signpost and you get to a church. **When** there, take the next turning right. (formal)*

*He read his book **while** waiting for the bus. (while he was waiting)*

! We can't use *as* in this way:

*We ate our sandwiches **as** we walked around the park.*

Not: ... ~~as walking around the park.~~

→ When 375; While 92c

Ask and ask for 47

Ask 47a

Ask is a verb meaning 'put a question or seek an answer from someone':

*Can I **ask** you a question?*

*He **asked** me what age I was.*

*'How are you?' she **asked**.*

Ask + to-infinitive

We can use *ask* with the *to*-infinitive to talk about requesting something:

*She **asked to see** Professor Fenton.* (ask + *to*-infinitive)

*We **asked the City Council to help** us organise a sports day.* (ask + object + *to*-infinitive).

Ask for**47b**

If you *ask for* something, it means that you want someone to give you something:

*I always **ask for** extra tomato sauce on my pizza.*

*They **asked their boss for** more money, but he refused.*

! Don't confuse *ask for* and *demand*. *Demand* means 'ask for something forcefully', in a way that shows we are not expecting a refusal:

*We are writing to **ask for** your help in finding suitable accommodation in New Haven.*

Not: *We are writing to demand ...*

Ask and ask for: typical error**47c**

- We use *for* when we request someone to give us something:

*I called them to **ask for** more details.*

Not: *I called them to ask more details.*

At**48**

At is a preposition. We use *at* to refer to time or place. We also use it to refer to activities.

At: time**48a**

We use *at* to talk about points in time, ages and some periods of time:

*I was up **at** 6 am this morning.* (a point in time)

***At** 12 noon, all the bells rang out.* (a point during the day)

*They all get dressed up **at** Halloween.* (a point on the calendar)

*Many children leave school **at** 16.* (referring to a specific age)

***At** 20, I thought I knew everything.*

We can use *at* to refer to some periods of time: *at night*, *at that time*, *at the New Year*.

*They leave the front-door light on **at night**.* (period of time)

→ *At, on and in (time)* 51

At: place**48b**

We use *at* to describe a position or location seen as a point:

*A fisherman waited near his nets **at the side of the quay**.* (position as a point)

*There was no one **at** the information desk.* (location as a point)

We use *at* to describe locations including firms, companies, workplaces and educational institutions:

*Did you once work **at** Intel?*

*The ancient manuscript, The Book of Kells, can be seen **at** Trinity College, Dublin.*

! We say *at school*, *at college* but *in class*:

*What did you study **at** college?*

*We're not allowed to have mobile phones **in** class.*

Not: ... *at-class*.

We use *at* when we refer to an address:

*The restaurant used to be **at** number 72 Henry Street.*

We use *at the* to refer to public places where we get treatments, such as a dentist's or doctor's surgery, hairdresser's or spa:

*While Liz was **at the** dentist, I went shopping.*

*I read an interesting article about plastic surgery in a magazine when I was **at the** hairdresser's.*

→ *At, on and in (place)* 50

At: group activities

48c

We use *at* to refer to activities which involve a group of people:

*I didn't know anyone **at** the party.*

*There was a demonstration **at** the opening of the exhibition.*

Good at, bad at

48d

We use adjective + *at* to talk about things that we do well or badly:

*I was never very **good at** sports.*

*She was always **brilliant at** drawing.*

*He was **terrible at** keeping his accounts in order.*

At: numbers

48e

In specific contexts, we use *at* with numbers.

Talking about prices:

***At 80 pounds** a night for a double room, the hotel is good value.*

Talking about speeds:

*According to the police, he was driving **at 120 mph**. (mph means 'miles per hour')*

At: direction

48f

We use *at* after a verb when we are talking about directing something towards another person or thing, often with verbs of perception and communication (*smile at*, *shout at*, *wave at*):

He **threw** the ball **at** the wall.

She **was waving** **at** the crowd.

At or at the

48g

When we talk about buildings, we often use *at the* to refer to the building itself. When we refer to the activity that happens in the building, we don't use *the* after *at* or *in*:

The taxi dropped me **at** the school. (referring to the building)

I hated being **at** school. (referring to the activity within the school not the building)

→ At, on and in (place) 50

At: typical errors

48h

- When we talk about how well or badly we do something, we say *good/bad at*, not *in*:

I'm so bad **at** telling left from right!

Not: I'm so bad ~~in~~ telling left from right!

- We use *at*, not *in*, for points of time or place:

What are you doing **at** the weekend?

Not: ... ~~in~~ the weekend

Come and sit **at** the table.

Not: ... ~~in~~ the table

- We use *at*, not *in*, when we talk about a person's age:

He died **at** the age of 85.

Not: ... ~~in~~ the age of ...

At, in and to (movement)

49

We use *to* when we are talking about movement in the direction of a point, place, or position:

Let's all go **to** the cinema tonight!

When you come **to** my place, you'll see our new pet rabbit.

[giving directions]

If you drive **to** the end of the road, then turn left and park in the first car park on the right ...

We often use the combination *from ... to ...* when we are talking about moving from one point to another:

Is it far **from** your house **to** the nearest shop?

How long will it take to get **from** the hospital **to** the train station?

- ! Go *in* is a commonly used phrasal verb meaning 'enter'. We don't use it to talk about travelling to or moving in the direction of a place:

Why don't you **go in**? (phrasal verb meaning 'enter')

When did you **go to** Barcelona? (preposition *to*)

Not: When did you ~~go in~~ Barcelona?

We say that we *arrive at* a place, when we see it as point, but we arrive *in* a larger area (e.g. a city or a country). We don't use *to* with *arrive*:

*I **arrived at** the station just in time.* (arrive at a place)

Not: I arrived to the station ...

*It was 4 pm when we **arrived in** Italy.* (arrive in a country)

Not: ... when we arrived to Italy.

At, on and in (place)

50

We use *at*:

- to refer to a position or location which we see as a point: *I was sitting **at** my desk.*
- to talk about locations at companies, workplaces when we see them as a place of activity: *How many people are working **at** Microsoft?*
- to refer to activities which involve a group of people: *Were you **at** Lisa's party?* (also *at the cinema, at the theatre*)
- with *school/college/university*: *She always did well **at** school.*
- to refer to an address: *They once lived **at** number 12 South George's Street.*
- to talk about public places where we get treatments, such as a hairdresser's or doctor's surgery: *I can't meet **at** four. I'll be **at** the hairdresser's until five.*
- to refer to most shops: *Look what I bought **at** the butcher's today.*

We use *on*:

- to refer to a position on any surface: *I know I left my wallet **on** the table.*
- to describe a position along a road or river or by the sea or by a lake: *Dublin is **on** the east coast of Ireland.*
- to talk about a floor in a building: *They live **on** the 15th floor!*
- to talk about being physically on public transport: *I was **on** the train when she phoned.* (but to talk about ways of travelling, we use *by*: *I went to Rome **by** train.*)

We use *in*:

- to talk about locations within a larger area: *I know my book is somewhere **in** this room. Can anyone see it?*
- to talk about workplaces when we see them as a physical location: *She works **in** an open-plan office.* (but we use *on* when we talk about a farm: *I've always wanted to work **on** a farm.*)
- with *class*: *He found it difficult to concentrate **in** class.*

→ *At, on and in (time)* 51

At, on and in (time)

51

We use *at*:

- with particular points on the clock: *I'll see you **at** five o'clock.*
- with particular points in the day: *The helicopter took off **at** midday and headed for the island.*
- with particular points in the week: *What are you doing **at** the weekend?*

- with special celebrations: **At the New Year**, millions of people travel home to be with their families (but we say **on** your birthday).

We don't use *at* with the question *What time ...?* in informal situations:

What time are you leaving? (preferred to *At what time are you leaving?*)

We use *on*:

- with dates: *We moved into this house **on 25 October 1987**.*
- with a singular day of the week to refer to one occasion: *I've got to go to London **on Friday**.*
- with a plural day of the week to refer to repeated events: *The office is closed **on Fridays**.* (every Friday) In informal situations, we often leave out *on* before plural days: *Do you work **Saturdays**?*
- with special dates: *What do you normally do **on your birthday**?*

We use *in*:

- with parts of the day: *I'll come and see you **in the morning** for a cup of coffee, okay?*
- with months: *We usually go camping **in July or August**.*
- with years: *The house was built **in 1835**.*
- with seasons: *The garden is wonderful **in the spring** when all the flowers come out.*
- with long periods of time: *The population of Europe doubled **in the nineteenth century**.*

At or on?

We use *at* to talk about public holidays and weekends, but when we talk about a particular special day or weekend, we use *on*.

↔ Compare

<i>We never go away at the New Year because the traffic is awful.</i>	<i>On New Year's Day, the whole family gets together.</i>
<i>I'll go and see my mother at the weekend if the weather's okay.</i>	<i>The folk festival is always held on the last weekend in July.</i>

*Note that American English speakers usually say *on the weekend*.

In or on?

We use *in* with *morning*, *afternoon*, *evening* and *night*, but we use *on* when we talk about a specific morning, afternoon, etc., or when we describe the part of the day.

↔ Compare

<i>I always work best in the morning. I often get tired in the afternoon.</i>	<i>The ship left the harbour on the morning of the ninth of November.</i>
<i>In the evening they used to sit outside and watch the sun going down.</i>	<i>It happened on a beautiful summer's evening.</i>

At or in?

In the night usually refers to one particular night; *at night* refers to any night in general:

*I was awake **in the night**, thinking about all the things that have happened.*

*'It's not safe to travel **at night**,' the officer said.*

At the end or in the end?

We use *at the end* (often with *of*) to talk about the point in time where something finishes. We use *in the end* to talk about things that happen after a long time or after a series of other events:

***At the end** of the film, everyone was crying.*

Not: *In the end of the film ...*

*I looked everywhere for the book but couldn't find it, so **in the end** I bought a new copy.*

At the beginning or in the beginning?

We use *at the beginning* (often with *of*) to talk about the point where something starts. We usually use *in the beginning* when we contrast two situations in time:

***At the beginning** of every lesson, the teacher told the children a little story.*

***In the beginning**, nobody understood what was happening, but after she explained everything very carefully, things were much clearer.*

→ At 48

Other uses of in with time

51a

We use *in* to say how long it takes someone to do something:

*He was such a clever musician. He could learn a song **in about five minutes**.*

We use an apostrophe -s construction (*in a year's time*, *in two months' time*) to say when something will happen. We don't use it to say how long someone takes to do something:

*I won't say goodbye because we'll be seeing each other again **in three days' time**. We can also say **in three days**, without *time*, in this example.*

*He ran the marathon **in six hours and 20 minutes**.*

Not: *He ran the marathon in six hours and 20 minutes' time.*

Time expressions without at, on, in

51b

We don't normally use *at*, *on* or *in* before time expressions beginning with *each*, *every*, *next*, *last*, *some*, *this*, *that*, *one*, *any*, *all*:

*He plays football **every Saturday**.*

*Are you free **next Monday** at two o'clock?*

***Last summer** we rented a villa in Portugal.*

→ Time 350; Next 221

At, on and in (time): typical errors**51c**

- We use *on* not *at* to talk about a particular day:
*The two couples were married in two different cities **on the same day**, 25 years ago.*
Not: ... ~~at the same day~~, 25 years ago.
- We don't use *at* to refer to dates:
*The General was killed **on 26 August**.*
Not: ... ~~at 26 August~~.
- We use *at*, not *in*, with *weekend(s)*:
*What do you usually do **at the weekend**? Do you go away?*
Not: ~~What do you usually do in the weekend?~~
- We use *in* with months, not *on*:
*They're going to Australia **in September** for a conference.*
Not: ~~They're going to Australia on September ...~~

Back**52**

Back is an adverb, noun, adjective or verb.

Back can mean 'returning to an earlier starting point or situation' or 'moving to a point further away' or 'replying to something'. *Back* also means 'at the rear of' or 'the part of a person or thing that is opposite the front'.

Back as an adverb

*Olga's not looking forward to going **back** to school in September.*

[taking a photograph]

*Don't move too far **back** or you'll fall in the swimming pool.*

*Sorry, I'm just finishing a meeting. Can I ring you **back** in ten minutes?*

Back as a noun

*There's a new restaurant at the **back** of our office building.*

*Will Hoskins is unlikely to play as he hurt his **back** badly playing in the Rugby World Cup semi-final and is still receiving treatment.*

Back as an adjective

*The reporters were chasing her and, in order to avoid the cameras, she had to use the **back** door of the theatre.*

*Unfortunately she's spilt coffee over the **back** seat of the car.*

Back as a verb

[talking about a pet dog]

*He's got a lovely temperament but he may panic and bite you if you **back** him into a corner.*

*Did you know that during his driving test he **backed** his car into a bicycle?*

Be**53****Be: forms****53a**

Be is an irregular verb with several forms:

Present: (I) *am*, (he, she, it) *is* (you, we, they) *are* + **-ing form:** *being*

Past: (I, he, she, it,) *was*, (you, we, they) *were* + **-ed form:** *been*

I'm in college at the moment.

*Where **is** she?*

*He **was** her first husband.*

***Were** you at the U2 concert?*

*The weather **has been** really nice since June.*

Be: uses**53b**

We use *be* as a main verb and an auxiliary verb.

→ *Be* as a main verb 53c; *Be* as an auxiliary verb 53e

Be as a main verb**53c**

Be as a main verb has a number of meanings.

Qualities

We use *be* to talk about permanent or temporary qualities or states:

He's very rich.

*My father **is** old now.*

*The weather **was** terrible.*

*The food **is** so good in Italy.*

! When we use *there* as a subject with *be*, we use *there is* + singular noun and *there are* + plural noun:

*There **are** lots of wonderful places to see on the south coast.*

Not: *There is lots of wonderful places ...*

→ *There is, there's, there are* 347

Nationality and group identity

We use *be* to talk about our nationality and our identity within groups or clubs:

***Is** she Irish or English?*

*I **am** an Arsenal fan.*

*He's **been** a member of the rowing club for twenty years.*

Jobs and professions

We can use *be* to talk about a person's job or profession. Note the use of *a* with singular names of jobs and professions:

He's a firefighter.

Not: He's firefighter.

*Both of my brothers **are** policemen.*

*My grandmother **was** a nurse.*

Age

We use *be* to talk about age:

*I **was** seventeen when I met Bob.*

*Because I **wasn't** eighteen, I couldn't vote in the last election.*

*How old **is** she?*

Relationships

We use *be* to talk how people are related:

*He **is** my first cousin.*

*They **are** my best friends.*

***Are** you her sister?*

Place

We can use *be* to refer to where places and things are situated:

*Her house **is** on the edge of the lake.*

*The shops **are** at the end of the street.*

Time

We use *be* to talk about time and dates:

*What time **is** it?*

*The match **was** at seven o'clock.*

*We **are** always late!*

*The meeting **is** on the fifth of October.*

Behaviour and personality

We can use *be* to talk about behaviour and personality:

*He **was** always gentle.*

***Is** she nice?*

*The children **can be** rough with the new puppy.*

When we talk about a way of behaving at the moment of speaking, we use the continuous form of *be*:

*You're **being** too generous.*

*Ignore him. He's just **being** silly.*

We use *be* to describe feelings and situations:

*I **was** very happy.*

***Are** you hungry?*

Modal expressions with be**53d**

There are a number of expressions with *be* which have modal meanings, for example, *be to*, *be able to*, *be allowed to*, *be supposed to*:

*Will Martin **be able to** get everyone in his car?*

*We **were supposed to** get there an hour ago.*

→ Be expressions 54; Modality: expressions with *be* 212c

Be as an auxiliary verb**53e**

Be is one of three auxiliary verbs in English: *be*, *do* and *have*. We use *be* to make the continuous form and the passive voice:

*I'm **reading** a book about the Titanic at the moment.* (continuous)

*What **was she doing** in France?* (continuous)

*The job **was advertised** last week.* (passive)

*The house **was being painted**.* (continuous and passive)

! We don't use auxiliary *be* to make questions with main verbs in the present simple. We use auxiliary *do*:

***Do you live** near here?*

Not: *Are you live near here?*

→ Present continuous 278; Past continuous 259; Passive 257; Do as an auxiliary verb 105d

Be: typical errors**53f**

- Remember to use *are* for the third person plural form of *be*:

*The company's profits **are** lower this year.*

Not: *The company's profits is lower this year.*

- We use *there is* + singular noun and *there are* + plural noun:

***There are** so many great **restaurants** here.*

Not: *There is so many great restaurants here.*

- We use auxiliary *do*, not auxiliary *be*, for questions with main verbs in the present simple:

***Do you accept** credit cards?*

Not: *Are you accept ...*

Be expressions (be able to, be due to)**54****Be about to****54a**

Be about to is used to talk about things which are going to happen very soon:

*I'm **about to** eat. Can I **phone you back**?*

It is often used with *just*:

*We're **just about to** set off for a walk. Do you want to **come**?*

When used in the past, *be about to* can refer to things that were going to happen but didn't:

*I **was about to** complain but he came over and apologised.*

We don't use *be about to* with time expressions:

*I **was about to** call you.*

Not: ~~I was about to call you in ten minutes.~~

→ *Be about to* 143a

Be able to

54b

Abilities

Be able to is like *can*. We use it to talk about abilities. We often use it in places where it is not possible to use *can*. For example, it isn't possible to use *can* after another modal verb:

*She **won't be able to** concentrate.*

Not: ~~She won't can concentrate.~~

*He **should be able to** work in a team.*

Not: ~~He should can work in a team.~~

Be able to is a more formal alternative to *can*:

*I am very sorry but I **am not able to** give you that information. (or, less formal: I cannot give you that information.)*

Past achievement: could or was/were able to?

We usually use *was/were able to*, not *could* to talk about past achievements in affirmative clauses. This is because they are facts, rather than possibilities:

*Only one person **was able to** beat the record.*

Not: ~~Only one person could beat the record.~~

We use *couldn't* or, more formally, *wasn't/weren't able to* in negative clauses:

*We **weren't able to** finish the marathon in under four hours. (or We **couldn't** finish the marathon ...)*

→ *Can* 65; *Could* 95

Be due to

54c

Be due to is used to talk about things that are expected or planned to happen at a certain time. We often use it with a time expression:

*Are you **due to** hand in homework today?*

*The train is **due to** arrive at Glasgow Central at 12:12.*

Be likely to

54d

Be likely to is used to talk about how probable things are:

*Are parents who have a lot of money **likely to** spoil their children?*

It is often used to make comparisons with words like *more* and *less*:

*I think men **are more likely to** spend a lot of money on food than women are.*

A: *I liked Budapest as well.*

B: *Yeah. I'm probably **less likely to** go back there than to Prague.*

We also use *it's likely* followed by *that* + clause:

***It's likely that** sales will rise.*

We form the negative of *be likely to* and *be likely that* either with *not* or with *unlikely*. *Unlikely* is more formal:

*The company is **not likely to** make a profit in the second half of the year.*

*People are **unlikely to** listen to him now because they know he lied.*

Be meant to 54e

Be meant to is used to talk about what is desirable, expected or intended:

A: *It looks green to me.*

B: *Oh, **is it meant to** be a different colour?*

***It was meant to** be like a quiz and we were all in different teams and there **was meant to** be a fantastic prize.*

Be supposed to 54f

Be supposed to is used to talk about obligations and arrangements:

*Where were you? You **were supposed to be** at the party!*

*You're **supposed to have** an hour for lunch. That's the law.*

It's also used to talk about people's expectations or beliefs about something:

[talking about some medicine]

A: *Take some of this.*

B: *What's it **supposed to** do? (What does it do to you?)*

*And then I'm gonna get a train over to Brussels which takes all day as well. **It's supposed to be** a nice route with forests and mountains and things. (gonna represents 'going to', as it is pronounced in informal speaking.)*

→ Modality: other modal words and expressions 212

Because, because of and cos, cos of 55

Because: meaning and use 55a

Because introduces clauses of cause and reason. It is a subordinating conjunction. This means that the clause it introduces is a subordinate clause, which needs a main clause to make it complete. We use a comma when the subordinate clause comes before the main clause:

[main clause] [subordinate clause]

*Everyone left early **because** Mark and Helen had an argument.*

[subordinate clause] [main clause]

***Because** they were so tired, they went to bed at 9 pm.*

! We don't use *for* or *why* instead of *because* when we are giving reasons:

I'm going to go to the company's head office on Monday **because** there is an emergency meeting there.

Not: ... to the company's head office on Monday for/why there is an emergency ...

→ **As, because or since 45**

Because of

55b

Because of is a two-word preposition meaning 'as a result of':

Because of the rain, the tennis match was stopped.

There were so many people in the shop **because of** the sale.

Cos

55c

Cos, a short form of *because*, is pronounced /kəz/ or /kɒz/ and can also be spelt 'cause. It can be used instead of *because* (and *cos of* instead of *because of*). We often use it in speaking, emails and text messages, especially in informal situations:

A: Why are you and Adam not talking to each other?

B: **Cos** he's always saying nasty things about me.

I don't eat meat **cos** I love animals.

They cancelled the trip **cos of** the snow.

Just because, simply because

55d

We can emphasise *because* with **just** or **simply**:

Just because you're the boss, it doesn't mean you can be rude to everyone.

I don't want to do it **simply because** I think it's wrong.

Been or gone?

56

We often use *been to*, instead of *gone to*, when we refer to completed visits to a place:

Have you ever **been** to Budapest?

Not: Have you ever ~~gone~~ to Budapest?

If the visit is not complete, we use *gone*.

↔ Compare

Joan's just gone to the shop. She'll be back in about ten minutes.	Joan has not yet returned from the shop.
Joan's just been to the shop. She bought some cakes. Would you like one?	Joan has returned from the shop.

Before

57

Before is a preposition, an adverb and a conjunction. *Before* means earlier than the time or event mentioned:

Can you call me back **before** 5 pm, please?

I met her just **before** she left.

! In writing, when we refer back to something that we have already written, we use *above* not *before*:

*As the graph **above** shows, the rate of inflation has risen by 15%.*

Before as a preposition

57a

We use *before* most commonly with noun phrases to refer to timed events:

*I like to go for a run **before** breakfast.*

*You can check in online but you have to do it at least four hours **before** your flight.*

We use *before* to refer to place, especially when it is seen as part of a journey or as part of a sequence of events in time:

*Get off the bus just **before** Euston Station.*

*Just **before** the end of the poem, there is a line where the poet expresses his deepest fears.*

Before, by, till, until

57b

If you have to do something *before* a certain point in time, then when that point arrives, the action must already be completed:

*I need to have the letter **before** Friday.* (Friday is too late. I need it in advance of Friday.)

If you have to do something *by* a certain point in time, then that time is the last moment at which the action can be completed:

*Can we finish this meeting **by** 5 pm. I have to get to the station **by** 5.30 pm.* (5 pm is the latest that I want the meeting to finish and 5.30 pm is the latest that I can arrive at the station.)

If something is done or happens *till* or *until* a point in time, it happens over a duration of time, starting before that time and continuing up to that point:

[out-of-office auto-reply message on an email]

*I'll be out of the office **until** 17th May. I will reply to your email after that date. (I will be back on 17 May, but not before.)*

↔ Compare

<i>I'll be there until five o'clock.</i>	<i>I'll be there up to five o'clock, but not after.</i>
<i>I'll call you by five o'clock.</i>	<i>I may call you before five o'clock but I will call you no later than five o'clock.</i>
<i>I'll be there before dinner.</i>	<i>I'll be there earlier than dinner time.</i>

Before as an adverb

57c

Before often comes after nouns such as *day*, *morning*, *night*, *week*, *month*, *year* to refer to the previous day, morning, etc.:

*Two people were ill at work yesterday and three people **the day before**!*

A: Did you graduate in 1989?

B: No, actually, I finished college **the year before**.

! When we refer to a period of time that is completed and goes from a point in the past up to now, we use *ago*, not *before*:

A: When was your birthday?

B: It was **three weeks ago**.

→Ago 26

Before as an adjunct

57d

We use *before* to connect earlier events to the moment of speaking or to a point of time in the past:

*I'm so looking forward to the trip. I haven't been to Latin America **before**.* (up to the moment of speaking)

*I introduced Tom to Olivia last night. They hadn't met **before**.* (up to that point in the past)

Before as a conjunction

57e

We use *before* as a subordinating conjunction. We commonly use *before* with the past simple tense. It suggests that the second event happened soon after the first one. The *before* clause, which indicates the second action, can be at the end or at the beginning of the sentence:

***Before** she left, she gave everyone a present.*

*She gave everyone a present **before** she left.*

Before with present tenses

When we use *before* in clauses in the present tense, the clause can refer to the future:

***Before** I go to work, I jog for at least an hour.*

Not: ~~Before I will go to work ...~~

Before with past tenses

We sometimes use *before* clauses in a variety of tenses to say that the action or event in the *before* clause did not or may not happen:

***Before** I had a chance to thank him, he'd gone.*

*You're interrupting her **before** she has even spoken.*

***Before** he had finished his training, he was sacked.*

*We should stop shopping now **before** we spend all our money.*

Before with -ing

57f

A non-finite clause with *before* + *ing*-form is more formal:

***Before bringing** the milk to the boil, add the egg.* (more formal than *Before you bring ...*)

Just before, immediately before**57g**

We can use adverbs such as *just*, *immediately*, *shortly* and *long*, and expressions involving words such as *days*, *weeks*, *months*, *years* in front of *before*:

*We got home **just before** it rained.*

*The deadline for the essay was 5 pm. I got mine in **shortly before** five o'clock but Lily had hers in **days before** the deadline.*

Beforehand**57h**

We can use *beforehand* as an alternative to *before* as an adverb, especially when the reference to time is less specific.

 *Beforehand* is more common in informal speaking than in writing:

*I love singing but I always get so nervous **beforehand**.*

In front of *beforehand*, we can put adverbs such as *immediately*, *just* and *shortly*, and other time expressions such as *days*, *weeks*, *months*, *years*:

***Months beforehand**, Dominic had bought five tickets for the concert.*

Other uses of before**57i****Before meaning 'in front of'**

We use *before* meaning 'in front of' in more formal contexts:

*Brian was twenty years old. He had his whole life **before him**.*

*The Prime Minister went **before** the people to tell them that he was going to resign.*

Before long meaning 'after a short time'

Especially in writing, we use *before long* to mean 'after a short time':

*They'll marry **before long**, and then you'll have more grandsons than you can count.*

Before: typical errors**57j**

- We use *above* not *before* when we refer back to something we have already written:

*As stated **above**, there are four key findings from the study.*

Not: ~~As stated before, there are ...~~

- When we refer to a period of time that is completed and which goes from a point in the past up to now, we use *ago*, not *before*:

A: *When did you first meet?*

B: *Ten years **ago** when we were in college.*

Not: ~~Ten years before when ...~~

Below

58

Below is a preposition or an adverb.

Below meaning 'lower than'

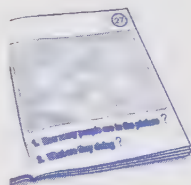
58a

We use *below* most commonly as a preposition meaning 'lower than'. It has a similar meaning to *under*. The opposite of *below* is *above*. We use it when there is no contact between people or things:

[a teacher talking to a class]

*Open your exercise book on page 27. Just **below** the picture there are some questions. Look at the picture and answer the questions.*

*There was a big clock **below** the painting.*



When the adverb *below* is used to modify a noun, it follows the noun:

*The apartment **below** is owned by a French couple.*

*We lived up in the mountains and the nearest town **below** was half an hour's drive.*

We use the adverb *below* when referring to the lower level or deck of a boat or ship:

[talking about a boat]

*It was a wonderful little boat. We spent most of our time fishing and watching the sea. We'd go **below** to sleep and to eat.*

Below with numbers, amounts or statistics

When we talk about numbers, amounts or statistics being at a lower level, we use *below* more than *under*:

*Inflation has fallen **below** 5% for the first time in six years.*

*The company's profits in 2008 were **below** what they had hoped for.*

Below referring forward in writing

58b

In formal writing, we use *below* to refer to something that we will mention or show later:

*In the figure **below**, the results show that 54% of the rats tested were carrying the antibody ...*

*There has been much discussion and debate about global warming (see **below**).*

→ Above 3; Beneath 0

Below: typical error

58c

- We don't use *below* when one thing touches or covers or hides something else; we usually use *under* instead:

***Under** a white coat, she wore an amazing red dress.*

Not: *Below a white coat ...*

Between or among?

59

Between and *among* are prepositions.

Between, among: meaning and use

59a

We use *between* to refer to two things which are clearly separated. We use *among* to talk about things which are not clearly separated because they are part of a group or crowd or mass of objects:

*Our holiday house is **between** the mountains and the sea.* (the mountains are on one side and the sea is on the other)

*The ancient fountain was hidden **among** the trees.* (surrounded by trees)

Between and prepositional phrases

59b

Between is most often used to introduce a prepositional phrase which contains two singular or plural noun phrases:

prepositional phrase

*There was a cyclist **between the car and the lorry.***

[prepositional phrase]

*I didn't see any difference **between the real bags and the imitation bags.***

We can also use *between* + pronoun when referring to two people or things:

*I gave Yolanda and Lynn some money and told them to share it **between them.***

We can also use *between*, but not *among*, to connect times or numbers:

*They lived in New York **between** 1998 and 2004.*

Not: *They lived in New York **among** 1998 and 2004.*

*What were you doing **between** 5.30 pm and 7.00 pm?*

Nouns and verbs followed by *between*

59c

The most common nouns often followed by *between* are: *connection*, *difference*, *distinction*, *link*, *relationship*:

*Is there a **connection** **between** his arrival and her disappearance?*

*There's a strong **link** **between** clean drinking water and reduced infant mortality.*

The most common verbs often followed by *between* are: *choose*, *differentiate*, *distinguish*, *divide*:

[talking about judging a competition]

*I didn't want to have to **choose** **between** the singers.*

*Her money was **divided** **between** her son and her daughter.*

Among meaning 'surrounding, part of or included in'

59d

We use *among* to suggest a sense of being a part of or surrounded by or included in something else. It is typically followed by a plural noun phrase:

*She wanted to be **among** friends.*

***Among** his books, we found some rare first editions.*

Among others and among other things**59e**

In the phrases *among others* and *among other things*, *among* means 'as well as':

*Her parents, **among others**, were worried about her travelling alone.*

***Among other things**, I still have to pack.*

→ **Among and amongst** ○

Both**60**

We use *both* to refer to two things or people together:

***Both** those chairs are occupied, I'm afraid. (The two chairs are occupied.)*

*Are **both** your parents going to Chile? (Are your mother and father going to Chile?)*

Both with nouns**60a**

When we use *both* before a determiner (e.g. *a/an, the, she, his*) + noun, *both* and *both of* can be used:

*She knew **both my children**. (or ... *both of my children*.)*

***Both her brothers** are living in Canada. (or *Both of her brothers* ...)*

We can use *both* before a noun:

*This button starts **both engines** at the same time. (or ... *both of the engines* ...)*

*Are **both cats** female?*

Both with pronouns**60b****Pronoun + both**

We can use *both* after a subject pronoun or an object pronoun:

***We both** prefer classical music.*

*Let's open **them both** now.*

Both of + object pronoun

When we use *both* as part of a subject or object which is a pronoun, it may be followed by *of* + an object pronoun:

***We both** dislike soap operas. (subject pronoun + both) or **Both of us** dislike soap operas. (*both* + *of* + object pronoun)*

*She looked at **both of us**.*

We usually use *both of* + object pronoun after prepositions:

*He shouted at **both of them**. (preferred to *He shouted at them both*.)*

*That'll be so nice **for both of you**. (preferred to *That'll be so nice for you both*.)*

Both as a pronoun**60c**

We can use *both* on its own as a pronoun:

*There are two youth hostels in the city. **Both** are described as expensive, dirty, with poor lighting and poor security.*

*Applicants for this course must speak French or German, preferably **both**.*

Both: position**60d**

If *both* refers to the subject of a clause, we can use it in the normal mid position for adverbs, between the subject and main verb, after a modal verb or the first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb:

*They **both** wanted to sell the house.* (between the subject and the main verb)

*They **had both been** refused entry to the nightclub.* (after the first auxiliary or modal verb)

*They **were both** very nice, kind and beautiful.* (after *be* as a main verb)

Not: ~~*They both were very nice ...*~~

→ **Adverbs 16****Both in short answers****60e**

We use *both* on its own in short answers:

A: *Would you like something to drink?*

B: *A coffee and a tea, please.*

A: **Both?**

B: *Yeah, one for me and one for Brenda. She's joining us in a minute.*

A: *Are you working on Monday or Wednesday next week?*

B: **Both!**

Not: ~~*The both.*~~

Both of or neither of in negative clauses**60f**

We usually use *neither of* rather than *both of ... not* in negative clauses:

***Neither of** them can swim.* (preferred to *Both of them can't swim.*)

***Neither of** my brothers lives at home any more.* (preferred to *Both of my brothers don't live at home any more.*)

When a negative verb is used, we use *either (of)*. In informal speaking, we often use a plural verb after *either*, even though it is a singular word:

*She didn't like **either** dress.* (She looked at two dresses.)

A: *Are Yvonne and Lesley **both** coming?*

B: *We don't know if **either** of them are coming.* (or, more formally, ... *if either of them **is** coming.*)

→ **Either 114****Both ... and as a linking expression****60g**

We use *both ... and* to emphasise the link between two things. This makes a stronger connection than *and* alone:

***Both** Britain **and** France agree on the treaty.* (stronger link than *Britain and France agree on the treaty.*)

She played **both** hockey **and** basketball when she was a student. (stronger link than *She played hockey and basketball when she was a student.*)

→ Conjunctions 88

Both: typical errors

60h

- We don't use *both* with a negative verb; we use *either* instead:

There was **not** a considerable difference in percentages for **either** sex in terms of having a Bachelor's degree.

Not: There was not a considerable difference in percentages for both sex. ...

- When we use the verb *be* as a main verb, *both* comes after the verb:

These films are **both** famous with people of all ages ...

Not: These films both are famous ...

Bring, take and fetch

61

Bring

61a

Bring means moving something or someone. The movement is either from where the listener is to where the speaker is, or from the speaker to the listener.

Bring is an irregular verb. Its past tense and *-ed* form are both *brought*.



In both of the following examples, the speakers are seeing things from A's viewpoint – things will move to the place where A is:

A: Are you going to the bedroom?

B: Yes.

A: Can you **bring** me my grey sweater? It's on the bed.

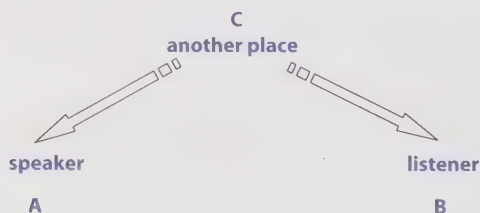
B: Yeah. (B will return with the sweater to the place where A is.)

Not: Can you take me my grey sweater?

A: Are you coming to our place on Friday night?

B: Yes. Do you want me to **bring** my guitar? (B will carry the guitar to the place where A will be.)

Bring can also mean moving with something or someone from another place to the speaker's or listener's location:



[on the telephone]

A: Did Laura **bring** you anything for your birthday?

B: Yes. She **brought** me some flowers and a CD. (Laura is C, another person, in a different place from A or B. She moved with something to where B, the listener, was.)

Take

61b

Take means movement with something or someone from where the speaker or listener is to a different place:



[university assistant at a central faculty office, speaking to a student]

You have to fill in this form and then **take** it to the English Department to get it stamped. (the assistant and the student are at the central faculty office – the English Department is a different place)

Not: ... and then bring it to the English Department

A: I can **take** you to the station tomorrow. What time's your train? (Neither A nor B is at the station; it is a different place.)

B: Thanks. It's eight-thirty.

Bring or take?

61c

↔ Compare

She visits her father every morning and she always takes him the day's newspaper.	seen from the viewpoint of the doer – <i>she</i>
She visits her father every morning and she always brings him the day's newspaper.	seen from the viewpoint of the receiver – <i>him</i>

Fetch

61d

Fetch means to go to another place to get something or someone and return with the thing or the person. We use it for people and things that are not here but that we need or are due to be here. We can usually use *get* instead of *fetch*:

If you're going to the garage, can you **fetch** that green bag with the paintbrushes in it? Or Can you get that green bag ...

Right. It's five o'clock. I'd better go and **fetch** my mother from the station.

→ Come or go? 75

Bring, take and fetch: typical errors**61e**

- We don't use *take* when something is seen from the receiver's viewpoint:

A: *Are you and Josh coming to our party?*

B: *Yeah. Sheila invited us.*

A: *Good. Can you **bring** some CDs? We're a bit short of music.*

Not: *Can you take some CDs?*

- *Brought* is the past tense of *bring*. *Bought* is the past tense of *buy*:

*Angela was in Morocco and she **brought** us back a beautiful wooden tray.*

Not: *and she bought us back ...*

British and American English**62**

Most of the differences between the English of the UK (which we shall call BrE) and the English of North America (which we shall call AmE) are vocabulary differences and differences in pronunciation and spelling. However, there are some differences in the way grammar is used. Almost all of the structures in this book are used in both varieties, but there are often differences in how common a structure is in one variety or the other. There are fewer differences in writing than in speaking.

Grammar is always changing, and many new ways of using grammar in BrE come from AmE, because of the influence of American popular culture, American media and the Internet.

→Spelling 330**British and American English: verbs****62a*****Be going to***

 AmE speakers often use *be going to* (and the informal short form *gonna*) when giving street directions, which is not a typical use in BrE. BrE speakers normally use imperatives (with and without *you*), and present simple or future forms with *will*:

[AmE]

You're gonna go three blocks and then you're gonna see an apartment building on the left with 1228 above the door.

[BrE]

A: ***Take** this street here on the right, then **go** about two hundred yards till you come to a set of traffic lights.*

B: *Okay.*

A: ***You turn** left at the lights, **go** about another hundred yards and you'll see the station.*

B: *Great. Thanks very much.*

Burn, learn, dream, etc.

In BrE, we can spell the past simple and -ed participle of verbs such as *burn*, *dream*, *lean*, *learn*, *smell*, *spell*, *spill* with either -ed (*learned*, *spilled*) or -t (*learnt*, *spilt*). AmE prefers the -ed ending:

[BrE]

*She had **dreamt** of being a dancer when she was young. (or She had dreamed ...)*

[AmE]

*As a boy, he had **dreamed** about being on the basketball team.*

[BrE]

*He **learnt** to speak fluent Spanish and Portuguese. (or He learned ...)*

[AmE]

*She **learned** to play the violin.***Fit**

In BrE, the past simple form of *fit* is usually *fitted*. In AmE, the past simple form of *fit* is most often *fit*:

[BrE]

*The sweater **fitted** her perfectly.*

[a woman is remembering her poor childhood, AmE]

*But we always looked nice. You know. We were always very clean. The clothes were clean and they **fit**.***Get**

In BrE, the three forms of *get* are *get* (base form), *got* (past simple) and *got* (-ed form). In AmE, *get* has an -ed form *gotten*:

[AmE]

*The weather has **gotten** colder this week and we're expecting snow.*

Get + *to*-infinitive is common in AmE to refer to achievements, meaning 'manage to' or 'be able to'. This usage is less common in BrE:

[talking about American football, AmE]

*A: Did you **get to go** to very many games?**B: I went to four games this year, actually.*

[talking about a camping trip in the forest, AmE]

*We **got to see** a lot of deer.***→ Get 145****Have and have got**

The present simple form of *have got* referring to possession or relationships is much more common in spoken BrE than in AmE. AmE speakers often prefer to use the verb *have* on its own:

[BrE]

*I've **got** a picture of you when you were a teenager. D'you want to see it?*

[AmE]

*I **have** two cousins in Ohio.***→ Have got and have 155**

Have got to and have to

Have got to is much more common in BrE than AmE. *Have to* (without *got*) is more common in AmE than in BrE:

[BrE]

We've got to take my mother back to the hospital a week on Friday.

[AmE]

We have to be back in San Francisco next Sunday to fly home again.

→ **Have got to and have to 156**

Shall

BrE speakers often use *shall* with *I* and *we* in statements when referring to the future, especially in more formal situations. AmE prefers *will*:

[BrE]

I shall be back in a minute. (formal)

We shall be talking about this in detail tomorrow.

[AmE]

I will call you early tomorrow morning.

We will see what happens after the new company takes us over.

→ **Shall 320; Will 384**

Substitute verb do

BrE speakers often add the substitute verb *do* to short clauses with modal verbs, especially in short answers. AmE speakers prefer to use the modal verb on its own:

[a group of students talk about the grades they might get in an exam, BrE]

A: *I don't reckon I'll get all As this time.*

B: *No.*

A: *I might do, but I doubt it.*

[AmE]

A: *Yeah, so you think you might get an exercise bicycle?*

B: *Oh, I might. I have a regular bicycle out in the garage, but it's been kind of raining and stuff around here lately.*

→ **Substitution 336**

British and American English: verb tense forms

62b

The present perfect

The present perfect is less common in AmE than BrE. AmE speakers often use the past simple in situations where BrE speakers use the present perfect, especially with words such as *already* and *yet*:

[BrE]

We've already booked our holiday for next year.

[AmE]

A: *What do you do with your free time? **Did** I already **ask** you that?* (BrE: *Have I already asked you that?*)

B: *I work!*

[BrE]

Have you **had** a reply from the bank yet?

[AmE]

Did they **pick** the golf team yet? (BrE: *Have* they **picked** the golf team yet?)

→Present perfect simple 277

The past perfect

The past perfect is more common in AmE than in BrE, especially in situations where the speaker sees one event as happening before another in the past:

[talking about a TV series shown over several nights, AmE]

A: *Did you watch it?*

B: *We **had watched** it, uh, I guess Sunday night and Monday night, but we didn't get to watch it tonight.*

[BrE]

*We **watched** the news, then we watched a documentary.*

[A is asking B about his past, AmE]

A: *You **had said** your family is from back east?*

B: *Yeah.*

A: *Then they've moved out here for business reasons?*

B: *Yeah. My dad's in banking. He got moved to Seattle and then moved here.*

[A is asking B about his past, BrE]

A: *You **said** your father died when he was quite young?*

B: *Well, he was, as far as I can remember, he was thirty-eight.*

→Past perfect simple 263

British and American English: prepositions

62c

At the weekend/on the weekend

BrE prefers *at the weekend*; AmE prefers *on the weekend*:

[BrE]

*What are you doing **at the weekend**? D'you want to get together for some music?*

[AmE]

A: *So we'll get together and barbecue **on the weekend**.*

B: *That sounds good.*

→At 48

In + period of time after a negative

AmE uses *in* + a period of time after a negative verb in situations where BrE prefers *for*:

[AmE]

*I haven't really read anything like that **in** years.* (BrE preferred form: *for years*)

[AmE]

*I haven't talked to my brother **in** three years.* (BrE preferred form: *for three years*)→ **In, into 177; For 129****In and on with street names**BrE uses *in* with street names. AmE prefers *on*:

[BrE]

*They were a lovely family. They lived **in** Walton Street.*

[AmE]

*I used to live **on** Perot Street.*→ **In, into 177; On 245; At, on, and in (place) 50****Through**AmE uses *through* in many situations where BrE prefers *to* or *till* when referring to the end points of periods of time:

[AmE]

A: *Actually she leaves the house at eleven and gets home at four so ...*B: *And that's Monday **through** Friday?* (BrE preferred form *Monday to Friday*)A: *Yeah.*

[an elderly woman is talking about her working life, BrE]

A: *I was doing twelve hours a day from Monday **till** Friday and twelve and a half on a Saturday.* (AmE preferred form *Monday through Friday*)B: *And how old were you?*A: *Fourteen years old.*→ **Across or through? 6c****Adjectives and adverbs****62d****Really, real**In informal spoken AmE, speakers often use *real* instead of *really* before an adjective. This is considered non-standard by many AmE speakers:

[AmE]

*That's **real** funny!* (BrE preferred form *really funny*)

[AmE]

*I thought it was a **real** good movie.* (BrE preferred form *really good film*)**Well and good**AmE speakers often use *good* where BrE prefers *well*. However, the AmE form is becoming more common in BrE, especially after greetings such as *How are you?*, *How's it going?*:

[AmE]

A: *How are you?*B: *I'm **good**.* (BrE preferred form *I'm well* or *I'm fine*)*It all worked out **real good**.* (BrE preferred form *really well*)**Likely**

AmE allows the use of *likely* as an adjective (in the same way as *probable*, *possible*, etc.), or as an adverb (in the same way as *probably*, *possibly*, etc.). In BrE, *likely* is normally only used as an adjective:

[AmE]

*There **will likely be** other announcements before the end of this year.* (*likely* as an adverb; BrE preferred form *There are likely to be*)

[AmE]

*The focus on the economy **will likely continue** when the new President takes office.* (BrE preferred form *is likely to continue*)

[AmE]

*And what's **likely** to happen?* (*likely* as an adjective, also common in BrE)

→ **Likely and unlikely 195****Tags****62e**

Question tags are much more common in BrE than in AmE, but a wide range of question tags are used in both varieties:

[BrE]

*She's Swedish, **isn't she**?*

[AmE]

*Elvis wasn't your favourite rock star, **was he**?*

In informal situations, AmE speakers often use a tag with rising intonation in responses which show surprise or emotional involvement. The tag has the same form as the statement the speaker is responding to (affirmative statement → affirmative tag; negative statement → negative tag). This is not common in BrE:

[AmE]

A: *I took the Chinese course last semester.*

B: *Oh, **you did**?* (BrE preferred form *Oh, did you?* with fall-rise or rising intonation)

A: *Yeah.*

[AmE]

A: *My sister still lives with my mom.*

B: ***She does**?* (BrE preferred form *Does she?*)

A: *Uh-huh.*

Tags at the end of affirmative statements which have an affirmative form occur in both varieties but are quite rare in AmE:

[BrE]

*He works really hard, **he does**.*

[AmE]

*And so when she went to a nursing home, in the beginning, I think she kind of liked it. She did art work there, **she did**, yeah.*

Both varieties use the tag *right*, but it is more common in AmE:

A: *She's studying geography, **right**?*

B: *Yeah, geography.*

→ Tags 343

But

63

But is a conjunction.

But as a linking word

63a

We use *but* to link items which are the same grammatical type (coordinating conjunction). *But* is used to connect ideas that contrast.

main idea		contrast
<i>I love fruit</i> <i>They've bought a house in Manchester</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>I am allergic to strawberries.</i> <i>they still haven't sold their house in London.</i>

The phrase *but not* is common:

*The room has been painted **but not** in the colour that I asked for.*

*I'd love to go for a pizza with you **but not** tonight.*

→ Conjunctions: contrasting 91

But meaning 'except'

63b

But means 'except' when it is used after words such as *all, everything/nothing, everyone/no one, everybody/nobody*:

*The cleaning is done now, **all but** the floors. They still have to be washed.*

*I arrived at the airport and realised that I'd brought **everything but** my passport!*

***Everyone but** Anna has checked in.*

***Nobody but** the receptionist was left in the lobby of the hotel.*

We use object pronouns after *but* (*me, you, him, us, etc.*) even in subject position:

***Everybody but me** has paid.*

***No one but him** would get a job like that.*

In formal situations, we can use subject pronouns after *but*:

***Everyone but she** knew how the drama was going to end.*

But for + reason**63c**

But for is used to introduce the reason why something didn't happen:

***But for** the traffic, I would have been here an hour ago.* (The traffic was very heavy – if it weren't for the traffic, I'd have been here an hour ago.)

*They would have been badly injured **but for** the fact that they were wearing seat belts.* (They were wearing seat belts – if it weren't for the fact that they were wearing seat belts, they would have been badly injured.)

All but meaning 'almost completely'**63d**

*I had **all but** finished the essay when the computer crashed and I lost it all.*

*His parents had **all but** given up hope of seeing him again.*

By**64**

By is a preposition or an adverb.

By and time**64a**

We use *by* meaning 'not later than' to refer to arrangements and deadlines:

*They said that the plumber would be here **by Monday**.*

*The postman is always here **by 11 am**.*

We use *by the time*, meaning 'when', to connect an action that has happened or will have happened before a second action. The action that happened second comes after *by the time*:

[action 2] [action 1]

***By the time** you wake up, I'll have finished work!* (When you wake up, I will have finished work)

Not: *~~By the time~~ you will wake up ...*

*Unfortunately the man had died **by the time** the ambulance arrived.* (When the ambulance arrived, the man had already died.)

→ *Before, by, till, until* 57b

By and the passive**64b**

When we use the passive voice, we can use a phrase with *by* to say who did the action:

*The new street was opened **by the Mayor**.*

*The wedding cake was made **by Henry's mother**.*

→ *Passives with an agent* 257c; *Passives without an agent* 257d

By meaning 'how to do something'**64c**

We use *by* + *-ing* form to describe how to do something:

***By pressing** this button, you turn on the alarm system. Then **by entering** the code 0089, you can turn it off again.*

We use *by* + noun to describe how someone travels or communicates, or how things are processed:

*I'll send it **by email**; I can send it **by post** as well if you wish.*

*Can I pay **by credit card**?*

We say *by car*, *by bus*, *by plane*, etc. but if there is a determiner (e.g. *a/an*, *the*, *some*, *my*, *his*) before the noun, we say *in* or *on*.

↔ Compare

<i>We went by train to Pisa.</i> <i>It's easier to get there by car.</i> <i>Did you travel by plane?</i>	<i>by</i> + mode of transport
<i>I'll have to go on the 5 am train.</i> <i>Barbara is travelling in Ann's car.</i> <i>Have you ever travelled in a small plane?</i>	<i>on/in</i> + determiner + mode of transport



When we walk, we say *on foot*:

*It takes me just 20 minutes to get to work **on foot**.*

Not: ... ~~to get to work by foot~~.

By + myself etc.

64d

When we say *by* + *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *oneself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*, it means 'alone'. We sometimes use *all* for emphasis:

*They painted the whole house **by themselves**! (They did it alone.)*

*I was **all by myself** in the house last night but I didn't mind. (I was alone.)*

*Did you build that castle **all by yourself**? (Did you do it alone?)*

→ Pronouns: reflexive 292

By and place

64e

We use *by* to mean 'beside' or 'at the side of':

*There's a lovely café **by the river**. We could go there. (The café is beside the river.)*

By and *near* have a similar meaning but *by* refers to a shorter distance:

↔ Compare

<i>I live by a football stadium.</i>	The stadium is beside my house.
<i>I live near a football stadium.</i>	The stadium is in my neighbourhood.

We also use *by* to mean 'movement past something':

*Three people walked **by the house** as Henry opened the door. (They walked past the house.)*

By as an adverb is often used in this sense:

*Lisa waved as she went **by**.* (She passed the house without stopping.)

By and measurements and amounts

64f

We use *by* to talk about measurements, and increases and decreases in amounts:

*My bedroom is just three metres **by** two metres!* (three metres in one direction and two metres in the other direction)

*When you work part-time, you are usually paid **by** the hour.*

*The price of fuel has increased **by** 12% this year.*

By meaning 'during'

64g

We sometimes use *by* + *day* and *by* + *night* to mean 'during the day or the night':

*He works **by night** and sleeps **by day**.*

By meaning 'written' or 'composed'

64h

We use *by* when we talk about the writers of books, songs, poems, symphonies, etc.:

*What's the name of the latest song **by** U2?*

*This website makes works **by** Beethoven available free for downloading.*

You will find other meanings of *by* in a good learner's dictionary.

By: typical errors

64i

- We say *by car*, *by bus*, *by plane* etc. but if there is a determiner (e.g. *a/an*, *the*, *some*, *his*), we say *in* or *on*:

*They always travel **on** the bus.*

Not: ... ~~by the bus~~.

- We use *by*, not *with*, to talk about the action of something:

*He got into the house **by breaking** the window.* (action)

Not: ... ~~with breaking~~ the window.

- We use *with*, not *by*, to refer to the object or instrument that we use to do something!

*He broke the window **with a rock**.* (object/instrument)

Not: ... ~~by a rock~~.

Can

65

Can: forms

65a

Affirmative (+) form

Can comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

[verb phrase]

*We **can** take the train to Birmingham.*

Can is never used with another modal verb:

*He **can** hear the music from his room sometimes.*

Not: He ~~can~~ might hear the music ... or He ~~might can~~ might hear the music ...

Negative (-) form

The negative form of *can* is *can't*. We don't use *don't/doesn't/didn't* with *can*:

*I **can't** believe you said that!*

Not: I ~~don't can~~ believe you said that!

We can use the full form *cannot* (one word) in formal contexts or when we want to emphasise something:

*I **cannot** understand why she behaves like that.*

→Modality: forms 208

Question (?) form

! The subject and *can* change position to form questions. We don't use *do/does/did*:

***Can this** really be true?*

Not: Does ~~this can~~ really be true?

***Can't you** ask for another day off work?*

We use *can* and *can't* in question tags:

*You **can't** take photos inside the museum, **can you**?*

*Abby **can** speak Japanese, **can't she**?*

Can: uses

65b

Permission

We often use *can* to ask for or give permission:

***Can** I take Daisy for a walk?*

*Students **can** use calculators during the exam.*

We use *can't* to forbid (say what you must not do):

*You **can't** park there.*

*You **can't** just take the day off work. You have to have permission in advance.*

→May 202

Ability

We often use *can* to talk about ability to do something in the present or future:

*I **can** sing one song in Polish.*

***Can** you sleep on your back?*

*We **can** go swimming after school tomorrow, if you like.*

We often use *can* with verbs of perception such as *hear*, *see*, *smell*, *taste*, and mental process verbs such as *guess*, *imagine*, *picture*, *understand* and *follow* (in the sense of 'understand');

*I **can** hear you.*

*I **can** see her coming down the road now.*

***Can** you smell something burning?*

*I **can** guess why you're angry.*

*We **can't** follow these instructions for installing this new DVD player. (We can't understand these instructions.)*

General truths

We use *can* to talk about things which we think are usually, but not always, true:

*Reducing cholesterol through diet **can** be difficult. (It's not always difficult for everyone, but in general it is difficult.)*

*Fireworks **can** frighten pets.*

*Swans **can** be very vicious.*

We don't normally use *could* to talk about what we believe to be true in the present.

↔ Compare

<i>Exercise can help reduce stress.</i>	I believe this is a general truth or fact.
<i>Exercise could help reduce stress.</i>	I see this only as a possibility.
<i>Finding a hotel in August can be difficult.</i>	I believe this is a general truth or fact based on my experience or knowledge.
<i>Finding a hotel in August could be difficult.</i>	I see this only as a possibility.

→ Could 95

Possibility

We use *can* to express possibility or to question possibilities:

*We **can** go to Rome in June because both of us have a week off work. (It is possible for us to go to Rome because we don't have to work in June.)*

*Well, how **can** you be on a diet if you buy so much chocolate? (I don't think it's possible that you are on a diet because you still buy lots of chocolate.)*

Guessing and predicting: *can't* as the negative of *must*

When we want to guess or predict something, we use *can't* as the negative form of *must*. We use *can't have* + *-ed* form as the negative form of *must have* + *-ed*. *Can't* and *can't have* + *-ed* form express strong possibility:

A: *Who owns this blue coat? It **must** be yours.*

B: *It **can't** be mine. It's too big. (A uses *must* to guess that the coat belongs to B. He sees this as a strong possibility. B uses *can't* to express strong negative possibility. The coat is too big, so it isn't his.)*

A: Roy **must** have made a lot of money.

B: He **can't** have done. He doesn't even own a house. (A makes a deduction that Roy has made a lot of money. B sees this as very unlikely and so expresses it as a negative possibility.)

→ **Must 216; Could 95**

Requests

We use *can* as a question form to make requests:

*Those cakes look so good. **Can** I try one?*

***Can** I have your surname?*

***Can** you help me with this form?*

→ **Could 95; Requests 316**

Reproaches

We use *can't* as a question form to ask people to stop doing something we don't want them to do, or to do something they are not doing which we want them to do:

***Can't** you stop making that awful noise?*

*Why **can't** you just be nice to her instead of upsetting her?*

Offers

We use *can* as a question form to make offers:

***Can** I help you lift that?*

***Can** we do anything for you?*

→ **Offers 243**

Can: past

65c

The past of *can* is *could*:

*In those days, you **could** buy everything in the local shop. Now we have to go to the big supermarket for everything.*

*We asked the security guards if we **could** go backstage to meet the band.*

When we question the possibility of something in the past, we use *can't have + -ed* form:

*You **can't have arrived** here earlier than me.*

Can: typical errors

65d

- We write *cannot* as one word:

*The children **cannot** be left unsupervised at any time.*

Not: *The children can not be left unsupervised ...*

- We use *could*, not *can*, to talk about ability in the past.

*They **could** see a light on in the house as they drove past at 10 pm.*

Not: *They can see a light on in the house ...*

Can, could or may?**66****Possibility****66a**

When we talk about possibility, we use *can*, *could* and *may*, but they are different in meaning.

↔ Compare

<i>It can be dangerous to cycle in the city.</i>	This expresses what the speaker believes is a general truth or known fact, or a strong possibility.
<i>It could/may be dangerous to cycle in the city.</i>	This does not express a general truth. The speaker is only expressing a weak possibility.
<i>It is dangerous to cycle in the city.</i>	This expresses a real fact using the present simple. The speaker is certain and no modality is used.

→ Could 95; May 202

Permission**66b**

We use *can*, *could* and *may* to ask for permission. We use *can* and *may*, but not *could*, to give permission. *May* is less common:

↔ Compare

asking for permission	formal/polite?	giving permission	formal/polite?
<i>Can I ask you a question?</i>	informal	Yes, you can.	informal
<i>Could I use your phone?</i>	more formal/polite	Yes, you may.	formal/polite
<i>May I use your phone?</i>	even more formal/polite	Yes, you could.	

→ Might 206

Requests**66c**

When we make requests, we can use *can* or *could* (but not *may*). *Could* is more polite than *can*:

Can you call back later? I'm busy now.

Could you call back later? I'm busy now.

Teachers and parents often use *can* and *could* in requests:

Can you open your books at page 34, please.

Can you please refrain from chewing gum.

Could you just sit down and listen!

→ Requests 316; Politeness 271

Can, could or may: typical errors

66d

- *Could* in the present only expresses weak possibility. *Can* expresses strong possibility:
*I **can** travel in July because my exams will definitely be finished at the beginning of that month.* (strong possibility)
*I **could** travel in July because my exams will probably be finished at the beginning of that month.* (weak possibility)
- We don't normally use *could* to talk about general truths which refer to the present time. We use *can* instead:
*Not everyone **can** afford to buy organic food.*
 Not: ~~Not everyone could afford ...~~
- We use *could*, not *can*, to express future possibility. *Can* expresses that we are certain of something:
*Working in London next summer **could** be a great experience.* (The speaker thinks this is possible, in particular circumstances)
 Not: ... ~~can be a great experience.~~

Chunks

67

When we speak and write, we repeat a lot of phrases and clauses, such as *on the other hand*, *a lot of*, *at the moment*, *you know*, *you see*, *I mean*. Some of these phrases, or chunks of language, are very common and they have specific meanings.

Chunks in speaking

67a

We use chunks like *you know*, *you know what I mean*, *I know what you're saying* to check and show understanding between speaker and listener:

[company employees talking]

A: *You ask for a report and you end up with a hundred pages. **You know what I mean?***

B: *Yeah. **I know what you're saying.***

We use *you see* as a discourse marker when we are explaining something. It shows that what we are saying is new information for the listener:

*But he's trying to send us an email and I'm having some trouble with the computer, **you see.***

We use chunks of vague language such as *and that kind of thing*, *and that sort of thing*, *and so on*, *and things like that*, *and stuff like that* to talk about collections of things without having to make a long list:

*... when you start your final year and you come to ask for help on getting jobs **and that kind of thing**, you'll be asked to fill in a form describing the work you did last summer ...*

We use chunks like *having said that* and *saying that* to show that what we are going to say next is in contrast to what we have just said:

But, **having said that**, what her mother's been doing is running her into school and picking her up ...

→ Discourse markers 104; Vague language 359

Chunks in writing

67b

We use many chunks in writing. They help us to structure what we write:

*The most lethal weapon on earth is the human mind; but **on the other hand** it is only the mind that is capable of envisioning what is humanly desirable and what is not.*

*Exports were slightly higher than imports, and **as a result**, there was a positive trade balance.*

***First of all**, working procedures could be standardised, so that orders can be clearly performed.*

*... he identifies and examines the various ways in which a wide variety of 'change agents' – industrial workers, social workers, church ministers, politicians, protest leaders, business and professional people, housewives, youth and community institutions **and so forth** – made such progress possible.*

Chunks as frames

67c

Some chunks don't look complete (*I don't know if, in the middle of*). These usually help make up or frame sentences:

I don't know if ...

We often use *I don't know if ...* as a frame for questions that start conversations:

***I don't know if** you've ever been to Canberra.*

***I don't know if** you saw that film on TV last night.*

You know the ...

We use *you know the ...* when we are telling stories or introducing a person, place or thing which the listener already knows about:

A: ***You know the** guy who used to call around selling lottery tickets?*

B: *Yeah. I remember him.*

A: *Well I saw him the other day, wearing a pinstriped suit.*

***You know the** shop on the corner, that's the one that got broken into.*

Clauses

68

Clauses: introduction

68a

A clause is the basic unit of grammar. Typically a main clause is made up of a subject (s) (a noun phrase) and a verb phrase (v). Sometimes the verb phrase is followed by other elements, e.g. objects (o), complements (c), adjuncts (ad). These other elements are sometimes essential to complete the meaning of the clause:

Sarah smiled.

[s] [v] [c]

Jo doesn't feel well.

Not: ~~Jo~~ doesn't feel. (*well* is essential because it completes the meaning of *feel*.)

[s] [v] [o]

They haven't posted all the invitations. (*post* is a transitive verb which needs an object, *all the invitations*)

The underlined words are not essential to complete the clause:

[s] [v] [o] [AD]

I'll call you later.

[s] [v] [o] [AD]

All the girls laughed loudly.

When we give a command, we don't usually use a subject:

Be careful!

Jump!

When we do use the subject, it is to reinforce the instruction or to make clear exactly who the speaker is talking to:

You be careful.

→ Commands and instructions 76; Verbs 360; Subjects 333; Objects 241; Complements 82; Adjuncts 15; Clauses and sentences 70

Main (independent) clauses and subordinate (dependent) clauses 68b

Main (or independent) clauses can form sentences on their own. They aren't dependent on other clauses. They are always finite (they must contain a verb which shows tense).

Subordinate (or dependent) clauses cannot form sentences on their own. They are dependent on main clauses to form sentences. They can be finite or non-finite (the main clauses are in bold; the subordinate clauses are underlined):

I didn't go to work because I wasn't feeling very well.

He studied violin and mathematics before taking a medical degree and doing postgraduate work in biophysics at Harvard.

She had pretty hair and must have been nice-looking when she was young.

If I tell him will he be angry?

→ Clauses: finite and non-finite 69

Clauses: coordinated 68c

We can combine clauses of the same grammatical type to form sentences using coordinating conjunctions:

[main clause] [main clause]

*I'll take the train **and** you can take the car.*

[subordinate clause] [subordinate clause]

*I'll give you a call **if** I'm going to be late **or** if I'm not coming.*

[non-finite clause] [non-finite clause]

*You can use the phone to receive calls **but** not to make them.*

We don't create coordinated clauses with clauses of a different grammatical type. For example we cannot coordinate a main clause and a subordinate clause:

*Ten minutes passed **and** no one had come.*

Not: ~~Ten minutes passed and if no one had come.~~

→ Clauses: main and subordinate 68b; Conjunctions 88

Clauses: finite and non-finite

69

Finite clauses

69a

Finite clauses must contain a verb which shows tense. They can be main clauses or subordinate clauses:

*Is it **raining**?* (main: present)

*I **spoke** to Joanne last night.* (main: past)

*We **didn't** get any food because we **didn't** have enough time.* (main: past; subordinate: past)

Non-finite clauses

69b

Non-finite clauses contain a verb which does not show tense. We usually use non-finite verbs only in subordinate clauses. We usually understand the time referred to from the context of the main clause. We often use a non-finite clause when the subject is the same as the subject in the main clause:

*I had something to eat **before leaving**.* (I had something to eat before I left.)

***After having spent** six hours at the hospital, they eventually came home.*

***Helped by local volunteers**, staff at the museum have spent many years sorting and cataloguing more than 100,000 photographs.*

*He left the party and went home, **not having anyone to talk to**.*

*The person to ask **about going to New Zealand** is Beck.*

*You have to look at the picture really carefully **in order to see all the detail**.*

After, although, though, and if

We often use non-finite clauses after some subordinating conjunctions like *after*, *although*, *though* and *if*:

*By the end of the day, **although exhausted**, Mark did not feel quite as tired as he had in the past.* (although he was exhausted)

*The proposal, **if accepted by Parliament**, will mean fundamental changes to the education system.*

→ Ellipsis 116

After verbs + -ing or infinitive with to

We use non-finite clauses as the complements to verbs which take -ing or *to*-infinitive after them:

*I don't **enjoy playing** tennis in the rain.*

*I'd **hate to travel** to London every day.*

Relative clauses

A relative clause can be non-finite when the subject of the relative clause is the same as the subject of the main clause:

*The man **sitting on the sofa over there** is Simon's brother.* (The man who is sitting ...)

*Don't forget to fill in the form **attached to the letter**.* (... which is attached to the letter.)

→ *Although or though?* 32; *Finite clauses* 69a; *Relative clauses* 307

Clauses and sentences

70

What is a clause?

70a

A clause is the basic unit of grammar. A clause must contain a verb. Typically a clause is made up of a subject, a verb phrase and, sometimes, a complement:

I've eaten.

The sale starts at 9 am.

I didn't sleep well last night.

Are you listening to the radio?

→ *Clauses* 68

What is a sentence?

70b

A sentence is a unit of grammar. It must contain at least one main clause. It can contain more than one clause. In writing, a sentence typically begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop:

She spoke to me. (one clause)

I looked at her and she smiled at me. (two main clauses connected by *and*)

We didn't go to the show because there weren't any tickets left. (a main clause and a subordinate clause connected by *because*)

In everyday speaking, it is often difficult to identify sentences. We speak in small stretches of language, sometimes just single words or phrases. We don't always speak in complete sentences, and we often complete each other's 'sentences':

Right.

Let's go.

A: *What are those flowers?*

B: *Which ones?*

A: *The pink ones over there.*

A: *Did I tell you I'm going to do a course in um ...*

B: *Computing?*

A: *No, business studies.*

→ Clauses 68; Sentences 319

Clause types

71

There are four basic types of main clause: declaratives (statements), interrogatives (questions), imperatives (orders/instructions) and exclamatives (used for exclamations). In the examples below, x is any other element in the clause (e.g. object, predicative complement):

Declarative clauses

71a

Declarative clauses most commonly function as statements. The usual word order is subject (s) + verb (v) + x. Declaratives can be affirmative or negative. They make statements about how things are and how they are not.

affirmative	negative
[s] [v] [x] <i>I saw them last week.</i>	[s] [v] [x] <i>I didn't see them last week.</i>
[s] [v] [x] <i>Some courses begin in January.</i>	[s] [v] [x] <i>Some courses don't begin until March.</i>

Sometimes we use declaratives as questions or requests:

A: *Those are the only tickets left?* (question)

B: *Yes, just those two.*

A: *You could pass me the spoon. That would be helpful.* (request)

B: *This one?*

Interrogative clauses

71b

Interrogative clauses most commonly function as questions. The usual word order is (wh-word) + auxiliary/modal verb (AUX/M) + subject + verb + x:

[wh] [AUX] [s] [v]

What are you doing?

[AUX] [s] [v] [x]

Does she play tennis well?

[M] [s] [v] [x]

Can I come with you?

Interrogative clauses can be affirmative or negative.

affirmative	negative
<i>Are there any blue ones?</i>	<i>Aren't there any blue ones?</i>
<i>Why did he tell me?</i>	<i>Why didn't he tell me?</i>

→ Questions 295; Negation 219

Imperative clauses

71c

Imperative clauses most commonly function as commands, instructions or orders. The usual word order is verb + x. We do not usually include the subject in an imperative clause. We use the base form of the verb:

Come on. Hurry up!

Leave me alone!

Let's go.

Put it in the microwave for two minutes.

Imperative clauses can be affirmative or negative. We make negative imperatives with auxiliary verb *do* + *not*. The contracted form *don't* is very common in speaking:

affirmative	negative
<i>Go!</i>	<i>Don't go!</i>
<i>Leave the door open.</i>	<i>Don't leave the door open.</i>
<i>Be happy.</i>	<i>Don't be sad.</i>

We use *do not* in more formal contexts:

[instructions on a jar of coffee]

Do not make coffee with boiling water.

We can use the short form *don't* as an imperative answer, or as a reaction to something:

A: *Shall I open the window?*

B: *No, don't. I'm freezing.* (No, don't open the window.)

Imperatives with subject pronoun

Sometimes we use *you* (subject pronoun) with an imperative clause to make a command stronger or to strengthen a contrast. It can sometimes sound impolite:

Don't you ever read my letters again.

[talking about washing up dishes]

You wash, I'll dry.

In informal speaking, we can use an indefinite subject (e.g. *someone*, *somebody*, *no one*, *nobody*, *everyone*, *everybody*) with an imperative:

No one move. **Everyone** stay still.

Invitations

We often use an imperative to make an offer or invitation:

Have some more cake. There's plenty there.

Imperatives with do

We sometimes use *do* for emphasis in an imperative clause, especially if we want to be very polite:

Do sit down, please.

Imperatives with let

 In speaking we usually use *let's* for first person plural imperatives (*us*) to make a suggestion. In more formal situations we use *let us*:

Let's go and eat.

Now, *let us* all get some sleep. (more formal)

For third person imperatives (*him, her, it, them*) we form an imperative clause with *let*:

A: *Mr Thomas is here to see you. Shall I send him in?*

B: *Let him wait. I'm busy.*

→ Imperative clauses 172; *Let, let's* 193

Exclamative clauses

71d

Exclamative clauses usually have one of the following word orders:

What + noun + subject + verb

How + adjective or adverb + subject + verb

Auxiliary or modal verb + subject + verb (i.e. interrogative word order)

We use exclamative clauses most commonly to express surprise or shock. In writing we use an exclamation mark:

What a lovely sister you are!

How beautiful that house was!

Wasn't she great!

Didn't he sing well!

Cleft sentences (*It was in June we got married.*) 72

We use cleft sentences, especially in speaking, to connect what is already understood to what is new to the listener. In a cleft sentence, a single message is divided (cleft) into two clauses. This allows us to focus on the new information.

It-cleft sentences

72a

It-clauses are the most common type of cleft clause. The information that comes after *it* is emphasised for the listener. The clause which follows the *it*-clause is connected using

that and it contains information that is already understood. We often omit *that* in informal situations when it is the object of the verb:

A: Sharon's car got broken into yesterday, did it?

B: No. It was **Nina's car that got broken into!**

Focus (new information): it was Nina's car

Understood already (old information): a car got broken into

A: You've met my mother, haven't you?

B: No, it was **your sister (that) I met!**

Focus (new information): it was your sister

Understood already (old information): I met someone in your family

Is it **August** that you are going on holiday?

Focus (new information): the month August

Understood already (old information): you are going on holiday

When a personal subject is the focus, we can use *who* instead of *that*. We often omit *who* in informal situations when it is the object of the verb:

It was my **husband who** (or *that*) you spoke to on the phone. (or *It was my husband you spoke to on the phone.*)

When a plural subject is the focus, we use a plural verb but *It + be* remains singular:

It's the **parents who were** protesting most.

We can use negative structures in the *it*-clause:

It wasn't the Greek student who phoned.

Wh-cleft sentences (**What I need is a holiday**)

72b

Wh-cleft sentences are most often introduced by *what*, but we can also use *why*, *where*, *how*, etc. The information in the *wh*-clause is typically old or understood information, while the information in the following clause is new and in focus:

A: I don't know **what to cook for them?** I don't know **what they like.**

B: **What they like is smoked salmon.**

Understood already (old information): we are talking about what they like to eat

Focus (new information): they like smoked salmon

A: This remote control **isn't working.**

B: **What we need to do is get new batteries for it.**

Understood already (old information): there is something that we need to do to fix the remote control.

Focus (new information): we need to buy new batteries

Collocation

73

Collocation refers to how words go together or form fixed relationships.

typical collocations	incorrect/untypical collocations
<i>heavy rain</i>	thick rain
<i>high temperature</i>	tall temperature
<i>scenic view</i>	scenic picture
<i>have an experience</i>	do/make an experience

She has **blonde** hair.
Not: She has beige hair.

She was **discharged** from hospital.
Not: ~~She was released from hospital.~~

Collocations may be strong or weak. Strong collocations are where the link between the two words is quite fixed and restricted. Weak collocations are where a word can collocate with many other words.

↔ Compare

strong <i>make</i> <i>express + a wish</i> <i>fulfil</i>	Very few words can collocate with the noun <i>wish</i> . This makes <i>wish</i> a strong collocator.
weak <i>apartment, beach, car, camera, chance,</i> big + <i>disappointment, fight, gun, lamp, moon, news,</i> <i>ocean, pain, pity, price, queue, table, umbrella,</i> <i>upset, wait, window</i>	<i>big</i> can collocate with hundreds of words, therefore it's a weak collocator.

Strong collocations

whisk an egg curly hair winding road blissfully ignorant

Weak collocations

big/enormous/large + house/lorry/cup
fast/shiny/expensive + car/motorbike/aeroplane
very/really/extremely + interesting/hot/generous
brown/straight/long + fence/hair/line

Becoming aware of collocations is part of vocabulary learning. All languages have a large number of collocating words. A good dictionary will help you and dictionaries of collocations are also available.

Come

74

Come describing movement

74a

We usually use *come* to talk about movement from the listener to the speaker or from the speaker to the listener.

Movement from listener to speaker

*Can you **come** to my office? I need to show you something.*



Movement from speaker to listener

*Shall I **come** to your place at 8 pm?*



We also use *come* to talk about movement from another place to the place where the speaker or listener is:

*Rosie is going to **come** to you on Friday if that's okay.* (a third person moves to the listener)

*A man **came** to my door last night selling pictures.* (another person moved to the speaker)

Come is also used with the meaning of 'accompanying the speaker or listener to a place':

*Are you **coming** with us to the beach this afternoon?*

A: *I'm going for some lunch. Are you **coming**?*

B: *Yeah, why not.*

Come meaning 'arrive'

74b

We can use *come* to mean 'arrive':

*Has the post **come** yet?*

*Flavio **came** about an hour ago but Tom isn't here yet.*

Come or come to?

74c

When we talk about an event which happens because someone comes to a particular place, we use *come and*:

*Would you like to **come and** have dinner with us one day next week?*

When we simply express someone's intention or purpose in coming to a place, we use *come to*:

*He **came to** apologise, but she wouldn't speak to him.* (it was his intention to apologise)

Common informal spoken expressions with *come*



How come? is used informally to mean 'why':

A: *How about lunch at 1 pm?*

B: *Not today, I'm afraid.*

A: *How come?*

B: *I've got a big meeting this afternoon and I need to prepare for it.*

→ *Come or go?* 75; *Go* 148

Come or go?

75

We use *come* to describe movement between the speaker and listener, and movement from another place to the place where the speaker or listener is. We usually use *go* to talk about movement from where the speaker or listener is to another place.

When we talk about another person (someone who is neither the speaker nor the listener), we can use either *come* or *go*, depending on whether the speaker sees things from the receiver's viewpoint (*come*) or the doer's viewpoint (*go*).

[doer]	[receiver]	We use <i>come</i> when we see things from the receiver's viewpoint (in this case the mother).
Yolanda	<i>came</i>	to her mother for help.
[doer]	[receiver]	We use <i>go</i> when we see things from the doer's viewpoint (in this case Melissa).
Melissa	<i>went</i>	to her mother for help.

→ *Go* 148

Come in, go in

Come in and *go in* both mean 'enter':

[dentist's assistant to a patient who is waiting]

*Will you **come in** now, please.*

[at a beach on a cold day]

*It's so cold! I don't want to **go in** the water.*

Commands and instructions

76

Giving commands

76a

We often use an imperative in commands, and we also use *must*. They both sound very direct:

[in class]

***Stop** talking now!*

[a father to his child]

***Don't** press that button.*

[a mother to a child]

*You **must** wear a coat. It's raining.*

There are a number of ways of making commands sound more polite. We can add *please* at the end of what we say, or we can use a question form to make a command sound more like a request, or we can use *I'd like you to* + infinitive or *I'd be grateful if you'd* + infinitive without *to*:

[a boss to an assistant]

*Ask Max to sign this form and then send it off immediately **please**, Gwyn.*

Will you bring us the files on the Hanley case please, Maria?

I'd like you to bring us four coffees at eleven when we take a break in the meeting.

I'd be grateful if you didn't tell anyone about this.

Public notices

Public notices often give direct commands using *no, do not* or *must*:



Giving instructions

76b

We use instructions to tell someone how to do something. We usually use imperatives. They do not sound too direct in this context:

[a cookery class]

Beat four eggs, like this. Then **add** the flour gradually. **Don't beat** the eggs too much though.

[instructions on how to replace a missing button]

Thread your needle with a piece of thread about 25 cm long. **Mark** the spot where you want the button. **Insert** the needle from the back of the fabric and **bring** it through ...



In speaking, we often use the present simple when we are giving instructions and demonstrations, and we say *like so* meaning 'like this':

You fold the A4 piece of paper **like so**. Then *you glue* some shapes onto this side and *sprinkle* some glitter on it **like so**.

→ Imperative clauses 172

Comparison: adjectives (*bigger, biggest, more interesting*)

77

Comparative and superlative adjectives

77a

Comparative adjectives

Comparative adjectives compare one person or thing with another and enable us to say whether a person or thing has more or less of a particular quality:

Josh is taller than his sister.

I'm more interested in music than sport.

Big cars that use a lot of petrol are less popular now than twenty years ago.

Superlative adjectives

Superlative adjectives describe one person or thing as having more of a quality than all other people or things in a group:

*The 'Silver Arrow' will be **the fastest train** in the world when it is built.*

***The most frightening film** I've ever seen was Alfred Hitchcock's 'Psycho'.*

*What is **the least expensive way** of travelling in Japan?*

Comparative or superlative?

A comparative compares a person or thing with another person or thing. A superlative compares a person or thing with the whole group of which that person or thing is a member:

*Joe's **older** than Mike.* (comparing one person with another)

*Sheila is **the youngest** girl in the family.* (comparing one person with the whole group she belongs to)

When there are just two members in a group, traditionally, we use the comparative. However, in informal situations people often use the superlative:

*Who is **younger**, Rowan or Tony?* (traditional usage)

*Jan and Barbara are both tall, but Jan's **the tallest**.* (more informal)

Comparative and superlative adjectives: form

77b

One-syllable adjectives (*big, cold, hot, long, nice, old, tall*)

To form the comparative, we use the *-er* suffix with adjectives of one syllable:

*It's **colder** today than yesterday.*

*It was a **longer** holiday than the one we had last year.*

*Sasha is **older** than Mark.*

To form the superlative, we use the *-est* suffix with adjectives of one syllable. We normally use *the* before a superlative adjective:

*I think that's **the biggest** apple I've ever seen!*

*At one time, the Empire State building in New York was **the tallest** building in the world.*

*They have three boys. Richard is **the oldest** and Simon is **the youngest**.*

Spelling of comparatives and superlatives with one-syllable adjectives

type of adjective	comparative	superlative
most adjectives	add <i>-er</i> : <i>cheaper, richer, smaller, younger</i>	add <i>-est</i> : <i>cheapest, richest, smallest, youngest</i>
adjectives ending in <i>-e</i>	add <i>-r</i> : <i>finer, nicer, rarer</i>	add <i>-st</i> : <i>finest, nicest, rarest</i>

adjectives with one vowel + one consonant:	double the final consonant and add -er: <i>bigger, hotter, thinner</i>	double the final consonant and add -est: <i>biggest, hottest, thinnest</i>
--	--	--

Note the pronunciation of these comparatives and superlatives:

<i>long</i> /lɒŋ/	<i>longer</i> /lɒŋɡə(r)/	<i>longest</i> /lɒŋɡəst/
<i>strong</i> /strɒŋ/	<i>stronger</i> /strɒŋɡə(r)/	<i>strongest</i> /strɒŋɡəst/
<i>young</i> /jʌŋ/	<i>younger</i> /jʌŋɡə(r)/	<i>youngest</i> /jʌŋɡəst/

One-syllable adjectives which are irregular

Some one-syllable adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms:

<i>bad, worse, worst</i>	<i>far, farther/further, farthest/furthest</i>
<i>good, better, best</i>	<i>old, older/elder, oldest/eldest</i>

*The morning flight is **better** than the afternoon one.*

*His **elder** sister works for the government.*

*Olivia is Denise's **best** friend.*

*I think that was the **worst** film I've ever seen!*

*Pluto is **the furthest** planet from the sun in our solar system.*

! We do not use *more* or *most* together with an -er or -est ending:

*They emigrate because they are looking for a **better** life.*

Not: ... a more better life

*The beach at Marmaris is one of **the biggest** in Turkey.*

Not: ... the most biggest ...

→ **Farther, farthest or further, furthest?** Ⓞ; **Elder, eldest or older, oldest?** Ⓞ

Two-syllable adjectives

Two-syllable adjectives ending in -y change y to i and take the -er and -est endings:

<i>busy, busier, busiest</i>	<i>happy, happier, happiest</i>
<i>easy, easier, easiest</i>	<i>funny, funnier, funniest</i>

*We were **busier** last week than this week.*

*Are you **happier** now that you've changed your job?*

*That was **the easiest** exam I've ever taken.*

Some other two-syllable adjectives (especially those ending in an unstressed vowel sound) can also take the -er and -est endings:

<i>clever, cleverer, cleverest</i>	<i>quiet, quieter, quietest</i>
<i>narrow, narrower, narrowest</i>	<i>simple, simpler, simplest</i>

*I've always thought that Donald was **cleverer** than his brother.*

*This new bed is **narrower** than the old one.*

*The guest bedroom is **the quietest** room in the house because it overlooks the garden.*

We don't normally use the *-er* and *-est* endings with two-syllable adjectives ending in *-ful*. Instead, we use *more* and *most/least*:

*This dictionary is **more useful** than the one we had before.*

Not: ~~This dictionary is usefuller ...~~

*You'll have to try to be **more careful** in future.*

*The **most useful** tool in the kitchen is a good sharp knife.*

Not: ~~The usefulest tool in the kitchen ...~~

*This is **the least harmful** chemical in terms of the environment.*

Longer adjectives

Adjectives of three or more syllables form the comparative with *more/less* and the superlative with *most/least*:

*The second lecture was **more interesting** than the first.*

Not: ~~The second lecture was interestinger ...~~

*That way of calculating the figures seems **less complicated** to me.*

*London is **the most popular** tourist destination in England.*

Not: ~~London is the popularest ...~~

*If you are going as a group, **the least expensive** option is to rent an apartment or villa.*

Comparative adjectives: using *much, a lot, far, etc.*

77c

We can strengthen or emphasise a comparative adjective using words such as *much, a lot, far, even* or *rather*, or by using *than ever* after the adjective:

*This food is **much better** than the food we had yesterday.*

*The town is **a lot more crowded** these days because of the new shopping centre.*

*Alex is **far less intelligent** than the other kids in the class.*

*We've been **busier than ever** at work this last month or so.*

We can soften a comparative adjective using *a little* or *a bit*. *A bit* is less formal:

*She feels **a little more confident** now that she's given her first public performance.*
or *She feels **a bit more confident** ... (less formal)*

Comparative adjectives: using *than*

77d

We use *than* when we mention the second person or thing in the comparison. If the second person mentioned takes the form of a personal pronoun, we normally use the object form of the pronoun (*me, you, him, her, us, them*):

*Could you carry this? You're stronger **than me**.*

Not: ~~You're stronger than I.~~

*Why did you choose Robert? Marie is more experienced **than him**.*

In more formal situations, instead of *than* + object pronoun, we can use *than* + subject pronoun + *be*:

*You managed to answer the ten questions correctly? Well, you're definitely cleverer **than I am**!*

*I preferred Henrietta to Dennis. She was always more sociable **than** he was.*

Comparative adjectives: -er and -er, more and more 77e

To talk about how a person or thing is changing and gaining more of a particular quality, we can use two -er form adjectives connected by *and*, or we can use *more and more* before an adjective. We don't follow such comparisons with *than*:

*The weather is getting **hotter and hotter**.*

*I'm getting **more and more interested** in conservation these days.*

Comparative adjectives: the -er, the -er and the more ..., the more ... 77f

If a person or things gains more of a particular quality and this causes a parallel increase of another quality, we can repeat *the* + a comparative adjective:

***The colder** it is, **the hungrier** I get.* (as the weather gets colder, I get hungrier)

***The more generous** you are towards others, **the more generous** they are likely to be towards you.*

Reduced forms after comparatives 77g

After *than*, we often don't repeat subject pronouns with impersonal subjects, or auxiliary verbs with passive voice verbs:

*The exam results were **better than predicted**.* (preferred to ... *better than people predicted*.)

*Temperatures that summer were **higher than previously recorded**.* (preferred to ... *than were previously recorded*.)

Less and not as/not so with comparatives 77h

We use *less* with longer adjectives (*interesting, beautiful, complicated*), but we don't normally use *less* with short adjectives of one syllable (*big, good, high, small*). Instead we use *not as ... as ...*, or *not so ... as ...*. *Not as* is more common than *not so*:

*The second method was **less complicated than** the first one.*

*This new laptop is **not as fast as** my old one. I'm sorry I bought it now.* (preferred to *is less fast than my old one*.)

Prepositions after superlative adjectives 77i

We don't normally use *of* before a singular name of a place or group after a superlative adjective:

*The castle is **the oldest** building in the city.*

Not: *The castle is the oldest building of the city ...*

*She's **the youngest** musician in the orchestra.*

However, we can use *of* with a plural word referring to a group:

*All the sisters are pretty, but Sarah's **the prettiest** of them all.*

The with superlative adjectives 77j

When a superlative adjective is followed by a noun, we normally use *the*:

This is **the best meal** I've had for a long time.

Not: This is best meal ...

In informal situations, we can often omit *the* after a linking verb (*be, seem*) or a verb of the senses (*look, taste*) if there is no noun:

[talking about sweaters in a shop]

They've got them in red, green or grey. Which looks **best**?

If you want to get a message to Peter, email is **quickest**. He never answers the phone.

Other determiners with superlative adjectives

77k

Before a superlative adjective, we can use a possessive determiner (*my, his, their*), or *the* + a number (*two, three, first, second*), or a possessive determiner + a number:

My worst score ever in an exam was zero. I just couldn't answer any of the questions.

Birmingham is **the second biggest** city in England.

His two best friends organised a surprise party for him on his fortieth birthday.

Emphasising superlative adjectives

77l

We can make a superlative adjective stronger with *by far, easily* or *of all*:

The Beatles were **by far the most successful** rock band of the 1960s.

This method is **by far the least complicated**.

She's **easily the best** dancer in the group. No one is as elegant as her.

There were a number of excellent poems entered for the competition, but **the best poem of all** was written by a ten-year-old boy.

In more formal situations, we can use *quite*:

This is **quite the most irresponsible** behaviour I have ever seen.

To-infinitives after superlative adjectives

77m

We can use a *to*-infinitive after a superlative adjective, with a meaning similar to a relative clause with *who, which* or *that*:

Who was **the oldest person to compete** in the London Marathon of 2008? (Who was the oldest person who competed ...?)

The Golden Swan was **the largest** sailing-ship ever **to be used** in battle.

→Relative clauses 307

Comparative adjectives: typical errors

77n

- A comparative adjective is followed by *than*, not *that* or *as*:

The next hotel we tried was **more expensive than** the first one.

Not: ... more expensive ~~that~~ the first one ... or ... more expensive ~~as~~ the first one ...

- After a superlative adjective, we don't normally use *of* before a singular name of a place or group:

She was **the tallest** girl in the team.

Not: She was ~~the tallest girl of~~ the team.

- We use the superlative, not the comparative, when we compare more than two people or things:

*Which is the city's **biggest** hotel?*

Not: ... bigger hotel

Comparison: adverbs (*worse, more easily*)

78

Adverbs: comparative and superlative forms

78a

Adverbs do not normally change in form, but a few have comparative and superlative forms. These are usually short adverbs and so they normally have comparative and superlative forms with *-er* and *-est*.

Some of the most common comparative and superlative adverbs are:

<i>soon</i>	<i>sooner</i>	<i>soonest</i>	<i>fast</i>	<i>faster</i>	<i>fastest</i>
<i>hard</i>	<i>harder</i>	<i>hardest</i>	<i>near</i>	<i>nearer</i>	<i>nearest</i>
<i>early</i>	<i>earlier</i>	<i>earliest</i>	<i>far</i>	<i>farther/further</i>	<i>farthest/furthest</i>
<i>late</i>	<i>later</i>	<i>latest</i>			

*Teachers always say that students must work **harder**.*

*The kids were playing in the garden, seeing who could jump **highest**.*

- ! We don't use *more* or *most* together with an *-er* or *-est* ending:

*Children learn things **faster** than adults.*

Not: ... ~~more faster than~~ adults.

*Who ran **slowest** in the race?*

Not: ~~Who ran most slowest~~

Adverbs with *more* and *most*

78b

Adverbs with two or more syllables form the comparative and superlative with *more* and *most*:

*We need to treat the environment **more carefully**.*

*It was **the most beautifully** designed chair.*

Comparative adverbs: using *than*

78c

When we mention the second person or thing in the comparison, we use *than*. We do not use *that* or *as*. If the second person mentioned takes the form of a personal pronoun, we normally use the object form of the pronoun (*me, you, him, her, us, them*):

*I can't keep up with him – he runs much faster **than me**.*

Not: ~~faster than me~~ or ~~faster as me~~

In more formal situations, instead of *than* + object pronoun, we can use *than* + subject pronoun + *be, do* or a modal verb:

*My wife drives more carefully **than I do**.*

*She can read music much more quickly **than I can**.*

Well and badly**78d**

The adverb *well* has the same comparative and superlative forms as the adjective *good* (*better, best*). The adverb *badly* has the comparative and superlative forms *worse, worst*:

[talking about playing tennis]

*I played **better** yesterday but I need to improve my serve.*

*A lot of people behaved badly at the party, but she behaved **worst** of all.*

Comparison: nouns (*more money, the most points*) 79**More, less and fewer**

We can use *more, less* and *fewer* with noun phrases to create comparisons which are similar to the comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs:

*There was **more snow** this year than last year.*

*She has **more problems** than most people.*

*You should eat **less junk food** and start to take better care of your health.*

*There are **fewer birds** in the countryside now than there were 30 years ago.*

Traditionally, we use *less* with uncountable nouns and *fewer* with plural countable nouns. Nowadays, many people use *less* with plural countable nouns. Some people consider this to be incorrect, and prefer to use *fewer*:

*I think the room would look better with **less furniture**. (less + singular uncountable noun)*

*There were **fewer cars** on the roads twenty years ago. (fewer + plural countable noun; traditional correct form)*

***Less kids** take music lessons now than before. (less + plural countable noun; considered incorrect by some people)*

! We use *more* + noun phrase, not *much* + noun phrase, to make a comparison:

*Footballers earn **more money** than other sportsmen.*

Not: ... ~~much money than other sportsmen~~

More and more, less and less, fewer and fewer

We can use *more and more, less and less* and *fewer and fewer* in noun phrases to refer to things which increase or decrease over time:

*There are **more and more** low-quality reality shows on TV.*

*I seem to have **less and less** time to myself these days.*

*She visited her family on **fewer and fewer** occasions, till soon she stopped seeing them altogether.*

Most, least and fewest

We can use *most, least* and *fewest* with noun phrases to create comparisons which are similar to the superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs. It is more common to use *the* before *most, least* and *fewest*, but we can also leave it out:

*The points are added up, and the team with **the most points** wins.*

*Who got **most votes** in the election?*

*The room that has **the least furniture** would be best for dancing.*

*The class with **the fewest students** was always Miss Murray's philosophy seminar.*

Traditionally, we use *least* with singular uncountable nouns and *fewest* with plural countable nouns. Nowadays, many people use *least* with plural countable nouns. Some people consider this to be incorrect, and prefer to use *fewest*:

*Which horse eats **the least food**? That's the one I'll buy! (least + singular uncountable noun)*

*Of all the models we tested, the B226X had **the fewest faults**. (fewest + plural countable noun; traditional correct form)*

*Of the three cities, I'd say Limerick gets **the least tourists**. (least + plural countable noun; considered incorrect by some people)*

→Comparison: adjectives 77; Comparison: adverbs 78

Comparison: clauses (*bigger than we had imagined*)

80

The second part of a comparison (underlined) is often a clause:

*The price was **higher** than we had expected.*

*That restaurant is **not as good** as it used to be.*

*It was **the best** nature documentary I've ever seen.*

Than-clauses

We can use *than* to introduce a clause after a comparative adjective, adverb or noun phrase. The clause (underlined) is usually a reduced clause (a clause with ellipsis) or one with a substitute verb *do*:

*The house was **bigger** than we had imagined. (... bigger than we had imagined it was)*

*The journey took **longer** than expected. (... longer than people expected it to take)*

*He finished the second part **more quickly** than he did the first part. (... more quickly than he finished the first part.)*

*He always spent **more money** than George did. (... more money than George spent.)*

! We use *than*, not *that* or *as*, to introduce a clause after a comparative adjective or adverb:

*We finished the job quicker **than** we had expected.*

Not: ... quicker *that* we had expected. or ... quicker *as* we had expected.

→Ellipsis 116; Substitution 336

That-clauses

We can use a *that*-clause after a superlative:

*Until 2005, the film had made the most money **that any British film had ever made**.*

In informal situations, we can omit *that*:

*It was the biggest fire **(that) anyone had ever seen**.*

*It was the least expensive restaurant **(that) we ate at**, but the food was excellent.*

→ Comparative and superlative adjectives 77a; Adverbs: comparative and superlative forms 78a

Comparison: comparisons of equality (*as tall as his father*)

81

As ... as ...

If two things are equal in some way, we can use a comparison with *as ... as ...*. The comparisons may involve adjectives (adj) or adverbs (adv) after the first *as*, and noun phrases (NP) or clauses after the second *as*:

*He's grown so much. He's **as tall as his father now**.* (adj + noun phrase)

*The team is still **as good as it was five years ago**.* (adj + clause)

*The second game didn't go **as well as the first one**.* (adv + noun phrase)

*The company is not performing **as successfully as it did when Arthur Carling was the President**.* (adv + clause)

When the second part of the comparison is a clause, the clause is often a reduced clause (a clause with ellipsis) or one with a substitute verb *do* or a modal verb:

*If the sales figures are **as bad as predicted**, the company will probably go bankrupt.*
(... as bad as economists have predicted ...)

*I worked as hard **as I had ever done in my life** for my final exam.* (... as hard as I had ever worked in my life ...)

*We tried as hard **as we could**.*

→ Ellipsis 116; Substitution 336

Noun phrases

If we use *as ... as ...* with a noun phrase, we must use *much* or *little* + uncountable noun or *many* or *few* + plural noun:

*She had **as much work** as she needed and did not want to take on any more.*

*There are **as many students** in Class 2A as there are in 2B.*

*He spent **as little money** as he could.*

Negative forms

We can form the negative of *as ... as ...* with *not as ... as ...*, or with *not so ... as ...*. The form *not as ... as ...* is more common:

*He didn't run **as fast as** he did in the European Championship.*

*He didn't pay **as much tax** this year **as** last year because he earned less.*

*She's **not so shy as** she used to be. (less common)*

*I don't read **so many novels** now **as** I used to. (less common)*

Complements

82

Complements are one of the five major elements of clause structure. The other four are subject, verb, object and adjunct (complements are in bold):

*Both the brothers became **doctors**.*

A: *Have you seen my umbrella?*

B: *It's **downstairs**, by the back door.*

*Playing the guitar always makes me **happy**.*

Subject and object complements

82a

In clauses with linking verbs (*be*, *seem*, *become*), complements which follow the verb and which add information about the subject are called subject complements:

*Sheila is **a nurse**. (adding information about Sheila)*

*All of them seemed **surprised**.*

Complements which add more information about an object are called object complements:

*He makes **me very angry**. (adding information about me)*

→ Subject complements 335; Linking verbs 364b

Complements and adjuncts

82b

Complements and adjuncts are different. A complement is necessary in order to complete the meaning. An adjunct is not necessary, and adds extra information.

↔ Compare

<i>He put the cake in the oven.</i> Not: He put the cake.	<i>put</i> must have a complement to say <u>where</u> something is put. Without the complement, the clause would not be complete.
<i>We usually go away in the spring.</i>	<i>in the spring</i> is an adjunct. It is not essential to complete the verb 'go away'; it adds extra information.

→ Noun phrases: postmodifiers 235d; Noun phrases 234; Adjective phrases 11; Prepositional phrases 276

Compounds

83

Compound words

83a

A compound word is two or more words linked together to produce a word with a new meaning:

tooth + brush = toothbrush *eco + friendly = eco-friendly* *animal + lover = animal lover*

We make compounds in all word classes:

nouns: *car park, soap opera*

pronouns: *anyone, everything, nobody*

adjectives: *environmentally-friendly, fat-free*

numerals: *twenty-seven, three-quarters*

verbs: *daydream, dry-clean*

prepositions: *into, onto*

adverbs: *nevertheless, nowadays*

conjunctions: *although, however*

→ Hyphens 167

Compound nouns

We usually make compound nouns with a noun + noun, with a verb (or a word made from a verb) + noun, or with an adjective + noun:

noun + noun: *earphones*

verb -ing form + noun: *parking ticket*

verb base form + noun: *rescue team*

adjective + noun: *blackboard*

The usual spoken stress pattern is with stress on the first item (*earphones*, *blackboard*).

In a compound noun, we can combine different elements. These include:

subject + verb: *earache* (an ear that aches), *rainfall* (rain that falls)

verb + subject: *cleaning products* (products that clean)

verb + object: *know-all* (person who thinks they know everything)

object + verb: *shoe-polish* (polishes shoes), *dishwasher* (washes dishes)

→ Hyphens 167; Noun phrases: order 236

Compound adjectives

Compound adjectives most commonly end in an adjective (e.g. *homesick*), or in an -ing or -ed adjective form (e.g. *ground-breaking*, *short-sighted*).

Compound verbs

Compound verbs are far less common than compound nouns or adjectives. They can be made by making a verb from another word class, normally from an already existing compound noun (e.g. *a daydream – to daydream*).

Writing compound words

Sometimes compound words are written separately (*nail polish*), sometimes with a hyphen (*short-sighted*) and sometimes as one word (*eyelashes*). Often new compounds are written as two separate words and, as they become more familiar, they are either connected with a hyphen (-) or made into one word.

There are some general rules and guidelines for when to use hyphens:

- when there is a prefix (e.g. **post-war**, **pre-lunch**, **self-interest**, **semi-skilled**)
- when a compound adjective comes before a head noun (e.g. **a well-known singer**, **an angry-sounding email**)
- when the pre-head item in a compound is a single capital letter (e.g. **U-turn**, **X-ray**, **D-day**)
- when words are difficult to recognise as compounds and could be confused

The band has decided to **re-form**. (form again)

The Government promise to **reform** the health system. (improve)

- when compound adjectives containing numbers appear before a noun

A twenty-two-year-old cyclist won the race.

From here to Tokyo, that's a twelve-hour flight at least.

If you're not sure about whether to use a hyphen, a good dictionary will tell you.

→ Hyphens 167; Punctuation 293

Compound sentences

83b

A compound sentence has two or more main clauses linked by coordinating conjunctions, such as *and*, *but*:

[main clause 1] [main clause 2]
She did a nursing degree and she did really well,
 [main clause 3]
but she's decided to study medicine now.

→ Clauses: coordinated 68c

Conditionals

84

Conditionals: imagined situations

84a

Conditional sentences consider imagined or uncertain situations and the possible results of these situations. The most common types of conditional sentences involve *if*:

[imagined situation] [result]
If I get the job in Milan, I'll be pretty happy.
 [outcome] [imagined situation]
*We'll have the party in the garden **as long as** it doesn't rain. (or ... if it doesn't rain. or ... on condition that it doesn't rain.)*

→Conditionals: *if* 85; Conditionals: other expressions 86; *If* 168

Conditional sentences

84b

Conditional sentences consist of a conditional clause and a main clause:

[conditional clause] [main clause]
If a lot of people come, we'll have to get extra chairs.
 [conditional clause] [main clause]
Unless you book weeks in advance, you won't get a free room.

The verb in the conditional clause reflects the speaker's point of view on whether the imagined situation is likely or impossible:

*If you **win** the next match, **will** you be in the semi-final?* (present simple + *will* indicates the speaker thinks winning the match is possible or likely)

*If I **won** a million pounds, I **would give** this job up tomorrow!* (past simple + *would* indicates the speaker thinks winning a million pounds is not likely to happen)

*If we **had won** the competition, we **would have had** a free trip to Moscow.* (past perfect + *would have* refers to an impossible condition – the event did not happen)

Order of clauses

84c

Conditional clauses usually come before main clauses but they may also come after them:

*If you **see Dora**, will you give her a message?* (conditional clause first; a comma is normally used in writing)

*I'll go to Bristol tomorrow **if the weather is good**.* (conditional clause second; a comma is not normally used in writing)

Verb forms in the conditional clause

84d

The verb in the conditional clause may be in the simple form or the continuous form, depending on the meaning:

*If you **owe** money, you **must pay** it back immediately.* (simple)

*If you're **feeling** hungry, we **can go and get** something to eat.* (continuous)

*If he **had** time, he **always called** in to see us.* (simple)

*If they **were working**, we **always tried** not to disturb them.* (continuous)

Conditionals: *if*

85

Imagined conditions

85a

There are different types of conditions. Some are possible or likely, others are unlikely, and others are impossible:

*If the weather **improves**, we'll go for a walk.* (It is possible or likely that the weather will improve.)

*If the weather **improved**, we **could go** for a walk.* (It is not likely that the weather will improve.)

*If the weather **had improved**, we **could have gone** for a walk.* (The weather did not improve – fine weather is therefore an impossible condition.)

These types of conditions are used in three types of sentences, called first, second and third conditional sentences.

Imagined conditions: the first conditional

85b

We use the first conditional to talk about the result of an imagined future situation, when we believe the imagined situation is quite likely:

[imagined future situation] [future result]

If the taxi doesn't come soon, I'll drive you myself.

First conditional: form

conditional clause	main clause
<i>if</i> + present simple	modal verb with future meaning (<i>shall/should/will/would/can/could/may/might</i>)
<i>If he gets a job in Liverpool,</i>	<i>he'll have to get up early. It's a long drive.</i>
<i>If Sheila rings,</i>	<i>I might ask her to come over for dinner.</i>



We use the modal verb in the main clause, not in the conditional clause.

If a lawyer reads the document, we will see if we've missed anything important.

Not: *If a lawyer will read the document ...*

Imagined conditions: the second conditional

85c

We use the second conditional to talk about the possible result of an imagined situation in the present or future. We say what the conditions must be for the present or future situation to be different.

If people complained, things would change. (People don't complain at the moment.)

Second conditional: form

conditional clause	main clause
<i>if</i> + past simple	modal verb with future-in-the-past meaning (<i>should/would/might/could</i>)
<i>If you asked her nicely,</i>	<i>she would say yes, I'm sure.</i>

We use a past form in the conditional clause to indicate a distance from reality, rather than indicating past time. We often use past forms in this way in English.



We use *would* in the main clause, not in the conditional clause:

If you decided to take the exam, you would have to register by 31 March.

Not: *If you would decide to take the exam ...*

→ Politeness 271

First and second conditional compared**85d**

When we use the first conditional, we think the imagined situation is more likely to happen than when we use the second conditional.

↔ Compare

first conditional	second conditional
<i>If the flight's late, we'll miss our connection.</i> (it's possible or likely that the flight will be late)	<i>If there were more buses, we would leave the car at home.</i> (it is unlikely that there will be more buses)
<i>I'll come and give a hand if you need help moving your stuff.</i> (it is possible or likely that you will need help)	<i>He would buy a flat if he had the money for a deposit.</i> (it is unlikely that he will have the money)

Imagined conditions: the third conditional**85e**

We use the third conditional when we imagine a different past, where something did or did not happen, and we imagine a different result:

*If I **had played** better, I **would have won**.* (I didn't play well and I didn't win.)

*It **would have been** easier if George **had brought** his own car.* (George didn't bring his own car, so the situation was difficult.)

*If the dog **hadn't barked**, we **wouldn't have known** there was someone in the garden.* (The dog barked, so we knew there was someone in the garden.)

Third conditional: form

conditional clause	main clause
<i>if + past perfect</i>	modal verb with future-in-the-past meaning (<i>should/would/might/could</i>) + <i>have + -ed</i> form
<i>If they had left earlier,</i>	<i>they would have arrived on time.</i>

! We use *would have + -ed* in the main clause, not in the conditional clause:

*If he **had stayed** in the same room as Dave, it **would have been** a disaster.*

Not: *If he would have stayed ... it would have been a disaster.*

People do sometimes use the form with *would have* in informal speaking, but many speakers consider it incorrect.

Real conditionals**85f**

Some conditions seem more real to us than others. Real conditionals refer to things that are true, that have happened, or are very likely to happen:

If you park here, they clamp your wheels. (It is always true that they clamp your wheels if, or every time, you park here.)

If I can't sleep, I listen to the radio. (it is often true that I can't sleep, so I listen to the radio)

In real conditional sentences, we can use the present simple or present continuous in both clauses for present situations, and the past simple or past continuous in both clauses for past situations. We can use these in various different combinations.

Present simple + present simple

*If the weather **is** fine, we **eat** outside on the terrace.* (Every time this happens, this is what we do.)

Present continuous + present simple

*If the kids **are enjoying** themselves, we just **let** them go on playing till they're ready for bed.* (Every time this happens, this is what we do.)

Present continuous + present continuous

*If the economy **is growing** by 6%, then **it is growing** too fast.* (If it is true that the economy is growing by 6%, then it is true that it is growing too fast.)

Past simple + past simple

*If my father **had** a day off, we always **went** to see my granddad.* (Every time that happened in the past, that is what we did.)

Past simple + past continuous

*Kevin always **came** in to say hello if he **was going** past our house.* (Every time he was going past our house, that is what he did.)

We can also use modal verbs in the main clause:

*If we go out, we **can** usually **get** a baby sitter.* (Every time we go out, it is usually possible to get a babysitter.)

*If we wanted someone to fix something, we **would ask** our neighbour. He was always ready to help.* (Every time we wanted someone, we would ask our neighbour.)

→Substitution 336

Types of conditional: summary 85g

The table shows how the main types of conditionals relate to one another.

less likely/ true —————> likely/possible —————> less possible —————> impossible			
real	first	second	third
<i>If it snows, we get our skis out.</i> (We do this every time it snows.)	<i>If she gets the job, we'll celebrate.</i> (It is possible or likely she will get the job.)	<i>If we had more students, we would run the course.</i> (It is less likely or unlikely that we will get more students.)	<i>If the rent had been lower, I would have taken the flat.</i> (The rent was not low enough.)

If + should**85h**

We can use *if* with *should* to refer to events which might happen by chance or by accident:

*If you **should** bump into Carol, can you tell her I'm looking for her?* (If by chance you bump into Carol.)

*If the government **should** ever find itself in this situation again, it is to be hoped it would act more quickly.*

Conditional clauses with will or would**85i**

Will and *would* can be used in conditional clauses, either with the meaning of 'being willing to do something', or to refer to later results:

*If Clare **will** meet us at the airport, it will save us a lot of time.* (if Clare is willing to meet us)

*If you **would** all stop shouting, I will try and explain the situation!*

*If it **will** make you happy, I'll stay at home tonight.* (If it is true that you will be happy as a result, I'll stay at home tonight.)

We sometimes stress the *will* or *would*, especially if we doubt that the result will be the one mentioned:

*If it really **would** save the planet, I'd stop using my car tomorrow.* (If it really is true that the planet would be saved as a result, I would stop using my car, but I doubt it is true.)

→ Conditionals in speaking 85k**Mixed conditionals****85j**

Often, things that did or did not happen in the past have results which continue or are still important in the present. We can emphasise this by using *if* with a past perfect verb, and *would* in the main clause.

*If I **hadn't met** Charles, I **wouldn't be** here now.* (I met Charles so I'm here now.)

*She **wouldn't still be working** for us if we **hadn't given** her a pay-rise.* (We gave her a pay-rise so she is still working for us now.)

Conditionals in speaking**85k**

 In speaking, we often use *if*-clauses without main clauses, especially when asking people politely to do things. *If* is usually followed by *will*, *would*, *can* or *could* when it is used to be polite:

[Shop assistant to customer]

*If you **would** just sign here, please.* (a more polite way of saying *Just sign here, please.*)

[A is writing something for B and having difficulty]

A: *If I **could have** a better pen ...*

B: *Here, use this one.*

A: *Thanks.*

→ If 168; Politeness 271

Conditionals: other expressions (*unless, should, as long as*)

86

Unless

86a

Conditional clauses can begin with *unless*. *Unless* means something similar to 'if ... not' or 'except if'.

The verb forms in the examples are similar to sentences with *if*: we use the present simple in the *unless*-clause and *shall, should, will, would, can, could, may* or *might* in the main clause:

Unless I phone you, you can assume the train's on time. (If I do not phone you /except if I phone you, you can assume the train is on time.)

We'll have to cancel the show unless we sell more tickets at the last minute. (We'll have to cancel the show if we do not sell more tickets/except if we sell more tickets at the last minute.)

! We don't use *unless* for impossible conditions:

If the government had not raised food prices, there would not have been so many protests.

Not: ~~Unless the government had raised food prices ...~~

! We don't use *unless* and *if* together:

We'll go to the coast tomorrow unless it rains.

Not: ~~We'll go to the coast tomorrow unless if it rains.~~

→ *Unless* 354; *If so, if not* 168c

Should you (Should with inversion)

86b

In formal situations, we can use *should* + subject (s) + verb (v) instead of *if*.

Should you wish to cancel your order, please contact our customer service department on 02317 6658932. (or *If you should wish to cancel your order ...*)

Should your child become anxious or nervous about any activity, it is a good idea to inform the team-leader. (or *If your child should become ...*)

Had you (Had with inversion)

86c

In formal situations, we can use *had* + subject + verb instead of *if* in third conditional sentences:

Had I known you were waiting outside, I would have invited you to come in. (If I had known you were waiting outside ...)

Had Margaret realised she would be travelling alone, she would never have agreed to go.

If + were to**86d**

In formal situations, we can use *if + were to* when we talk about things that might happen but which we think are unlikely:

*If the Prime Minister **were to** resign, there would have to be a general election within 30 days.*

In even more formal styles, we use *were + subject-verb inversion + to-infinitive*:

[V] [s] [to-INF]

***Were we to give up** the fight now, it would mean the end of democracy in our country. (If we gave up the fight now ...)*

[V] [s] [to-INF]

***Were the economy to slow down** too quickly, there would be major problems. (If the economy slowed down too quickly ...)*

As long as, so long as, providing, etc.**86e**

Sometimes we need to impose specific conditions or set limits on a situation. In these cases, conditional clauses can begin with phrases such as *as long as, so long as, only if, on condition that, providing (that), provided (that)*.

As long as is more common in speaking; *so long as* and *on condition that* are more formal and more common in writing:

[to a group of children]

*You can play in the living room **as long as** you don't make a mess.*

***So long as** a tiger stands still, it is invisible in the jungle.*

*The bank lent the company 100,000 pounds **on condition that** they repaid the money within six months.*

Providing (that) is more common in speaking; *provided (that)* is more formal and more common in written language:

[talking about rail travel in the UK]

*You can get a senior citizen's reduction **providing** you've got a railcard.*

*They may do whatever they like **provided that** it is within the law.*

→ *As long as* and *so long as* 42

Or and otherwise**86f**

We often use *or* and *otherwise* with conditional meanings:

*You've got to start studying, **or** you'll fail all those exams. (If you don't start studying, you will fail the exams.)*

[talking about sending a package by mail]

*We'd better send it express, **otherwise** it'll take days. (If we do not send it express, it will take days.)*

Supposing**86g**

Supposing may be used with a conditional meaning. It can be used in first, second or third conditional sentences. The speaker invites the listener to imagine a situation:

Supposing *I don't arrive till after midnight, will the guest-house still be open?*
(Imagine if I don't arrive till after midnight ...)

Supposing *you lost your passport, you'd have to go to the embassy, wouldn't you?*

Supposing *he hadn't recognised us – he might never have spoken to us.*

→ In case (of) ❶; Wish 385; If only 170; Suppose, supposing and what if 342

Conditionals: typical errors

87

- We don't use *will* and *would* in the conditional clause:

*If you **book** before April 30th, you will receive a 20% discount.*

Not: *If you will book before April 30th, you will receive a 20% discount.*

*If we **had** a bigger flat, we could invite friends to come and stay.*

Not: *If we would have a bigger flat, we could invite friends to come and stay.*

*If the weather **hadn't been** so bad, I could have gone to meet them.*

Not: *If the weather would not have been so bad, I could have gone to meet them.*

- We don't use *shall* or *will* in the main clause in second conditional sentences:

*If you worked harder, you **would** earn more money.*

Not: ... *you will earn more money.*

- We don't use *unless* and *if* together:

*I'll try to get there about 6.30 **unless** you want me to arrive earlier.*

Not: *I'll try to get there about 6.30 unless if you want me to arrive earlier.*

Conjunctions

88

Conjunctions are linking words like *and*, *or*, *but*, *then* and *because*:

*They knocked down all the houses **and** they built a car park.*

*Are there four **or** five people living in that house?*

*My shoes look great **but** are not very comfortable.*

And, but, either ... or, etc. (coordinating conjunctions)

88a

Coordinating conjunctions connect items which are the same grammatical type, e.g. words, phrases, clauses. The most common coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *or*, *but*.

One-word conjunctions

Connecting words

[word] [word]

*Which do you prefer? Red **or** blue?*

Connecting phrases

[phrase] [phrase]

*The meal was very expensive **and** not very nice.*

Connecting clauses

[clause] [clause]

*There are seats outside **but** some people don't like sitting outdoors.*

Conjunctions that can be modified by adverbs

Some subordinating conjunctions may be modified by adverbs (underlined). For example *just when*, *ever since*, *only if*, *just as*, *simply because*, *right before*:

*The phone rang just **when** I'd gone to bed.*

*I have been afraid to swim in the sea **ever since** I was young.*

Position of subordinating conjunctions

88c

Words and phrases such as *above all*, *anyway*, *as a result*, *as well*, *eventually*, *firstly*, *however*, *overall*, *rather*, *then*, *therefore*, *though*, *on the contrary* (linking adjuncts) can create similar meanings to conjunctions (e.g. adding, cause and effect). These words are adverb phrases and can come in any position which an adverb can occupy:

He left home late. (As a result) he (as a result) didn't arrive until 8 pm (as a result).

We cannot do this with subordinating conjunctions, which must come at the beginning of the clause. Subordinating conjunctions create a grammatical connection between two clauses, making one dependent on the other.

↔ Compare

Subordinating conjunction <i>so</i>: <i>He couldn't get money from the bank so he couldn't buy a house.</i>	These two sentences mean the same thing but they are connected differently: • <i>So</i> makes a subordinating link between the cause/reason (<i>He couldn't get money from the bank</i>) and the result (<i>he couldn't buy a house</i>). This is a grammatical link. The position of <i>so</i> cannot change.
Linking adjunct <i>as a result</i>: <i>He couldn't get money from the bank. As a result he couldn't buy a house.</i>	• <i>As a result</i> creates a link between two clauses based on meaning. We can move <i>as a result</i> (<i>He couldn't get money from the bank. He couldn't buy a house as a result.</i>)

→ Clauses and sentences 70; Conditionals 84

Conjunctions: adding

89

Adding with *and*

89a

One of the main uses of conjunctions is to add phrases and clauses together. The most common conjunction for adding is *and*:

Adding words

[word] [word]
*I love pictures of puppies **and** kittens.*

Adding phrases

[phrase] [phrase]
*It was not a very nice walk because of the wind **and** the rain.*

Adding clauses

clause] [clause]
*Some of the rooms have one big bed **and** some of them have two smaller beds.*

Adding sentences

[sentence] [sentence]
*They worked together for more than twenty years. **And** made a lot of money, too.*

In formal writing we don't normally start a sentence with *and*.

Adding prefixes

[prefix] [prefix]
*Tell me how much it will cost pre- **and** post-tax.*

! When *and* is used in a list, it is normally only used between the last two items in the list:

*We had pasta, roasted peppers **and** salad.*

Not: ~~We had pasta, and roasted peppers, and salad.~~

In British English, a comma is optional before *and* in lists. In American English, we usually do put a comma before *and*:

I need envelopes, paper clips, pens and printer ink. (BrE)

I need envelopes, paper clips, pens, and printer ink. (AmE)

→ **And 33; Punctuation 293; British and American English 62**

Adding with *and ... too*

89b

! In speaking, we can also use *and ... too* to connect words, phrases and clauses. *Too* focuses on the addition:

*We bought lots of ice cream for the party, **and** sweets **too**.*

*We went to the circus, **and** Hilda came **too**.*

→ **And 33; Conjunctions 88; Too 352**

Adding with *as well as* and *in addition to*

89c

As well as is more common than *in addition to*. *In addition to* is more formal and used more in writing than in speaking:

***As well as** offering a 15% discount on the furniture, Smith's Furniture delivered it free to our house.*

***In addition to** cutting jobs, the company has announced that its profits are down for this year.*

! When they are followed by clauses *as well as* or *in addition to* can only be followed by a verb in the *-ing* form (non-finite clauses):

*You become less selfish **as well as learning** how to interact with other people.*

Not: ~~You become less selfish as well as you learn how to interact. ...~~

*If we worked in this shop, I think we would get good work experience **in addition to practising** our English.*

***In addition to doing** an exam, applicants also had to do an interview.*

Not: ~~In addition to they did an exam ...~~

Conjunctions: causes, reasons, results and purpose

90

Conjunctions describing causes, reasons, results and purpose are subordinating conjunctions.

Conjunctions: causes, reasons and results

90a

The following conjunctions are commonly used to connect causes/reasons and results. *Because, as* and *since* are very similar in meaning.

conjunction	cause/reason	result
<i>Because</i> <i>Since</i> <i>As</i>	<i>our local shop has closed,</i>	<i>I have to go a supermarket two miles away to get my groceries.</i>

Or

result	conjunction	cause/reason
<i>I don't buy the paper every morning any more</i>	<i>because</i> <i>since</i> <i>as</i> <i>now (that)</i>	<i>our local shop has closed.</i>

→ *As, because or since?* 45

Or

cause/reason	conjunction	result
<i>Our local shop has closed</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>I don't buy the paper every morning any more.</i>

! When we use a *so*-clause to connect a cause or reason to a result, the *so*-clause must come second:

*I'm on a diet **so** I have stopped eating chocolate.*

Conjunctions: purpose

90b

We use the following conjunctions to talk about purposes or goals. *So* and *so that* are more common than *so as* and *in order that*. *So as* is rather informal. *In order that* is more formal than the others.

action	conjunction	purpose/goal
<i>I asked him to move</i>	<i>so</i> <i>so that</i> <i>so as</i> <i>in order that</i> (formal)	<i>I could see the screen better.</i>

We don't usually put the subordinating clause first. When we do, it is more formal.

conjunction	purpose/goal	action
<i>So</i> <i>So that</i> <i>In order that</i>	<i>I could see the screen better,</i>	<i>I asked him to move.</i>

→ Beside or besides ○; Conjunctions 88; Discourse markers 104; So that or in order that? ○

Conjunctions: contrasting

91

The conjunctions *but* and *although/though* connect ideas that contrast. *Whereas* is also used but it is not as common:

*The new city hall is amazing **but** it's going to cost a lot.*

*He's quite short, **whereas** his sister is tall.*

But

91a

But is a coordinating conjunction used to connect ideas that contrast. Coordinating conjunctions connect items which are the same grammatical type.

main idea		contrast
<i>The meal was good</i> <i>I want to lose weight</i> <i>Lara cooked roast beef for me</i> <i>Edinburgh is an interesting place</i>	<i>but</i>	<i>expensive.</i> <i>I hate diets.</i> <i>I don't eat meat.</i> <i>it takes a long time to get there.</i>

! We can't use *however* as a conjunction instead of *but* to connect words and phrases:

*My teacher is very nice **but** a bit strict.*

Not: *My teacher is very nice however a bit strict.*

→ But 63

Although/though

91b

Although/though can be used to contrast ideas. *Although/though* are subordinating conjunctions used to connect a subordinate clause to a main clause, like *after*, *as*, *before*, *if*, *since*, *that*, *even though*, *even if*.

main idea		contrast
Grace is an excellent athlete	although though	she injured her leg recently.
Harry is a great friend		we don't see each other often.

The *although/though* clause can come first.

	contrast	main idea
Although Though	the car was destroyed,	no one was injured in the crash.
	people say it's dangerous,	I think it's an amazing country.

→ **Conjunctions 88; Position of subordinating conjunctions 88c; Although or though? 32; Conjunctions: typical errors 91c**

But or although?

91c

But cannot be used in the same way as *although/though*. We use *but* to connect items which are the same grammatical type (coordinating conjunction).

! The order of clauses connected by coordinating conjunctions cannot be reversed:

Although it rained a lot, we've still enjoyed our holiday.

We've still enjoyed our holiday, **although** it rained a lot.

It rained a lot **but** we've still enjoyed our holiday.

Not: But it rained a lot, we've still enjoyed our holiday.

Although can sound more formal than *but*. *Though* is much more common in speaking than in writing. *Although* is much more common in writing than in speaking.

Even though, even if

91d

Even though and *even if* are also used as subordinating conjunctions in the same way as *although/though*. *Even though* is similar to *although* but it makes a stronger contrast:

Even though I cycle to work, I don't feel very fit.

Even if means 'whether or not':

Even if you run, you'll still be late. (You'll be late whether you run or not.)

I feel tired **even if** I go to bed early. (I feel tired whether I go to bed early or not.)

→ **Whether 378**

Conjunctions: typical errors

91e

- We use *and* to connect words in a list and to connect phrases and clauses in a sentence:

He loves cycling, hiking **and** ball games.

Not: He loves cycling, hiking, ball games.

→ **And 33; Adding with and 89a**

- After conjunctions referring to time, such as *when*, *once* and *as soon as*, we use the present simple when we refer to the future:

*It will be summer **when we see** you again.*

Not: ... when we will see you again.

*They'll leave **once the lecture finishes**.*

Not: ... ~~once the lecture will finish.~~

***As soon as I hear** any news, I'll call you.*

Not: ~~As soon as I'll hear any news ...~~

- *During* is a preposition, not a conjunction, so it must be followed by a noun or a pronoun:

*She studies **while** she is on the train.*

Not: ~~She studies during she is on the train.~~

→ Conjunctions: time 92

- When we use a *so*-clause to connect a cause/reason to a result, the *so*-clause must come second:

*I bought a new computer game **so** I have no money left.*

Not: ~~So I have no money left I bought a new computer game.~~

→ Conjunctions: causes, reasons and results 90a; *Because* 45a; *Since* 322; *As* 39

- We use *although/though*, not *but*, to connect a subordinate clause to a main clause:

***Although** I'm tall, I'm not as tall as Bill.*

Not: ~~But I'm tall, I'm not as tall as Bill.~~

→ *But* or *although*? 91c

- When *as well as* or *in addition to* are followed by clauses, the verb is in the *-ing* form:

[from a brochure advertising an English course in London]

***As well as living** with a family, you practise your English.*

Not: ~~As well as you live with a family ...~~

***In addition to being** a wonderful seafood restaurant, it had an amazing view.*

Not: ~~In addition to it was a wonderful seafood restaurant ...~~

→ Adding with *as well as* and *in addition to* 89c

- We cannot use *however* to connect words and phrases:

*The area around Cannes has small **but** nice beaches.*

Not: ... has small ~~however~~ nice beaches.

→ Conjunctions: causes, reasons and results 90a; Position of subordinating conjunctions 88c; *When* or *if*? 375e

- We only use one conjunction to connect words or phrases:

***Since** she had the day off work, she went out for lunch with some friends.*

Not: ~~Since she had the day off work, so she went out for lunch ...~~

Conjunctions: time

92

When, after, before, until, since, while, once, as and *as soon as* are subordinating conjunctions which can be used to connect an action or an event to a point in time.

action/event	conjunction	time
<i>She was in a bad car accident</i>	when	<i>she was young.</i>
<i>We can't play loud music</i>	after	<i>everyone has gone to bed.</i>
<i>Brush your teeth</i>	before	<i>you go to bed!</i>
<i>I'll wait with you</i>	until	<i>the bus comes.</i>
<i>I've been very busy</i>	since	<i>I started my new job.</i>
<i>No one left the cinema</i>	while	<i>the movie was on.</i>
<i>I'll call you</i>	once	<i>I arrive.</i>
<i>We always have an ice cream</i>	as soon as	<i>we get to the beach.</i>
<i>I bumped into her</i>	as	<i>I came out of the bank.</i>

Many of these time conjunctions can be followed by *-ing* or *-ed* forms instead of subject + verb.

→ Non-finite clauses 69b

! We don't use *will* after conjunctions referring to future time:

When people **walk** into the room, they will feel something special.

Not: ~~When people will walk into the room ...~~

I will call you **as soon as** I **get** to the office.

Not: ... as soon as I will ~~get~~ to the office.

When, once, as soon as

92a

We can use *when, once, as* and *as soon as* to talk about a specific point in time when something happened or will happen:

When we were in Greece, we went to as many islands as possible.

They always close their curtains **once** they get home in the evening.

As soon as we hear any news, we'll call you.

Before, after and until

92b

We use *before* and *after* to talk about the order of events in the past or future. With *before* and *after*, either the main clause or the subordinate clause can come first:

[event 1] [event 2]

She'll pick you up **before** she comes here.

[event 1] [event 2]

After she comes here, she'll pick you up.

Until as a time conjunction means up to a time in the past or future. In the case of *until*, the main clause usually comes first:

*I'm going to wait **until** the January sales start to buy a new jacket.*

***Until** he mentioned his name was Doug, I thought he was called Damien!* (less common order)

We spell *until* with one l. (Not: ~~untill~~)

While

92c

We use *while* to show that actions or events happen at the same time in the past, present or future:

*Can you wait in the car **while** I run into the shop?*

*They were talking **while** the teacher was explaining the activity.*

! We don't use *during* instead of *while*. *During* is a preposition, not a conjunction, and it must be followed by a noun or a pronoun:

*I like to have the radio on **while** I study.*

Not: ~~I like to have the radio on during I study.~~

→ As 39; Since 322; While and whilst 380; Before 57; Once 246; Until 355; Punctuation 293

Contractions

93

We use contractions (*I'm*, *we're*) in everyday speech and informal writing. Contractions, which are sometimes called 'short forms', commonly combine a pronoun or noun and a verb, or a verb and *not*, in a shorter form. Contractions are usually not appropriate in formal writing.

We make contractions with auxiliary verbs, and also with *be* and *have* when they are not auxiliary verbs. When we make a contraction, we commonly put an apostrophe in place of a missing letter.

The following are the most common contractions.

Contractions with *I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, and *they*

'm = *am* (*I'm*)

're = *are* (*you're*, *we're*, *they're*)

's = *is* and *has* (*he's*, *she's*, *it's*)

've = *have* (*'ve*, *you've*, *we've*, *they've*)

'll = *will* (*I'll*, *you'll*, *he'll*, *she'll*, *it'll*, *we'll*, *they'll*)

'd = *had* and *would* (*I'd*, *you'd*, *he'd*, *she'd*, *it'd*, *we'd*, *they'd*)

Contractions with auxiliary verb and *not*

The contraction for *not* is *n't*:

aren't = *are not* (*we aren't*, *you aren't*)

can't = *cannot*

<i>couldn't</i>	=	<i>could not</i>
<i>didn't</i>	=	<i>did not (I didn't, they didn't)</i>
<i>hasn't</i>	=	<i>has not</i>
<i>haven't</i>	=	<i>have not</i>
<i>isn't</i>	=	<i>is not (she isn't, it isn't)</i>
<i>mustn't</i>	=	<i>must not</i>
<i>shan't</i>	=	<i>shall not</i>
<i>shouldn't</i>	=	<i>should not</i>
<i>wasn't</i>	=	<i>was not</i>
<i>weren't</i>	=	<i>were not</i>
<i>won't</i>	=	<i>will not</i>
<i>wouldn't</i>	=	<i>would not</i>

We use contractions with *be* + negative in two ways:

She is not is contracted to *she isn't* or *she's not*. *I am not* is only contracted to *I'm not*. Not: ~~*I'm n't*~~ or ~~*I am n't*~~. *They are not* is contracted to *they aren't* or *they're not*. The *isn't* / *aren't* contractions are more common after nouns. The 's / 're not contractions are more common after pronouns: *The cakes **aren't** ready yet. She's **not** a friend of mine.*

Other contractions

Contractions can occur after nouns, names, *here*, *there* and *now* and question words. These contractions are not considered appropriate in formal writing:

<i>My sister's got married.</i>	=	<i>My sister has got married.</i>
<i>John'll be very happy.</i>	=	<i>John will be very happy.</i>
<i>Here's the coffee.</i>	=	<i>Here is the coffee.</i>
<i>There's your watch.</i>	=	<i>There is your watch.</i>
<i>Now's your chance.</i>	=	<i>Now is your chance.</i>
<i>Where's the milk?</i>	=	<i>Where is the milk?</i>
<i>What's happened?</i>	=	<i>What has happened?</i>

We don't use more than one contraction:

He's not free.

Not: ~~*he'sn't free.*~~

We don't use affirmative contractions at the end of clauses:

A: *I think we're lost.*

B: *Yes, I think we are.*

Not: ~~*I think we're*~~

However, we do use negative contractions at the end of clauses and we do commonly use contractions in tag questions:

A: *You've contacted Jan, haven't you?*

B: *No, I haven't.*

In question forms, *am not* is contracted to *aren't*:

I am getting a pay rise, aren't I?

Not: *amn't I?*

→ Apostrophe 36; *Let, let's* 193; *It's or its?* 186; Spelling 330; Tags 343

Contrasts

94

There are several common expressions for making contrasts in English. They include *on the one hand ... on the other hand*, *on the contrary*, *in comparison*, *by comparison*, *in contrast*, *by contrast*.

On the one hand ... on the other hand

We can use *on the one hand* and *on the other hand* when we contrast two different things or two different ways of thinking about something. We often use them to present a balanced argument in which both sides must be considered:

***On the one hand**, mobile phones are very useful and can save lives. **On the other hand**, people seem to use them for the most pointless and unnecessary calls.*

We often use *on the other hand* on its own in the second part of a contrast, without *on the one hand*:

*It's a chaotic and disorganised country, but **on the other hand** it's a very friendly and beautiful place.* (Both things are true about the country.)

Not: ... but ~~on the contrary~~ ...

On the contrary

We can use *on the contrary* to emphasise that something is the opposite of something which has been mentioned. We often use it to state that an original statement was not true, and we often use it after a negative statement. *On the contrary* is much more common in writing than in informal speaking:

*He did not seem offended by her criticisms; **on the contrary**, he seemed to enjoy them.* (It was not true that he was offended by the remarks – he enjoyed them.)

In comparison and by comparison

We can use *in comparison* and, less commonly, *by comparison* to contrast two clauses or sentences. They indicate how people and things are different when we compare them side by side:

*London is England's biggest city. Its second city, Birmingham, **in comparison**, is quite small by global standards.*

*Driving the old model of this van was hard work. Driving the new model is easy **in comparison**.*

*Cynthia was very nervous. Martha was quite calm **by comparison**.*

We can use *in comparison with X, Y is ...* to make a contrast:

***In comparison with** his older brother, who never stops talking, he's quite shy.*

In contrast and by contrast

We use *in contrast* and, less commonly, *by contrast* to link two clauses. *In contrast* and *by contrast* stress the difference between two people or things more strongly than *in comparison* and *by comparison*:

*Holistic medicine treats the whole person. Conventional medicine, **in contrast**, treats specific symptoms and parts of the body.*

We can use *in contrast* to or, less commonly, *in contrast with* to contrast two noun phrases:

***In contrast to** most of the city's museums, the art museum is modern, bright and has a friendly atmosphere.*

*The white roses looked lovely **in contrast with** the red ones.*

By contrast is less common than *in contrast*. We can use it alone or followed by *with*, but not by *to*:

*In the south much of the land is flat. **By contrast**, in the north there are hills and mountains everywhere.*

***By contrast with** the external appearance of the place, the room into which the front door opened was, if not particularly attractive, clean and well ordered.*

Not: ~~By contrast to the external appearance ...~~

Could

95

Could: form

95a

Affirmative (+) form

Could comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

*We **could** have lunch early.*

Could cannot be used with another modal verb:

*We **could** drive to France*

Not: ~~We could might drive to France. or We might could drive to France.~~

Negative (-) form

The negative form of *could* is *couldn't*. We don't use *don't/doesn't/didn't* with *could*:

*He **couldn't** lift that. It's too heavy.*

Not: ~~He didn't could lift that ...~~

We can use the full form *could not* in formal contexts or when we want to emphasise something:

*Fabio was frightened. He **could not** move his arm. It was stuck.*

Question (?) form

The subject and *could* change position to form questions. We don't use *do/does/did*:

***Could** I pay by credit card?*

Not: ~~Do I could pay by credit card?~~

We use *could* and *couldn't* in question tags:

*I could come back tomorrow, **couldn't** I?*

Could: uses

95b

Possibility

We often use *could* to express possibility in the present and the future.

⇔ Compare

<i>It is blue.</i> I am certain that it is blue. It's a fact.	<i>It could be blue.</i> (present) I'm not certain that it is blue.
<i>The storm will get worse.</i> I'm certain that the storm will get worse.	<i>The storm could get worse.</i> (future) I'm not certain that the storm will get worse.

→ Can: uses 65b

Suggestions

We often use *could* to make suggestions:

A: *Will's party **is** fancy-dress.*

B: *It's Halloween.*

C: *Oh right. I **could** go as Julius Caesar.*

B: *Again? How many times have you done that?*

A: *I've got to be in the meeting at 10 and the train doesn't get in until 10.15.*

B: ***Could** you get an earlier train?*

Permission

We use *could* to ask for permission. *Could* is more formal and polite than *can*:

***Could** I ask you a personal question?*



We don't use *could* to give or refuse permission. We use *can*:

A: ***Could** I leave early today?*

B: *Yes, you **can**./No, you **can't**.*

Not: *Yes, you **could**./No, you **couldn't**.*

→ Can 65

Could: past

95c

We don't usually use *could* to talk about single events that happened in the past.

Past achievement

When actual past achievements are mentioned, we usually use *was/were able to* or *managed to* but not *could* in affirmative clauses. This is because they are facts, rather than possibilities:

*I **was able to/managed to** buy a wonderful bag to match my shoes.*

Not: *I **could** buy a wonderful bag to match my shoes.*

We hired a car and we **were able to/managed to** drive 1,000 miles in one week.

Not: ~~We hired a car and we could drive 1,000 miles in one week.~~

Ability

We use *could* to talk about past ability:

When I was young, I **could** easily touch my toes.

Possibility

We use *could have* + *-ed* form to talk about possibility in the past:

I **could have been** a lawyer.

They **could have taken** a taxi home instead of walking and getting wet.

Janette **couldn't have done** any better.

Guessing and predicting: *couldn't* as the negative of *must*

When we want to guess or predict something, we use *couldn't* as the negative form of *must*. We use *couldn't have* + *-ed* form as the negative form of *must have* + *-ed*. *Couldn't* and *couldn't have* + *-ed* form express strong possibility:

She must have made a mistake. It **couldn't be true**.

A firework **couldn't have done** all that damage.

→ Can 65

Could + *smell, taste, think, believe, etc.*

We use *could* to refer to single events that happened in the past, with verbs of the senses (*smell, taste, see, hear, touch, etc.*) and mental processes (*think, believe, remember, understand etc.*):

The food was terrible. I **could taste** nothing but salt.

We knew they were in there. We **could hear** voices inside.

He came and spoke to me, but I **couldn't remember** his name.

→ Be able to 54b

Reporting *can*

We use *could* when reporting clauses with *can* as past events:

They told us we **could** wait in the hallway. (The original words were probably: 'You can wait in the hallway.')

She said we **could** book the tickets online. (The speaker remembers hearing 'You can book the tickets online.')

Criticism

We often use *could have* + *-ed* form to express disapproval or criticism:

You **could have** called to say you would be late. (You didn't call – I think you should have called.)

You **could have** tidied your room.

Regret

We use *could have* + *-ed* form to talk about things that did not happen and sometimes to express regret:

*He **could have been** a doctor.*

*I **could have been** famous.*

We often use the expression *how could you/she/he/they?* to show disapproval (to show that we don't like what someone has done):

*Grandfather, **how could you?** **How could you** leave me?*

***How could you** have gone without telling me?*

A: *We had to give away our dog when we moved to England.*

B: *Oh, **how could you?***

Could, may and might

96

We use *could*, *may* and *might* to express degrees of possibility. Many native speakers disagree on which one expresses more or less certainty.

↔ Compare

<i>The restaurant may close.</i>	It is likely that the restaurant will close.
<i>The restaurant could close.</i>	It is less likely that the restaurant will close.
<i>The restaurant might close.</i>	There is only a possibility that the restaurant will close but no one is very sure.

The speaker also shows degree of certainty or uncertainty through intonation and stress. If the speaker stresses the modal verb, they are expressing more uncertainty than if they stress the main verb.

Dates

97

Writing the date

97a

We write the date in English in different ways. The most common way in British English is to write the day of the month first, then the month (starting with a capital letter) and then the year:

20 January 1993 14 November 2005

We can also write the date in numbers only:

20 January 1993 = 20/1/1993 14 November 2005 = 14-11-2005 or 14.11.05

Sometimes the last two letters of the number as spoken can be used (*th*, *rd*, *st*, *nd*):

Today is the 7th September.

The grand opening is on 1st June. or ... on June 1st.

With the exception of May and June, months can be shortened as follows:

Jan, Feb, Mar, Apr, Jul, Aug, Sept, Oct, Nov, Dec.

Dates in American English

In written American English, the month of the date comes before the day and year. For example, Independence Day in the USA is on July 4th each year. In the year 2000 the date was 4/7/2000 in British English. In American English this is written 7/4/2000.

→British and American English 62

Speaking the date

97b

We ask the date or about dates in several ways. We can add *the* and *of* when we reply:

What **date** did they get married?

A: What **date** is it?

B: It's **the first of June**. (1st June)

A: What's the **date** today?

B: It's June **the first**. (June 1st)

A: What's today's **date**?

B: **Fifteenth of April**. (15th April)

We talk about years like this:

Before the year 2000

1492: *fourteen ninety-two*

1700: *seventeen hundred*

1801: *eighteen hundred and one* or *eighteen oh* /ɔʊ/ *one*

1908: *nineteen oh eight*

After the year 2000

2000: *two thousand*

2003: *two thousand and three* or *twenty oh three*

2012: *two thousand and twelve* or *twenty twelve*

Typical error

- Make sure you use the correct abbreviated form:

My birthday is the 28th of January.

Not: ... the-28st ...

→Number 240

Determiners (*the, my, some, this*)

98

Determiners are words such as *the, my, this, some, twenty, each, any*, which are used before nouns:

the countryside
my father

some paper
five green chairs

this old sofa
each person

Determiners include the following common types:

Articles: *a/an, the*

Demonstratives: *this, that, these, those*

Possessives: *my, your, his, her, its, our, their, x's* (possessive 's)

Quantifiers: *(a) few, fewer, (a) little, many, much, more, most, some, any*, etc.

Numbers: *one, two, three*, etc.

Here is a list of the determiners included in this book. Many of them have individual entries:

<i>(a) few, fewer, fewest</i>	<i>every</i>	<i>most</i>	<i>that</i>
<i>(a) little</i>	<i>half</i>	<i>much</i>	<i>the</i>
<i>(an)other</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>their</i>
<i>a/an</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>these</i>
<i>all</i>	<i>its</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>this</i>
<i>any</i>	<i>Jim's, Anna's, etc.</i>	<i>one, two, three, etc.</i>	<i>those</i>
<i>both</i>	<i>least</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>what</i>
<i>each</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>several</i>	<i>which</i>
<i>either</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>some</i>	<i>whose</i>
<i>enough</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>such</i>	<i>your</i>

Sometimes we don't use a determiner before the noun. We call this 'zero determiner':

Dogs love biscuits.

→ *A/an and the* 1

What do determiners do?

98a

Determiners have two main functions: referring and quantifying.

Referring

Referring means showing us who or what the noun is pointing to or talking about. The most common types of determiners which we use for referring are articles, possessives and demonstratives:

A: Where's **the** newspaper?

B: It's on **the** sofa. (*the* means the noun refers to something the speaker and listener both know or are familiar with)

A: Have you seen **my** MP3 player anywhere?

B: Yes. It's on **the** kitchen table. (*my* refers to something which belongs to the speaker; *the* refers to something the speaker and listener can both identify because they both know or share knowledge about it.)

Do you want **this** bag or are you going to put it in **that** box? (*this* refers to something near the speaker; *that* refers to something further away.)

Charles is looking for **his** dictionary. Have you got it? (*his* means the noun refers to something belonging to a male, in this case, *Charles*.)

Quantifying

'Quantifying' means showing how much of something there is, or how many:

Five people were arrested during an anti-war demonstration in London today.

*There are **some** letters here for you. (some means a non-specific, small number or quantity of something.)*

*Do you have **enough** flour to make the bread. (enough means a quantity that is sufficient or adequate for something).*

→ *A/an and the* 1; *Possession* 272; *Some and any* 326; *Determiners and modifiers* 100c

Determiners and types of noun

99

We cannot use all the determiners with all types of noun. We can use some determiners with any type of noun, but others must be followed by certain types of noun.

Determiners and singular countable nouns

99a

Some determiners can only be used with a singular countable noun. These are:

a/an another each either every neither one

*Would you like **another** glass of water?*

*Life gets more expensive **every** day.*

A: Can we meet on the 15th or 16th?

*B: Sorry. **Neither** date is good for me. What about the 18th?*

→ *Each* 111; *Every* 121; *Other* 252a

Determiners and singular uncountable nouns

99b

Much, (a) little, less and least can only be used with a singular uncountable noun:

*We didn't get **much** snow last winter.*

*There is **little** information I can give you, I'm afraid.*

We sometimes use *less* with plural nouns, but this is not always considered correct:

*There were **less** children there today than last year. (There were fewer children ... is considered correct.)*

→ *Much* 215a; *Little, a little, few, a few* 196; *Less or fewer?* 192

Determiners and singular countable or uncountable nouns

99c

We use *this* and *that* with singular countable or uncountable nouns, but not with plural nouns. *This* refers to something near the speaker; *that* refers to something further away:

***That** film was fantastic. (countable)*

***This** furniture is so ugly! (uncountable)*

For plural nouns, we use *these* and *those*.

→ *This, that, these, those* 349

Determiners and plural countable nouns**99d**

Both, many, (a) few, the numbers two, three, four, etc., several, these and those are only used with plural nouns:

*It all happened **many** years ago.*

*I just have **a few** photos of my grandparents.*

***Several** items were missing when we opened the box to unpack everything.*

→ Both 60; Little, a little, few, a few 196; Many 9; Number 240

Determiners and uncountable nouns or plural countable nouns**99e**

Some determiners can only be used with an uncountable noun or with a plural noun:

<i>all</i>	<i>some</i> /səm/ (weak form)
<i>any</i> (weak form)	zero determiner (i.e. no determiner)
<i>enough</i>	

*Would you like **some** juice, or milk? (uncountable noun)*

*Do we have **enough** cups for everybody? (plural noun)*

*We need to buy **paper** for the printer. (zero determiner, uncountable noun)*

→ All 27; Enough 118; Some and any 326; Such 337

Determiners and any type of noun**99f**

Some determiners can be used with any type of noun, singular or plural, countable or uncountable.

Determiners which can be used in this way:

any ('strong form' meaning 'it doesn't matter which')

some ('strong form' meaning 'certain/particular'; stressed and pronounced /səm/)

which (as a question word)

what (as a question word)

my, your, his, Anna's, etc.

such

the

what

whose

no

	countable	uncountable
Singular	A: <i>Where would you like to sit?</i> B: Any seat in the front row will be fine. (I don't mind which seat/It's not important which seat) Whose jacket is this?	Any information you can give me about the trains would be very useful. Whose advice do you listen to most, your parents' or your teachers'?
Plural	Some students always turn up late for class. (certain students) There were no children at the hotel.	Some processed meat contains a high level of salt. I have no news for you.

→ *Some and any* 326

Determiners followed by pronouns 99g

We can use these determiners + *of* before pronouns:

(a) few, fewer	each	many	one, two, three, etc.
(a) little	either	more	several
another	enough	most	some
all	every one	much	those
any	half	neither	which
both	less		

We had twenty tickets to sell and we sold **all of them** in less than an hour.

A: Which box do you want?

B: **Either of them** will be fine, thanks.

We've got loads of umbrellas – you can borrow **one of ours**.

→ *Both 60; All 27*

Determiners: position and order 100

Where do determiners go? 100a

Determiners come first in noun phrases, before adjectives and noun modifiers.

determiner(s)	adjective(s)	noun modifier(s)	head noun
her	little		brother
every		university	student
three	big, old	kitchen	tables
my two	best		friends

→ *Noun phrases* 234

More than one determiner

100b

We can use more than one determiner in a noun phrase:

*My **two** best friends at school were Mike and Terry.*

*All **your** books got wet when you left them in the garden – do you remember?*

We don't use two referring determiners or two quantifying determiners together:

*We sold **the** house.*

*We sold **our** house.*

Not: *We sold ~~the~~ ~~our~~ house.*

*I have **some** questions.*

*I have **many** questions.*

Not: *I have ~~some~~ ~~many~~ questions.*

However, we can use a quantifying determiner (*some, many, enough, etc.*) + *of* together with a referring determiner (*the, this, my, etc.*):

***Many of the** people present were very angry.*

***Some of his** friends are awful people.*

When there is more than one determiner in a noun phrase, we put them in a fixed order. The table shows the order from left to right.

quantifier (e.g. <i>all, both, some</i>)	article (<i>a/an, the</i>)	demonstrative (<i>this, that, these, those</i>)	possessive (e.g. <i>my, her, our, Anna's</i>)	number (e.g. <i>one, three, 26</i>)	head noun
<i>all (of)</i>	<i>the</i>				<i>children</i>
<i>both (of)</i>			<i>my</i>		<i>parents</i>
			<i>his</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>sisters</i>
<i>many of</i>		<i>these</i>			<i>animals</i>
	<i>the</i>			<i>three</i>	<i>girls</i>
<i>half</i>	<i>a</i>				<i>mile</i>
<i>none of</i>		<i>those</i>		<i>six</i>	<i>glasses</i>
<i>some of</i>			<i>our</i>		<i>friends</i>

Many, much, more, most, few, little

We can use *many, much, more, most, few* and *little* after *the* or after a demonstrative or a possessive, especially in formal styles:

*She spent **the little** money she had left on a new coat and hat.*

***Those few** books which were not destroyed in the fire have been transferred to the new library.*

*I shall invite **my many** friends to join me on my 65th birthday.*

All, both, half

All, both and half can come before articles, demonstratives and possessives. We can use them with or without of, with no difference in meaning:

***All that** food should be put in the fridge. (or **All of that** food)*

*Do **both your** parents work in the city? (or **both of your** parents)*

***Half the** people at the party hadn't been invited. (or **Half of the** people)*

→ **All 27; Both 60**

One of, most of, etc.

Determiners other than *all, both* and *half* must be used with *of* if they come before articles, demonstratives or possessives:

*Do you want **any of these** boxes, or shall I throw them away?*

Not: ~~Do you want any these boxes ...~~

***Most of her** school friends got married before she did.*

*I'd like **some of the** green grapes, please.*

***Two of my** favourite programmes are on TV at the same time!*

Determiners which we use with *of* in this way are:

<i>(a) few</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>(a) little</i>	<i>every (every one of)</i>	<i>much</i>
<i>all</i>	<i>fewer</i>	<i>neither</i>
<i>another</i>	<i>fewest</i>	<i>no (pronoun form none)</i>
<i>any</i>	<i>least</i>	<i>one, two, three, etc.</i>
<i>both</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>several</i>
<i>each</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>some</i>
<i>either</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>which</i>

In formal styles, we use *each of, every one of, none of* and *any of* with a singular verb when they are the subject:

***Each of the children was** given a place to hang their coat and bag.*

***None of my friends owns** a house.*

However, in informal speaking, people often use plural verbs:

***None of the computers are** working. They're all being repaired at the moment.*

Determiners with and without *of* may have slightly different meanings.

↔ **Compare**

without of	with of
<i>Some people had gathered in the main square. (a fairly small number of people)</i>	<i>Some of the people in the hall sounded very angry. (a proportion of the particular group of people)</i>

The school needs **more teachers**. (a greater number of teachers)

I wish we had **more of this paper**. I like the colour. (a greater quantity of this particular paper)

Few cities have solved the problems associated with traffic congestion. (not many cities)

Very few of the children seemed to know basic maths. (not many of the particular group of children)

Determiners and modifiers

100c

Determiners which show quantity (underlined) may occasionally have words before them (modifiers, in bold) which make them more specific or stronger:

Nearly every shop was closed for the public holiday.

The college has received **many more** applications this year than last year, but the total is still **far fewer** than ten years ago.

They were able to give me **very little** information.

Determiners used as pronouns

101

Determiners are words such as *the, my, this, some, twenty, each, any*, which are used before nouns. We can also use some determiners as pronouns (i.e. without a noun following and when the meaning is clear without including the noun).

↔ Compare

before a noun	as a pronoun (no noun following)
Would you like some bread with your soup?	I've got a bar of chocolate here. Would you like some ?
We didn't have enough volunteers to make the project work.	A: Do you need more paper? B: No. I've got enough , thanks.
Several people complained about the slow service.	It's not just one school that is in financial difficulty; there are several .

Determiners which can be used as pronouns in this way are:

(a) few	either	less	neither	these
(a) little	enough	many	one, two, three, etc.	this
another	fewer	more	several	those
any	fewest	most	some	which
both	least	much	that	whose
each				

I've had a lot of pairs of sunglasses of different kinds, and I've lost **a few** over the years on various trips.

A: D'you want tea or coffee?

B: **Neither**, thanks. I've just had breakfast.

A: Which shoes do you want to put on?

B: Pass me **those**, please. The black ones.

Determiners: typical errors

102

- Some determiners are restricted to certain types of noun:

*She gave me **some** advice.*

Not: ~~She gave me an advice~~ (We can't use *a/an* with an uncountable noun.)

*Europe will face **many** challenges in the future.*

Not: ... ~~much challenges~~ ... (We can't use *much* with a plural noun.)

→Determiners and types of noun 99

- We can't use two referring determiners together:

*The restaurant is in the middle of **my** home town.*

Not: ... ~~of the my home town~~. (*the* and *my* are both referring determiners)

→More than one determiner 100b

- We must use *of* between a quantifier and another determiner:

*I was at a party with **some** of my friends.*

Not: ... ~~with some my friends~~. (*some* must be followed by *of* before another determiner)

→More than one determiner 100b ; When do we use articles 1d ; Pronouns: possessive 291 ; Possession 272

Different from, different to or different than?

103

The adjective *different* means 'not the same'. When we compare two or more items, it is usually followed by *from*. We also use *different to*, especially in speaking:

*Adam is so **different from/to** his brother.*

*This house is very **different from/to** your last one.*

In American English it is also common to say *different than*:

*This tea tastes very **different than** the one I usually drink. (or ... very **different from/to** the one I usually drink)*

In British English, people often say *different than* before a clause, but many speakers consider this to be incorrect:

*His accent is **different now than** before he went to Australia. (or ... **different now from** before he went to Australia.)*

Discourse markers (*so, right, okay*)

104

Discourse markers are words or phrases like *anyway, right, okay, as I say, to begin with*. We use them to connect, organise and manage what we say or write or to express attitude:

[friends are talking]

A: **So**, I've decided I'm going to go to the bank and ask for a car loan.

B: That sounds like a good idea.

C: **Well**, you need a car.

B: **Right**.

A: **Anyway**, I was wondering if either of you would teach me how to drive.

The discourse markers in this extract have a number of uses:

so marks the beginning of a new part of the conversation.

well marks a change in the focus (from getting a car loan to needing a car).

right marks a response (B is agreeing with C).

anyway marks a shift in topic (from buying a new car to having driving lessons).

We use different discourse markers in speaking and writing. In speaking, the following discourse markers are very common:

<i>anyway</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>right</i>	<i>you know</i>
<i>fine</i>	<i>now</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>I mean</i>
<i>good</i>	<i>oh</i>	<i>well</i>	<i>as I say</i>
<i>great</i>	<i>okay</i>	<i>mind you</i>	<i>for a start</i>

In writing, the following discourse markers are common:

<i>firstly</i>	<i>in addition</i>	<i>moreover</i>	<i>on the other hand</i>
<i>secondly</i>	<i>in conclusion</i>	<i>on the one hand</i>	<i>to begin with</i>
<i>thirdly</i>	<i>in sum</i>		

Discourse markers do not always have meanings that you will find in your dictionary. However, they do have certain functions, and some discourse markers, such as *well*, can have a number of functions.

→ **Actual and actually 7; Like 194; Look 198; Mind 9; Okay, ok 244; Well 373**

Discourse markers that organise what we say

104a

Some discourse markers are used to start and to end conversations. Some are used to start new topics or to change topics.

Starting a conversation or talk

A: **Right**, let's get started. We need to get the suitcases into the car.

B: Okay. I'll do that. Katie, will you help me?

[at the start of a radio interview]

Now, we have with us in the studio today someone you will all know from television.

John Rice, welcome to the show.

→ **Okay, ok 244**

Ending a conversation

[A mother (A) and daughter (B) on the telephone]

A: **So** we'll see you Sunday, Liz.

B: **Right**, okay Mum.

A: **Okay**, see you then, love.

B: Bye, Mum. Thanks for calling.

A: Bye, Liz.

[At the end of a meeting]

A: **Anyway**, is that it? Has anyone got any questions?

B: No. I think we're done.

A: **Right**, fine, thanks everyone for coming. We'll circulate the documents tomorrow and make some follow-up calls about the project.

→ So 323; Okay, ok 244

Changing or managing a topic

A: We went to town to buy wallpaper to match the carpet.

B: Did you try Keanes? They have a sale.

A: We looked there, but Jim said he thought it was too expensive and he didn't like any of their designs.

B: What does he like?

A: He likes geometric shapes. He hates flowers. **Anyway**, we eventually found some that we both liked and when we went to pay for it, we realised that neither of us had brought any money. (Anyway marks a return to the main topic of buying wallpaper.)

Ordering what we say

We also use discourse markers to order or sequence what we say. Some of the common words and phrases which we use for this are:

and	in general	second	to sum up
and then	in the end	*secondly	what's more
first (of all)	last of all	so	well
*firstly	next	lastly	a ... b
for a start	on top of that	third(ly)	

*firstly and secondly are more formal than first and second.

A: I think Sheila might be having some financial problems at the moment.

B: I don't think so, Caroline. **For a start**, she has all the money that her aunt gave her. What's more, she has a good job and she seems to have a good lifestyle.

Firstly, we are going to look at how to write an essay. **Secondly** we are going to look at what makes a good essay and what makes a bad one. **Lastly**, we're going to do some writing activities.

We can use the letters of the alphabet (a, b and c), to list reasons or arguments for something:

There are two reasons why I think it's a bad idea, **a** because it'll cost too much money, and **b** because it'll take such a long time.

→ Numbers: first, second, third 240a

Discourse markers that monitor what we say

104b

As we talk, we monitor (or listen to) what we are saying and how our listener is responding to what they hear. We often rephrase or change what we say depending on how our listener is responding. We use words and phrases such as *well, I mean, in other words, the thing is, you know, you know what I mean, you see, what I mean is*.

Saying something in another way

Sometimes, as we talk, we add phrases to show our listener that we are going to rephrase, repeat or change what we are saying. These discourse markers help to make what we say clearer for the listener:

*I just had to leave early. **What I mean is** I hated the show. It just wasn't funny.*

*You exercise regularly, you have a good diet and you don't have too much stress. **In other words**, I think you have nothing to worry about. Your health seems very good.*

*I think I've found a house I'd like to buy. Well it's an apartment **actually**. It's ideal for me.*

→ **Actual and actually** 7; **I mean** 204a; **Well** 373

Shared knowledge

When we talk, we think about how much knowledge we share with our listener. We often mark what we think is old, shared or expected knowledge with *you know* and we mark new knowledge that we see as not shared with the listener with phrases like *see, you see, the thing is*:

You know, hiring a car was a great idea. (The speaker and the listener know about hiring the car.)

A: *Why don't you come and stay with me when you're in Lisbon?*

B: *It'd be difficult. I have to be back in Dublin by Friday. **You see**, my sister is getting married on Saturday so I won't have time to visit.* (B assumes that A doesn't know about her sister's wedding. This is new information)

→ **See** 318; **You know** ○; **You see** ○

Discourse markers as responses

104c

As we listen to someone speaking, we usually show our response to what we hear either by gesture (head nod) or by a short response (*Mm, yeah, really, that's a shame*). This shows that we are listening to and interested in what is being said. We call these short responses 'response tokens'.

Common response tokens include:

<i>absolutely</i>	<i>fine</i>	<i>okay</i>	<i>wow</i>
<i>(all) right</i>	<i>good</i>	<i>quite</i> (more formal)	<i>yeah</i>
<i>certainly</i>	<i>great</i>	<i>really</i>	<i>yes</i>
<i>definitely</i>	<i>I see</i>	<i>sure</i>	
<i>exactly</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>wonderful</i>	
<i>that's great/interesting/amazing/awful, etc.</i>			

We use response tokens for a number of functions:

To show interest and to show that we want the speaker to continue

A: *So he opened the door.*

B: **Yeah.**

A: *And he went in very quietly without waking her.*

B: **Right.**

A: *He opened her bag and...*

To show surprise

A: *We've decided to go to Africa for a month next year.*

B: **Oh really!**

To show sympathy

A: *He can't play soccer for at least six months. He's broken his leg.*

B: **That's terrible.**

→ **Adverbs as discourse markers (definitely, certainly) 20; Of course** ○

Discourse markers showing attitude

104d

Some expressions are used to mark attitude or point of view in speaking or writing.

Common expressions of attitude are:

<i>actually</i>	<i>frankly</i>	<i>I think</i>	<i>(I'm) sorry</i>
<i>admittedly</i>	<i>hopefully</i>	<i>literally</i>	<i>surprisingly</i>
<i>amazingly</i>	<i>honestly</i>	<i>naturally</i>	<i>thankfully</i>
<i>basically</i>	<i>ideally</i>	<i>no doubt</i>	<i>to be honest</i>
<i>certainly</i>	<i>if you ask me</i>	<i>obviously</i>	<i>to tell you the truth</i>
<i>clearly</i>	<i>I'm afraid</i>	<i>of course</i>	<i>understandably</i>
<i>confidentially</i>	<i>I must admit</i>	<i>predictably</i>	<i>undoubtedly</i>
<i>definitely</i>	<i>I must say</i>	<i>really</i>	<i>unfortunately</i>
<i>essentially</i>	<i>in fact</i>	<i>sadly</i>	
<i>fortunately</i>	<i>indeed</i>	<i>seriously</i>	

If you ask me, Neil is making a big mistake leaving his job to go travelling with his friends.

We will **obviously** have to pay for the damage done to the window.

The whole problem has been caused, **I think**, by having too many cars on the road at busy times.

Sadly, Hilda has decided not to come with us.

→ **Actual and actually 7; Think** ○

Discourse markers: sounding less direct**104e**

We are careful when we speak not to sound too direct or forceful. We use words and phrases such as *like*, *maybe*, *sort of* to soften what we say (hedges).

We often use these words and expressions as hedges:

<i>apparently</i>	<i>kind of</i>	<i>perhaps</i>	<i>roughly</i>
<i>arguably</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>presumably</i>	<i>sort of/ kind of*</i>
<i>I think</i>	<i>maybe</i>	<i>probably</i>	<i>surely</i>
<i>just</i>			

* *sort of* is more common in British English; *kind of* is more common in American English.

*Can I **just** ask you a question?*

*We can **probably** add some more water to the sauce.*

*Is this **perhaps** one of your first times driving a car?*

↔ Compare

<i>There's a new restaurant in town. We should probably try it next weekend.</i>	The statement is hedged or softened so as not to sound too strong or forceful.
<i>There's a new restaurant in town. We should try it next weekend.</i>	The statement is not hedged and it sounds more direct and forceful.

→ Hedges 162; Think ○; Like 194; Mind you ○; Well 373

Discourse markers: um and erm**104f**

We can use *um* to introduce a new topic carefully:

***Um**, could I ask you a personal question?*

***Um**, there's something else we need to talk about.*

We can use *erm* when we pause before saying something, especially when we are not sure about what to say:

*He's ... **erm** he's not very pleased with your work, I'm afraid.*

*Her last book was called ... **erm** what was it? I can't remember the name.*

Discourse markers: interjections (Oh! Gosh!)**104g**

An interjection is a single-word exclamation such as *hooray*, *oops*, *ouch* which shows a positive or negative emotional response:

A: *The meeting's been cancelled.*

B: ***Yippee!***

A: *I've just dropped the box of eggs.*

B: ***Oh no!***

A: *I don't think this dessert looks very fresh.*

B: ***Yuck!***

→ Interjections 179; Oh ○

Do**105****Do: forms****105a**

Do is an irregular verb. Its three forms are *do*, *did*, *done*. The present simple third person singular is *does*:

Will you **do** a job for me?

I **did** some shopping this morning.

Have you **done** your essay yet?

He usually **does** his homework in front of the television.

Do: uses**105b**

We use *do* as a main verb and an auxiliary verb. We can also use it as a substitute verb.

→ **Do as a main verb 105c; Do as an auxiliary verb 105d; Do as a substitute verb 105f**

Do as a main verb**105c**

Do as a main verb has a number of meanings.

Perform or take part in an action

We use *do* to talk about actions in general, when we do not specify exactly what the action is:

What have you been **doing** today, anything interesting?

There is nothing we can **do** except wait and see what happens.

Can I **do** anything to help?

Achieve, complete or deal with something

We use *do* as a main verb to talk about achieving or completing things:

A: I've **done** the washing up.

B: Oh, thank you.

We **did** 80 miles on the first day of our cycling holiday.

She **does** the crossword in the newspaper every day.

Work and other tasks

We use *do* with nouns such as *homework*, *job*, *task*, *work*:

She has a lot of homework to **do** tonight.

I'm going to **do** some work in the garden this weekend.

If you want to know what someone's job or profession is, you can use the main verb *do* in a question:

A: What does Jackie's brother **do**?

B: He's an electrician.

Not: What does Jackie's brother?

Study a subject

We use *do* to talk about studying subjects:

A: *What did you **do** at university?*

B: *I **did** economics.*

*All children have to **do** English in primary school.*

Take part in activities

We use *do* as a main verb to talk about taking part in activities:

*I **did** a lot of hiking and mountain-climbing when I was younger.*

*She **did** a trip down the Amazon when she was in Brazil.*

Produce or create



We often use *do* with nouns such as *copy, design, drawing, painting*, especially in informal speech:

*I like that photo of you and me. Can you **do** me a copy?*

*Who **did** the design for the website?*

*She **did** a lovely painting of the lake where we stayed last summer.*

→ *Do or make?* 106

Clean or make tidy

We use *do* as a main verb to talk about cleaning things or making them tidy:

*The cleaner was **doing** my room when I came back.*

*I'll just **do** my hair and then I'll be ready.*

Be enough or acceptable

We use *do* as a main verb with *will* or *won't* to talk about things being enough or acceptable:

A: *What size bag do you need?*

B: *A small one will **do**.* (a small one is enough/acceptable)

→ *Do or make?* 106

Do as an auxiliary verb

105d

Do is one of three auxiliary verbs in English: *be, do, have*. We use *do* to make negatives (*do + not*), to make question forms, and to make the verb more emphatic.

meaning	example
negative	<i>I didn't see you at the concert the other night.</i>
question form	<i>Do they open at nine o'clock on weekdays?</i>
emphatic	<i>He does look smart in his new suit!</i>

Question (?) form

To make the question form of most main verbs, we use *do*, *does* (present simple) and *did* (past simple) followed by the subject and the main verb:

- Do you play football?*
- Doesn't he phone you now and then?*
- Did your mother come from the same place as your father?*

Negative (-) form

The negative of the present simple and past simple of all main verbs (except for *be* and some uses of *have* as main verbs) is made with auxiliary *do* + *not*, which is shortened to *don't* (do not), *doesn't* (does not) and *didn't* (did not). We use the short forms in everyday informal language, and the full forms in more formal situations:

- I don't want to wait for a bus. Let's get a taxi.*
- Jack doesn't live in the town centre. He's out in the suburbs.*
- Didn't you get my email? I sent it at about four o'clock.*
- The Prime Minister does not take personal phone calls from members of the public.*
(more formal)
- Did the parents not realise that something serious had happened to their child?*
(more formal)

→Be as main verb 53c; Have as main verb 154d

Emphatic forms

We use *do*, *does* (present simple) or *did* (past simple) to give extra force to the main verb. We use the infinitive of the main verb without *to*, and stress *do/does/did* when speaking.

↔ Compare

neutral	emphatic
<i>I like your new jacket.</i>	<i>I do like your new jacket!</i>
<i>She looks so tired.</i>	<i>She does look so tired!</i>
<i>I didn't recognise your dad, but I recognised your mum.</i>	<i>I didn't recognise your dad, but I did recognise your mum.</i>

We also use emphatic *do* with imperatives.

- Do come and have dinner with us some time.*
- Do stop talking, Harry! You're boring everybody!*

Question tags

We use auxiliary *do* to form question tags for clauses which do not have a modal verb, a verb in the perfect with *have* or clauses with *be*. The tag uses the same person and tense as the subject of the main verb. The tag may be affirmative or negative, depending on the type of tag:

*You work with Peter, **don't you?*** (affirmative main verb, negative tag)

*She **plays** the piano, **doesn't she?***

*Little children **don't** usually like spicy food, **do they?*** (negative main verb, affirmative tag)

*They **didn't** stay very long, **did they?***

*You live near Harkness, **do you?*** (affirmative verb, affirmative tag)

*They **arrived** late, **did they?***

→ Tags 343; Ellipsis 116

Do as an auxiliary verb: typical errors

105e

- We don't use auxiliary *do* to make questions or negatives for clauses with modal verbs:

***Will you be** here in time for lunch?*

Not: ~~Do you will be~~ here ...

***I can't swim** very well.*

Not: ~~I don't can swim~~ ...

- We use auxiliary *do*, not auxiliary *be*, for questions with main verbs in the present simple:

***Do you live** in an apartment?*

Not: ~~Are you live in~~ ...

- We use *does*, not *do*, for the third person in the present tense:

***Does your sister have** brown eyes too?*

Not: ~~Do your sister have~~ ...

→ Do as substitute verb 105f; Ellipsis 116

Do as a substitute verb

105f

We often use *do* instead of repeating all the words in a clause. *Do* substitutes for the words we don't repeat:

A: *We went to the concert in the park this year.*

B: *Yes, we **did** too.* (Yes, we went to the concert in the park too.)

We don't use *do* alone if the substitute verb is in the *to*-infinitive form. In those cases, we omit the verb but keep *to*, or we use *do so*, *do it* or *do that*:

*It's not often I write letters to newspapers, but that day I desperately felt the need **to**, or ... the need **to do so/it/that**. (I desperately felt the need to write letters to newspapers.)*

Not: ... the need to do.

Do so, do it, do that

We sometimes add *so*, *it* or *that* after the substitute *do*. *Do so*, *do it* and *do that* are sometimes used differently, but they are often interchangeable:

*He said he was going to move to New Zealand and, to everyone's surprise, he **did so/did it/did that**.*

Do so

We use *do so* mostly to refer to actions where the subject and verb are the same as the ones we have mentioned. *Do so* is generally more formal than *do it* and *do that*:

*I wanted them to leave, and politely asked them **to do so**, but they wouldn't go, so I called the police. (I wanted them to leave and I politely asked them to leave.)*

! *Do so* is more formal than *do* on its own:

A: *Do you mind if I open the present now?*

B: Yes, please **do so**. (*Do so* substitutes for *open the present now*)

We often use *do so* when we make a general reference to a series of actions or events:

*The birds make their nests on the north side of the island in little holes in the rocks. The reason why they **do so** is because the south side of the island is exposed to extreme winds.*

Do it

We use *do it* when we refer to an action or an event involving a verb and an object, especially when the subject is different from the one already mentioned:

A: *He accidentally deleted some emails on his computer.*

B: *I **do it** all the time.* (I delete files all the time.)

Do that

Do that is more emphatic and we use it for deliberate actions:

A: *Would you ever give a complete stranger your phone number?*

B: *No. I would never **do that**.* (I would never give a complete stranger my phone number.)

We often use *do that* in situations where we are contrasting things:

A: *Would you like to have a few nights in a motel?*

B: *No, we'd prefer not to **do that**. We'd rather have a nice hotel. (We'd prefer not to have a few nights in a motel.)*

A: I've decided to wait a year before starting college. I want to travel a bit and see the world.

B: I really think you should **do that** rather than starting college. You're still so young. College will still be an option this time next year.

We can use a modal or an auxiliary verb + *do* to substitute for a main verb and what comes after it:

A: I feel terrible.

B: You should go to the doctor.

A: I **should do**, I know, but I have so much work to finish.

A: Has Martin met Paul before?

B: He **could have done** at the sales meeting last year, but I'm not sure.

Do or make?

106

When we use *do* and *make* with noun phrases, *do* focuses on the process of acting or performing something, *make* emphasises more the product or outcome of an action:

[action] [outcome]
When I was **doing** the calculations, I **made** two mistakes.

[action] [outcome]
I **did** some work for her last summer; I **made** a pond in her garden.

Examples of nouns used with *do* and *make*

Nouns which combine with *do*

activity	damage	favour	job	task
business	drawing	gardening	laundry	test
cleaning	duty	harm	one's best	washing (up)
cooking	exam(ination)	homework	painting	work
course	exercise	ironing	shopping	

I **do** the shopping on Fridays usually.

Could you **do** a job for me next week?

Who **does** the cooking in your house?

Nouns which combine with *make*

apology	coffee	excuse	love	offer	remark
assumption	comment	friends	lunch	phone call	sound
bed	complaint	guess	mess	plan	soup
breakfast	dinner	law	mistake	profit	speech
cake	effort	list	money	progress	statement
change	error	loss	noise	promise	tea

They **made** me an interesting offer of a job in Warsaw.

Not many building firms will **make** a profit this year.

I have to **make** a phone call.

→Do as a main verb 105c; Make 201; Collocation 73

Double negatives and usage 107

In standard English, when we use negative words such as *nobody*, *nowhere*, *never* or *nothing*, we do not commonly use a negative verb:

He had **nothing** interesting to tell us.

Not: He ~~hadn't~~ **nothing** interesting ...

It was 10 am but there was **nobody** in the office.

Not: ... but there ~~wasn't~~ **nobody** in the office.

However, we hear double and triple negatives spoken in some regional dialects of English. This is common when people from the same region are speaking with one another. Double negatives like this are not acceptable in formal situations or in writing.

↔ Compare

non-standard dialect	standard English
We couldn't never work with nobody like that.	We couldn't ever work with anybody like that.
He never says nothing interesting to no one .	He never says anything interesting to anyone .

Double negation with adjectives and adverbs (*not unexpected*)

However, we can use *not* + an adjective or adverb with a negative prefix (e.g. *un-*, *in-*) as a way of softening or downtoning the meaning of the adjective. The meaning becomes affirmative, but the double negation shows that the writer/speaker is cautious about it. This is most common in formal writing:

This year's rise in inflation to 3% was **not unexpected**. (This year's rise in inflation to 3% was expected to some extent.)

The crisis has been attributed, **not unreasonably**, to the Prime Minister's weakness.

A: The repair cost fifty pounds.

B: Oh well, that's **not unreasonable**.

→Negation 219; No one, nobody, nothing, nowhere 223

Downtoners 108

Downtoners are words or phrases which reduce the force of another word or phrase. Downtoning is the opposite of emphasising. The most common downtoners are:

<i>a bit</i>	<i>a little bit, a tiny bit</i>	<i>hardly</i>	<i>slightly</i>
<i>a little</i>	<i>barely</i>	<i>(only) just</i>	<i>somewhat</i>

These downtoners are adverbs, and we use them to modify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs:

*I'm **a little bit** fed up with George – he's so selfish. (less strong than *I'm fed up with George*.)*

*I think he got **slightly** upset when we told him the news.*

*I was **barely** 16 years old when I joined the army.*

*You'll have to speak up. I can **only just** hear you.*

*The city has changed **somewhat** in the last ten years. (somewhat is more formal than the other words in the list.)*

Downtoners: using vague language

108a

We use vague language such as *kind of ...*, *sort of ...* or the suffix *-ish* to reduce the force of a word or phrase:

A: *Are you hungry?*

B: *Well, **kind of**. (less strong than *Yes*.)*

*She had a **saddish** look on her face, I don't know why. (less strong than *She had a sad look on her face*.)*

→ Double negatives and usage 107; Discourse markers 104; Hedges 162; Vague expressions 359

Dummy subjects

109

English clauses which are not imperatives must have a subject. Sometimes we need to use a 'dummy' or 'empty' or 'artificial' subject when there is no subject attached to the verb, and where the real subject is somewhere else in the clause. *It* and *there* are the two dummy subjects used in English:

[dummy subject] [real subject]

***It's** always interesting **to find out about your family history**.*

[real subject]

***To find out about your family history** is always interesting. (The real subject – the thing that is interesting – is 'to find out about your family history'.)*

[dummy subject] [real subject]

***There** are **five Dutch people in our village**. (The real subject is the Dutch people – they are in the village.)*

It as a dummy subject

109a

We often use *it* as a dummy subject with adjectives and their complements:

[dummy subject] [real subject]

It's important to wear a helmet whenever you do any dangerous sport.

[real subject]

Wearing a helmet when you do any dangerous sport is important.

Not: ~~Is important to wear a helmet~~ ... (The real subject is 'wearing a helmet when you do any dangerous sport' – that is what is important.)

It's useful to write down your passport number somewhere, in case you lose it.

→ It 184

There as a dummy subject

109b

There operates as a dummy subject in the construction *there is* or *there are*. *There is/are* indicates that something or someone exists or is in a particular place or situation:

There's a woman waiting outside who wants to talk to you. (The real subject is the woman – she is waiting outside.)

Not: ~~Is a woman waiting outside~~ ... or ~~It's a woman waiting outside~~ ...

There are two shops in the village.

Not: ~~Are two shops~~ ... or ~~They are two shops~~ ...

→ *There is, there's and there are* 347

During or for?

110

We use *during* to say when something happens, if it happens in or over a period of time. We use *for* to talk about the length of time something lasts.

↔ Compare

<i>They went to Florida during the winter.</i>	They went at one point in the winter.
<i>They went to Florida for the winter.</i>	They went from the beginning to the end of the winter.

*She phoned me **during** the week to tell me that she was getting married.* (referring to a point in the week)

*We were in the cinema **for** three and a half hours.*

Not: ... ~~during~~ three and a half hours.

*Our flight to New York was delayed **for** seven hours.*

Not: ... ~~during~~ seven hours.

*We went to Italy **for** a week.*

Not: ... ~~during~~ a week.

We can also use *for* to refer to public holidays and seasons:

*He always goes to his mother's house **for** New Year.*

Not: ... ~~during~~ New Year.

→ For 129; During ○

Each

111

Each is a determiner or a pronoun.

Each: meaning and use

111a

We use *each* to refer to the individual things or persons in a group of two or more:

*We spent five days on the coast and **each** day we swam in the ocean.* (determiner)

*There were four rooms, **each** with wonderful views of the garden.* (pronoun)

Each is usually followed by a singular noun or by *one*:

***Each** weekend, they would work on the house.*

Not: ~~*Each weekends ...*~~

*The houses were made of grey stones and mud bricks, and **each one** had a flat roof of pressed earth laid over mats.*

Each of

111b

We use *each of* before other determiners and before the plural object pronouns *us*, *you* and *them*:

[talking about a hiking club]

A: *There are meetings every month to plan events.*

B: *That sounds like a lot of planning.*

C: *Do you go to **each of** the meetings?*

A: *I try to.*

*They were trying to decide where to go on holiday but the problem was that **each of** them wanted to go to different places.*

When we use *each of* with a plural noun as subject, it's normally followed by a singular verb:

***Each of** the buildings is surrounded by high metal fencing.*

***Each of** the horses has won major international races.*



In informal speaking, you will hear people use a plural verb form:

A: *All twelve of us have decided to go to Argentina together.*

B: *How will you travel around?*

A: *We've divided ourselves into three groups and **each of** the groups have hired a car.*

For emphasis, we use *each one of* with determiners and pronouns. When the phrase *each one of* is the subject, the verb is singular:

***Each one of** the passport control desks now has a camera as well as a computer.*

Each + pronouns and possessives

111c

We use *each* with plural pronouns and possessives, especially when we don't want to say *he/she*, *women/men*, etc.:

Each person who joins the gym gets a free bag and **they** get a pass to bring a friend for a free visit. (Each person and they avoids saying *each man and woman* and he, she.)

Each member of the community should take pride in **their** local environment.

Each referring to a subject

111d

When we use *each* to refer to the subject of the clause, it usually appears in the normal mid position for adverbs, between the subject and the main verb, after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb:

We **each** agreed to help by contributing some money towards the cost.

We would **each** say a poem or sing a song.

Have you **each** signed the contract?

Husband and wife are **each** entitled to invest up to the maximum of £40,000.

→ All 27; Both 60; Adverbs 16

Each other, one another

112

We use *each other* and *one another* to show that each person in a group of two or more people does something to the others. There is very little difference between *each other* and *one another* and we can normally use them in the same places. *Each other* is more common than *one another*:

Rick and Gina never liked **each other**. (Rick never liked Gina and Gina never liked Rick.)

Everyone in the family gave **each other** presents. (Each member of the family gave each member of the family a present.)

A: How's Maria? Do you see her often?

B: She's great. We phone **each other/one another** regularly.

We use *each other's* and *one another's* as possessive determiners:

Lisa and Kate hated **each other's** husbands. (Lisa hated Kate's husband and Kate hated Lisa's husband.)

My friend Olivia and I know very little about **one another's** work.

Typical errors

- Be careful not to use *us* or *ourselves* instead of *each other/one another*:

We've known **each other/one another** for twelve years.

Not: We've known ~~us~~ for twelve years or We've known ~~ourselves~~ ...

→ Pronouns: reflexive 292

- We write *each other* as two separate words and we do not use a hyphen (-):

We got to know **each other** very quickly.

Not: We got to know ~~eachother~~

- We don't use *each other* or *one another* as a plural form:
*They love **each other**.*
Not: ~~They love each others.~~

Each or every?

113

We use *each* to refer to individual things in a group or a list of two or more things. It is often similar in meaning to *every*, but we use *every* to refer to a group or list of three or more things.

↔ Compare

<i>Each one takes turns cooking dinner in the evenings.</i>	<i>Each</i> stresses individual members of a group. <i>Each</i> refers to two or more people who share the work.
<i>Everyone takes turns cooking dinner in the evenings.</i>	<i>Every</i> stresses all the members of the complete group. <i>Every</i> refers to three or more people.

We use adverbs such as *almost*, *practically* and *nearly* with *every*, but not with *each*:
***Almost every** car in the car park was new.*
Not: ~~Almost each car ...~~
***Practically every** house now has at least two televisions.*
Not: ~~Practically each house ...~~

We can use *each of* + pronoun or *each of* + determiner + noun, but with *every* we must use *every one* + pronoun or *every one* + determiner + noun:
***Each of us** has a bicycle.*
***Every one of us** has a bicycle.*
Not: ~~Every of us ...~~
***Each of the children** received a special gift.*
***Every one of the children** received a special gift.*
Not: ~~Every of the children ...~~

Either

114

Either is a determiner, a pronoun, an adverb or a conjunction.
We can pronounce *either* /'aɪðə(r)/ or /'iːðə(r)/.

Either as a determiner

114a

Either referring to two choices or possibilities

We can use *either* as a determiner before a noun to talk about two choices or possibilities. The noun that follows *either* must be a singular countable noun:

Personally, I don't like **either** jacket.

Not: ... I don't like ~~either~~ jackets.

Either restaurant will be okay, as they both serve vegetarian food. (It doesn't matter which of the two restaurants you go to.)

Either of

Either must be followed by *of* if we use it before *the*, *these*, *those* or possessives (*my*, *your*) with a plural noun:

Either **of the** children can come with us; we don't mind which.

I don't want **either of my** parents to know I've lost my job.

Not: I don't want ~~either my~~ parents ...

Either meaning 'both'

Either as a determiner before a singular countable noun can mean 'both':

There were shops on **either** side of the street.

Either as a pronoun

114b

We can use *either* as a pronoun:

A: Which sweater do you like, the green one or the blue one?

B: I don't like **either**. (I don't like the green one and I don't like the blue one.)

A: What colour paper do you want, white or cream?

B: **Either**. It doesn't matter.

Either as an adverb

114c

We can use *either* as an adverb after a negative verb:

It was a really nice hotel, and it **wasn't** very expensive **either**.

She **doesn't** like eggs and she **doesn't** like fish **either**.

Either as a conjunction

114d

We can use *either* with *or* as a conjunction to connect two clauses:

Either we go by train **or** we rent a car. Which do you prefer?

Either ... or...

115

Either... or... connects two choices:

choice 1] [choice 2

I've saved some money to buy **either** a DVD player **or** an MP3 player.

We use *either... or...* to connect items which are the same grammatical type, e.g. words, phrases, clauses:

We can **either** pre- **or** post-date the document. I don't mind. (connecting prefixes)

It's **either** black **or** grey. I can't remember. (connecting words)

You can stay **either** with me **or** with Janet. (connecting phrases)

Either I drive to the airport or I get a taxi. (connecting clauses)

The opposite of *either ... or ...* is *neither ... nor ...*. We use it to make negative statements connecting items:

*We got so wet. We had **neither** umbrellas **nor** raincoats with us!*

***Neither** our families **nor** our friends know that we are getting married!*

→ Conjunctions 88; *Neither ... nor* 220b

Ellipsis

116

Ellipsis happens when we leave out (in other words, when we don't use) items which we would normally expect to use in a sentence if we followed the grammatical rules. The following examples show ellipsis. The items left out are in brackets []:

I am absolutely sure [that] I have met her somewhere before.

A: [Have you] Seen my gloves anywhere?

B: They're in the kitchen.

She sang and [she] played the violin at the same time.

A: [Are] You ready yet?

B: Yes. [I'm] Ready now. [I'm] Sorry to keep you waiting.

In fact, when we use ellipsis appropriately, no one thinks we have 'left out' anything, and ellipsis is normal and very common, especially in informal conversation.

Textual ellipsis

116a

When we can easily understand everything in the sentence because of the surrounding text, we use textual ellipsis. For example, we know that certain verbs and adjectives can be followed by a *that*-clause, so if we see a clause without *that* after such verbs and adjectives, we assume that the writer or speaker wants us to understand the same meaning as a *that*-clause:

I knew [that] something terrible had happened.

Maureen was glad [that] we had called in to see her.

Are you afraid [that] you won't get a job when you leave college?

The same happens when we do not repeat words in clauses connected with *and*, *but* and *or* (coordinated clauses). We understand what the 'missing' items are:

We went for a walk and [we] took some lovely photographs.

He wrote to [everyone he could think of who might help] and [he] phoned everyone he could think of who might help.

I can remember his face but [I] can't remember his name.

Do you want to stay in or [do you want to] go out tonight?

We can also leave out the complement of a verb when it is obvious what the complement is:

A: *Why don't they move to a bigger place?*

B: *They don't want to [move to a bigger place]. They're happy where they are.*

A: *Have more coffee.*

B: *I'd better not [have more coffee]. I won't be able to sleep later.*

→ **Clauses: coordinated 68c**

Situational ellipsis

116b

Subject pronouns

When we do not need to mention someone or something because it is obvious from the immediate situation, we use situational ellipsis. Situational ellipsis often means we do not need to use the subject pronoun *I*, especially at the beginning of a clause. This is quite informal:

[I] *Wonder where Joe Healey is these days?*

Bye! [I] *Hope you have a nice holiday.*

We can also omit a third person pronoun (*he, she, it, they*) at the beginning of a clause in informal conversation when it is obvious who or what we are referring to:

A: *I saw Janice in town.* [She] *Said she's getting married next year.*

B: *Really?*

A: *Yeah.* [She] *Met some guy and got engaged to him after only a couple of weeks, apparently.*

There's something wrong with the car. [It] *Started making a funny noise on the way home.*

Subjects and auxiliary verbs

In informal conversation, we can leave out both a subject pronoun such as *I* or *you* and an accompanying auxiliary verb at the beginning of a clause when the meaning is obvious. This is most common in questions:

[Have you] *Finished with the newspaper?*

[I've] *Lost my car keys again. Have you seen them?*

A: [Do you] *Want some coffee?*

B: *Is there any?*

A: *Yeah.* [I've] *Just made some.*

Auxiliary verbs

In questions in informal conversation, with the second person pronoun *you*, we can leave out the auxiliary verb only:

[Have] *You finished your essay yet?*

[Are] *You going to the match on Saturday?*

We can also do the same in informal conversation in questions with third person noun subjects:

[Is] *Richard coming tonight?*

[Has] *Claire bought a new car yet? She said she was going to.*

We don't normally do this with the first person pronoun *I*:

Am I making too much noise?
Not: ~~*I making too much noise?*~~

Questions with question tags

In questions in informal conversation, we can leave out a subject pronoun, or a subject pronoun and an accompanying auxiliary verb, when we use a question tag:

[He] *Gave up his job, **did he?** I thought he would.*
[You] *Wrote to the local newspaper, **did you?** Good idea.*
A: *He was asked to leave the room.*
B: Yes. [He] *Didn't like it, **did he?***
A: No. *He wasn't at all happy.*
A: *Pat and Cathy certainly had a long break from work.*
B: Yeah. [They] *Went away for a month, **didn't they?***

Articles

In informal conversation, we can sometimes omit articles (*a/an, the*) when they are obvious from the context and when we use them at the beginning of a sentence:

[The] *Dog wants to go out. Can you open the door for him?*
A: *What are you looking for?*
B: [A] *Pen. Can you see one anywhere?*
[The] *Postman's just been. There's a letter for you.*

Fixed expressions

We often leave out the first word of a fixed expression in informal conversation because we know the listener will understand the expression:

*I'd love to go with you. [The] **Trouble is**, I've got to work on Saturday this week.*
*I can't read that. I'm [as] **blind as a bat** without my glasses.*

Substitution

Substitution is similar to ellipsis in many ways, because both enable the speaker to reduce what they are saying. Ellipsis is simply leaving something out that is usually obvious. Substitution involves using words such as *do* and *so* and *not* instead of a clause.

↔ Compare

ellipsis	substitution
A: <i>She could sleep in the study on the sofa.</i> B: Yes, she could [sleep in the study on the sofa].	<i>The Chairman threatened to resign, and he finally did so in 2008. (did so = resigned)</i>
A: <i>Will you have another cake?</i> B: I'd better not [have another cake]. I'm supposed to be on a diet.	A: <i>Is Charlie coming too?</i> B: I hope not . There's only enough food for three. (<i>not</i> = Charlie isn't coming)

→ Substitution 336

Else

117

Else with *someone, anybody, nobody, etc.*

117a

We use *else* after words beginning with *any-*, *every-*, *no-* and *some-*, to mean 'other', 'another', 'different' or 'additional'.

This group of words includes:

<i>anybody</i>	<i>everybody</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>somebody</i>
<i>anyone</i>	<i>everyone</i>	<i>no one</i>	<i>somewhere</i>
<i>anywhere</i>	<i>everywhere</i>	<i>nowhere</i>	<i>someone</i>

[in a shop; A is the shop assistant, B is the customer]

A: *Will there be **anything else**, sir?* (Do you want any additional thing(s)?)

B: *No thanks, that's it for now.*

*I was the only one who knew any German. **No one else** had ever done it at school.*
(No other person had ever learnt it.)

[outside a restaurant]

*It looks really busy in there. Let's go **somewhere else**.* (Let's go to a different place.)

*This must be **someone else's** coat. It's not mine.*

Else with *who, what, where, etc.*

117b

We use *else* after *how*, *what*, *where*, *who* and *why* to mean 'other', 'another', 'different' or 'additional':

***What else** do you need apart from new shoes?* (What other things do you need apart from new shoes?)

*We've invited Jean and Richard. **Who else** should we invite?* (What other person or people should we invite?)

***Where else** have you worked, apart from the airport?* (What other place(s) have you worked at?)

We don't use *else* after *which*:

***Which other one** do you want apart from this blue shirt?*

Not: *Which-else do you want ...?*

Else: or else

117c

We use *or else* to say what the result will be if something does not happen:

*I'll have to leave now, **or else** I'll miss my train.* (If I don't leave now, I'll miss my train.)

Enough

118

Enough is a determiner, a pronoun or an adverb. We use *enough* to mean 'as much as we need or want'.

Enough as a determiner

We can use *enough* before a noun as a determiner:

A: Do you have **enough money** to pay for your train fare and taxis?

B: Yes, thanks. I'm fine.

There was **enough food** for about ten people.

We use *enough of* before other determiners (*the, my*) and pronouns (*us, them*):

You haven't eaten **enough of** your dinner, Jason.

Not: You haven't eaten enough your dinner, Jason.

There weren't **enough of** them.

Not: There weren't enough them.

Enough as a pronoun

We can use *enough* as a pronoun:

[at the end of a meal]

A: Have you had **enough**?

B: Yes, thanks. That was delicious.

I need to go and get some more chairs. There aren't **enough** here.

Enough as an adverb

We use *enough* as an adverb of degree:

A: Are you ready for your exam?

B: Yes, I think I've studied **enough**. That's all I can do.

! We use *enough* as an adverb directly after an adjective or directly after another adverb:

Is this box **big enough** for all those books?

Not: Is this box enough big ...

Strangely enough, no one seemed to notice that Boris was in his pyjamas. (It is/was strange that no one ...)

Even

119

Even is an adverb.

We use *even* to refer to something surprising, unexpected, unusual or extreme:

He didn't **even** have enough money to pay the rent.

You love me, **even** after the terrible things I've done?

I'd never been abroad before, so it was a wonderful gift. I didn't have to pay for anything. When we got to the airport at Stansted, she'd **even** arranged for the captain to escort me on to the plane. It was a treat I will always remember.

Even: position

119a

When *even* refers to a whole clause or sentence, we usually put it in the normal mid position for adverbs, between the subject and the main verb, after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb:

*You can take an online course now and you **even** do the test online.*
*I haven't **even** started making dinner.*
*It's a really useful book if you're interested in cameras. There's **even** a chapter on buying second-hand ones.*

We can put *even* or *not even* before the part of the clause or sentence we want to focus on:

***Even** a five-year-old can see that these figures don't add up.*
*They came in cars, in lorries, and **even** an aeroplane.*
[talking about a local swimming pool]
*It's not usually too busy. Not **even** at weekends.*

We sometimes put *even* at the end of a clause or sentence in informal speaking.

↔ Compare

<i>I can't remember him at all. I've even forgotten what he looks like.</i>	typical position
<i>I can't remember him at all. I've forgotten what he looks like even.</i>	more informal, used in speaking

→ Adverbs and adverb phrases: position 23

Even and comparatives **119b**

We often use *even* with comparative adjectives and adverbs to add more emphasis:

*It is six years since U2 played in Belfast in 1987 on their world-conquering Joshua Tree tour. Since then they have become **even** bigger and richer, and their concerts **even** more popular.*
[talking about a footballer]
*Frank played well last season and this season he has played **even** better.*

Even and also **119c**

Even and *also* are both adverbs.

We use *even* to add emphasis or more information to a surprising or unexpected thing:

*Human beings, we are told, will live for 150, **even** 200 years, by the end of the century.*

We use *also* to add a new piece of information, without the suggestion that it is surprising:

*She was a very beautiful girl. She was **also** very bright and excelled at everything she did.*
Not: *She was even very bright ...*

↔ Compare

<i>He gave her a cake with 26 candles on. He even sang 'Happy Birthday'.</i>	The fact that he sang 'Happy Birthday' was unexpected.
<i>He gave her a cake with 26 candles on. He also sang 'Happy Birthday'.</i>	He did two things: he gave her a cake and he sang.

→ Even 119; Also, as well as or too? ○; As well (as) 44

Even though and even if**119d**

We can use *even* with *though* and *if*.

Even though means the same as *although*, 'in spite of the fact that'. We use it to say that something may not be what we expect. *Even though* gives more emphasis than *although*:

[talking about a football team]

*I think they're fantastic, **even though** they haven't won any games this season.*

We use *even* before *if* to refer to a possible unexpected or extreme event:

*I'm still going to go swimming in the sea **even if** it rains.* (I don't expect rain but it is possible.)

*I've got to get home **even if** it means flying the plane myself.* (I've got to get home and I'll do anything to get there.)

→ **Although or though? 32; If 168**

Even so**119e**

We use *even so* to make a contrast, to mean 'despite something'. It has a similar meaning to *however* or *nevertheless*.

It is most common in front position in the clause but we can also use it in end position. It often occurs after *but*:

*Their holiday went well but, **even so**, they longed to be home again with the children.*

[parent to child, getting into a car]

*You do need your seatbelt on. Put it on please. I know it's not very far, but **even so**.*

If we have an accident you'll need it.

*I know you don't like her, but you should say hello to her **even so**.*

Ever**120**

Ever is an adverb.

Ever: at any time**120a****Questions**

We use *ever* in questions:

*Has he **ever** scored a goal before?* (at any time in his life)

*Do you **ever** dream about winning the lottery?*

*Have you **ever** heard of The Ivy restaurant?*

Negatives

We can use *not ... ever* in negatives, but *never* is more common than *not ever*:

*Laurie **doesn't ever** call me at weekends. or Laurie **never** calls me ...*

We haven't **ever** had a problem with noise in the neighbourhood before or We've **never** had a problem with noise ...

We use *ever* in negative statements with words like *no one*, *nobody* and *hardly*:

No one ever told me what had happened.

I have hardly ever eaten Vietnamese food.

Ever after if

120b

We can use *ever* immediately after *if* or in mid position (between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after main verb *be*):

If ever you move house, I'd advise you to get a good removal company.

If you ever go to Edinburgh, make sure to visit the Art Gallery.

If I had ever wanted to stay in Manchester, they would have made me very welcome, I'm sure.

Ever so and ever such

120c

We use *ever* before *so* and *such* to add emphasis:

I feel ever so cold.

He was ever such a kind man.

→ So 323; Such 337

Ever since

120d

We use *ever* before *since* to emphasise that something has been true from the beginning of a specific period of time:

Ever since we met, we have been such great friends.

Mrs Leech doesn't go for walks on her own **ever since** she fell.

As ... as ever

120e

We can use *ever* with the comparative form *as ... as ...*. This shows a permanent characteristic of someone or something:

A: How is work?

B: Don't ask! It's **as busy as ever**.

They've built a new road around the city but traffic is as bad as ever.

Ever meaning 'always'

120f

In more formal situations, we can use *ever* with adjectives to mean 'always':

The company cannot sustain ever-decreasing profits.

Jones was ever available to help the family.

Every

121

Every is a determiner.

Every meaning 'each member of a group'**121a**

We use *every* + singular noun to refer individually to all the members of a complete group of something:

*There's a photograph on the wall of **every** child in the school.*

*Try to answer **every** question.*

When *every* refers to the subject of the clause, we use a singular verb:

***Every** player wants to be in a winning team.*

Not: ~~Every player want ...~~

***Every** cook needs good knives and a chopping board.*

The negative of *every* is normally *not every*:

***Not every** noun has a plural form.*

We use singular pronouns and possessives to refer back to *every* + noun, especially in more formal styles, and especially when what we refer to is not human:

***Every** store has a manager in charge of it.*

***Every** area has its own park.*

In less formal styles, the pronoun or possessive may be plural:

***Every** student gets a laptop. They have to give it back at the end of the course.*

***Every** user has their own password.*

→ All or every? 28; Each or every? 113

Every: regular situations**121b**

We use *every* with a singular noun to refer to something that happens regularly:

*The festival is held **every** August in Budapest.*

*I leave the house **every** morning at 6 am.*

Not: ~~I leave the house every mornings at 6 am.~~

We use *every* with a number and a plural noun to refer to regular intervals of time or numbers:

*There are buses into town **every** ten minutes.*

*He now works from home, travelling to Amsterdam **every** two weeks.*

Every day or everyday?

We write two words when *every day* means *each day*. The adjective *everyday* is one word. It means 'normal' or 'usual':

*The boys meet up **every day** in the park.*

Not: ~~The boys meet up everyday in the park.~~

*In the Soviet Union, poetry was at the centre of **everyday** life.*

Every single**121c**

We often use *single* with *every* to emphasise each member of a complete group of people or things:

He was the only player who played in **every single** match last season.

I've got to photocopy **every single** page.

Every one or everyone?

121d

We use *every one*, written as two words, to refer back to a noun we have already mentioned:

*I received more than a hundred letters from him while I was away and I've kept **every one**.*

Everyone, written as one word, means 'every person':

***Everyone** enjoyed themselves.*

We use *every one* of before pronouns and determiners:

*There are 107 two-letter words in the dictionary and John Catto, an Aberdeen lorry driver, knows **every one** of them.*

*When Jenkins joined the bank, one of his first acts was to make **every one** of the bank's employees reapply for their jobs.*

→ *Everyone, everybody, everything, everywhere* 122

Every other

121e

We use *every other* to mean 'alternate':

*We worked **every other** Sunday. (One Sunday he worked, the next Sunday he didn't work, the next Sunday he worked, etc.)*

*He works in Germany **every other** week. (One week he works in Germany, the next week he doesn't, the next week he does, etc.)*

Every: typical errors

121f

- We don't use *every* on its own, without a noun or without *one*:

*There were five rooms. **Every room** was decorated in a different style.*

Not: ~~Every was decorated in a different style.~~

- We don't use *every* with a plural noun:

*I go swimming **every** day.*

Not: ~~I go swimming every days.~~

→ *All or every?* 28

Everyone, everybody, everything, everywhere

122

Everyone, everybody, everything and *everywhere* are indefinite pronouns.

We use them to refer to a total number of people, things and places. We write them as one word:

*His name was Henry but **everyone** called him Harry.*

*All your clothes are clean. I washed **everything** yesterday.*

*The sand got **everywhere**, into eyes, hair, tents, cups of tea, camera lenses.*

We use *everyone*, *everybody*, *everything* and *everywhere* with singular verbs:

Everybody knows the truth.

At night, with the lights shining on the water, **everything** looks different.

We couldn't get a seat. **Everywhere** was so crowded.

! We don't add *s* to *everything* to make it plural:

Children can buy **everything** they want.

Not: Children can buy ~~everythings~~ they want.

When we want to refer back to *everyone* or *everybody* and we don't know if everyone is male or female, we use *him* or *her* and *his* or *her*. In informal styles, we use plural pronouns *they*, *their* and *them*:

Everybody has a team leader in charge of *him* or *her*.

Not everyone has *his* or *her* own desk.

Everyone has to climb to the top. When they get to the top, they have to blow their whistle. (more informal)

Has **everyone** got their coats? (more informal)

We can use *everybody* and *everyone* as the subject of imperative clauses. We use the base form of the verb:

Everybody stand up!

Everyone and everybody

Everyone and *everybody* mean the same. *Everyone* is a little more formal than *everybody*. *Everyone* is used more in writing than *everybody*:

She knew **everybody** in the room.

Could **everybody** listen for a minute?

When **everyone** had gathered in the garden, Sergeant joined them and said, 'Welcome, **everyone**!'

→Pronouns: indefinite 288

Typical error

- We write *everyone* as one word:

Twenty years ago **everyone** used an alarm clock that rang like a bell. (every person)

Not: Twenty years ago ~~every one~~ used an alarm clock ...

- We don't normally use 'all people' to generalise about human beings:

Everyone has a right to basic freedoms.

→*Every one* or *everyone*? 121d

Exclamations

123

We use exclamations to express surprise or shock or a strong emotion about something. The type of phrase or clause associated with exclamations is called exclamative.

We usually form exclamatives with *what* or *how*. In writing, we usually put an exclamation mark (!) at the end of the exclamative:

What an amazing car!

How I love the summer holidays!

What ...!

123a

We can use *what* + noun phrase ((+ verb) (+ tag)):

+ noun phrase	+ verb	+ tag
<i>What a beautiful day!</i>	<i>What a beautiful day it is!</i>	<i>What a beautiful day it is, isn't it!</i>
<i>What bad luck!</i>	<i>What bad luck they had!</i>	<i>What bad luck they had, didn't they!</i>

How ...!

123b

We often use *how* followed by an adjective only:

How sweet! How lovely! How amazing!

We can use *How* + adjective/adverb + subject + verb:

How interesting it was to hear her story!

How wonderful it is to see you!

How beautifully she sang! Everyone was delighted.

In informal styles, we can also use *How* + adjective + verb + subject. This is particularly common in American English:

How clever am I!

How crazy is that!

Here are some short expressions we use to express surprise:

Wow!

No way!

Gosh!

That's amazing!

Exclamatives with interrogative form

123c

We sometimes make an exclamation using interrogative (question) word order:

Have I got news for you! Peter and Michaela are getting divorced! (or, less strong: I've got news for you!)

Did I do something stupid last night!

→ Punctuation 293; *Such* or *so*? 338; Interjections 179; Clause types 71

Expect, hope or wait?

124

Expect

124a

We use *expect* to say that we believe that something will happen. We use *expect* in the following main patterns:

*expect + object: She's **expecting** a second baby.*

*expect + to-infinitive: We **expect** to move into our new flat next week.*

*expect + that-clause: We **expected** that the guest house would have much better rooms.*

*expect + object + to-infinitive: The company **expects** her to be early.*

Expect also means 'think' or 'suppose'. When expect has this meaning, we do not commonly use it in the continuous form:

A: Will he have bought the necklace by now?

*B: I **expect** so.*

Not: I'm ~~expecting~~ so.

*I **expect** that he'll be wearing that bright blue shirt.*

Not: I ~~am expecting~~ ...

When we expect that something will not happen or is not true, expect is most commonly used in a negative form:

*I **don't expect** she will pass the exam. (preferred to I expect she won't pass ...)*

Hope

124b

We use hope when we do not know whether something will happen or not but we want it to happen. We use hope in the following patterns:

*hope + to-infinitive: I think you were **hoping** to see your family next week.*

*hope + that clause: I **hope** that your sister recovers quickly from the operation.*

*hope + for: [parents discussing the birth of their next child] We've already got two boys so we're **hoping** for a girl.*

We use hope to express good intentions and wishes for the future:

*I **hope** we can see each other soon.*

Not: I wish we can see each other soon.

*I **hope** you enjoy your stay in Greece.*

Not: I wish you enjoy your stay in Greece.

→ Wish 385

Wait

124c

We use wait when we refer to letting time pass because we are expecting that something is going to happen. We use wait in the following main patterns:

*wait (imperative): Just **wait** here with the bags and I'll go and get a taxi.*

*wait + for: Don't worry. I'll **wait** for you.*

*wait + to-infinitive: When the band arrived at the concert hall, a large crowd of screaming fans were **waiting** to greet them.*

*wait + for + object + to-infinitive: They're **waiting** for him to make up his mind and won't do anything until he does.*

Expect, hope or wait: typical errors**124d**

- We don't use *wait* or *wait for* to say that we believe that something will happen. We use *expect*:

*People usually **expect** holidays to revive their spirits and renew their souls and they often succeed in achieving that target.*

Not: *People usually wait for holidays to ...*

- We don't use *expect* to refer to time passing when we are talking about something that we hope is going to happen:

*I look forward very much to hearing from you soon, and I **wait** anxiously for a positive answer.*

Not: ... and I expect anxiously a positive answer.

→ Hope 163; Look forward to 3; Suppose, supposing and what if 342

Fast, quick or quickly?**125**

Fast and *quick* mean moving with great speed. *Fast* is both an adjective and an adverb. *Quick* is an adjective and the adverb form is *quickly*.

↔ Compare

<i>It was a fast train.</i> <i>We need to have a quick chat before the meeting.</i>	<i>Fast and quick are adjectives.</i>
<i>You walk very fast!</i> Not: ... very fastly. <i>We should do it as quickly as possible.</i>	<i>Fast and quickly are adverbs.</i>

We usually use *quick* to refer to something happening in a short time, or a shorter than expected time:

*We stopped for a **quick** snack.*

Not: ... a fast snack.

*I just need a **quick** answer.*

Not: ... a fast answer.

Fast refers to things that happen or go at high speed, e.g. a train, a person running:

*She loves **fast** cars.*

Not: She loves quick cars.

Note the common expression *fast food* to refer to food such as hamburgers, which are cooked and served in a very short time in restaurants:

*You shouldn't eat so much **fast food**. It's not good for you.*

→ Comparative and superlative adjectives 77a Adverbs: comparative and superlative forms 78a

Finally, at last, lastly or in the end?**126**

Finally, at last, lastly and in the end all have a meaning of 'after a period of time'. However, we use them in different ways.

Finally

We use *finally* to refer to something that happened after a long time and usually after some difficulties. In this meaning, *finally* most commonly occurs in the normal mid position for adverbs, between the subject and the main verb, after the modal verb or the first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb:

*There were no taxis and we **finally** got home at 2 pm.*

*She's had over twenty interviews but Jasmine has **finally** got a job as a journalist.*

At last

We use *at last* when we have been impatient as a result of long delays. Like *finally*, *at last* occurs in the normal mid position for adverbs as well as in front and end position:

***At last** I've discovered how to print envelopes on my printer!*

*She has **at last** given me the book she promised me.*

*They're here **at last!!** We've been waiting half an hour.*

Lastly

We use *lastly* to refer to something that comes at the end of a long list:

*We need eggs, milk, sugar, bread and, **lastly**, we mustn't forget yoghurt for Dad.*

*I've thanked my parents but **lastly** I must thank all my friends for their help.*

In the end

We use *in the end* to refer to a conclusion after a long process, after a lot of changes or after a lot of discussion:

*We were going to ski in Austria, then the South of France and **in the end** we decided to go to Italy.*

*And then, **in the end**, after months of discussion they offered to buy our house.*

Finite and non-finite verbs**127**

Finite verb forms show tense, person and number (*I go, she goes, we went*, etc.):

*She **was** **waiting** in the room before he **came** in.*

***Does** your brother **know** my brother?*

*The night before he **had** to leave, they **sat** on the small sofa in the living-room and **looked** at old family photos.*

***Aren't** you a bit late?*

Non-finite verb forms do not show tense, person or number. Typically they are infinitive forms with and without *to* (e.g. *to go*, *go*), *-ing* forms and *-ed* forms (e.g. *going*, *gone*):

She tiptoed round the house so as not to wake anyone.

You need to paint the whole cupboard, starting from the bottom.

[from a biography]

Taken prisoner by the British in December 1776, he was held in New York City for a year ...

→Clauses: finite and non-finite 69

First, firstly or at first?

128

First and firstly

First can be an adjective or an adverb and refers to the person or thing that comes before all others in order, time, amount, quality or importance:

*What's the name of the **first** person who walked on the moon?* (adjective)

*Beth always arrives **first** at meetings.* (adverb)

We often use *first*, especially in writing, to show the order of the points we want to make. When we are making lists, we can use *first* or *firstly*. *Firstly* is more formal than *first*:

Dear Mr Yates

***First(ly)** I would like to thank you for your kind offer of a job ...*

Not: *At first I would like to thank you ...*

***First(ly)** the sodium chloride is dissolved in the water and heated gently. **Second(ly)** a dye is added to the solution.*

Not: *At first, the sodium chloride ...*

At first

At first means 'at the beginning' or 'in the beginning' and we use it when we make contrasts:

***At first** when I went to England to study English, I was homesick, but in the end I cried when it was time to leave.*

*He called for help. No one heard him **at first**, but eventually two young girls came to help him.*

→Finally, at last, lastly or in the end? 126

For**129**

For is usually a preposition and sometimes a conjunction.

For: purpose**129a**

We use *for* to talk about a purpose or a reason for something:

*I'm going **for** some breakfast. I'm really hungry.*

*She leaves on Friday **for** a 15-day cruise around the Mediterranean.*

*I wear these old trousers **for** painting.*

In questions we often use *what ... for* instead of *why* to ask about the reason or purpose of something especially in informal situations:

***What** are you here **for**?*

***What** are they doing it **for**?*

→ *For + -ing* 130

For someone**129b**

We often use *for* to introduce the person or people receiving something:

*She bought a teapot **for** her sister.*

*Mike Cranham and his staff at the hotel cook **for** 800 people a day, on average.*

For: duration**129c**

We use *for* with a period of time to refer to duration (how long something lasts):

*There's a lovely open-air pool near us. We usually go there **for** a couple of hours in the evenings when it's warm enough.*

! Don't confuse *for* and *in* when referring to time:

*We're going to Cape Town **for** two months. (We will spend two months in Cape Town.)*

*We're going to Cape Town **in** two months. (We're leaving to go to Cape Town two months from now.)*

After a negative we can use *for* and *in* with the same meaning. *In* is particularly common in American English:

*I haven't seen him **in** five years. (or **for** five years.)*

→ *For or since?* 131

For: exchange**129d**

We use *for* to refer to an exchange:

[sign in a food shop]

*2 **for** £2 or £1.36 each. (Two for two pounds or one pound thirty-six each.)*

*I got 124 euros **for** 100 pounds at today's exchange rate.*

For meaning because**129e**

We sometimes use *for* as a conjunction meaning 'because'. We use it in very formal, and often literary, contexts:

*Chasing the white stag through the forests, never catching it, of course, **for** it is a creature of legend.*

For in multi-word verbs**129f**

We often combine *for* with a verb to form a multi-word verb:

*She's been **caring for** her mother for years.*

*It's not a good time to **look for** it now. We have to go.*

You will find other multi-word verbs with *for* in a good learner's dictionary.

→ Verbs: multi-word verbs 363

For + -ing**130****For + -ing: function****130a**

We use *for* + the -ing form of a verb to talk about the function of something or how something is used:

*I need something **for storing** CDs.*

[a PC is a personal computer]

*The PC is still the most popular tool **for developing** software systems.*

For + -ing: reason**130b**

We use *for* + the -ing form of a verb to refer to the reason for something:

*You should talk to Jane about it. You know, she's famous **for being** a good listener. (A lot of people know she's such a good listener.)*

For + -ing or to + infinitive?**130c**

! We don't use *for* + -ing to express our purpose or intention. We use *to* + infinitive:

*We're going to Lisbon **to visit** my aunt.*

Not: *We're going to Lisbon ~~for visiting~~ my aunt. or ... ~~for visit~~ my aunt.*

*He's now studying **to be** a doctor.*

Not: *He's now studying ~~for to be~~ a doctor. or ... ~~for being~~ a doctor.*

*You don't need to bring anything. There'll be sandwiches **to eat** and juice **to drink**.*

Not: *There'll be sandwiches ~~for eat~~ and juice ~~for drink~~.*

For or since?

131

We use *for* with a period of time in the past, present or future.

We use *since* with a point in time in the past.

↔ Compare

<i>He lived in Oxford for 3 years and then he moved.</i> (completed past) <i>They've lived in Oxford for a couple of months.</i> (began in the past and continues into the present) <i>We're going to stay in Oxford for three days and then we're going to London for a day.</i> (future plans)	<i>For</i> refers to periods of time, e.g. 3 years, 4 hours, ages, a long time, months, years.
<i>They've lived in Oxford since 2004.</i>	<i>Since</i> refers to a previous point in time.

! We don't use *since* with periods of time:

*She's been on the phone **for** hours.*

Not: *She's been on the phone **since** hours.*

→ Present perfect: *for* and *since* 284b

From

132

From is a preposition.

Starting point

132a

We use *from* to show the time or point in time when something starts:

*Tickets for the concert are on sale **from** Monday.*

*The finals take place **from** 1.30 pm on Sunday.*

We use *from* to show the level that things begin at, such as numbers or prices:

*Prices start **from** £366 per week for a property that sleeps four, including a return ferry crossing.*

We use *from* to talk about distance in relation to somewhere else:

*The Metro station is nearby and we are only five minutes **from** the motorway.*

Origin

132b

We use *from* to refer to the place where someone or something starts or originates:

*Bernie comes **from** Manchester.*

*We get our vegetables **from** the farm shop. They're really fresh.*

*Would you get me a knife **from** that drawer?*

We use *from* to talk about the way we use materials or ingredients to make things:

*Camembert is also made **from** unpasteurised milk, like Brie.*

[A twig is a small, thin stick from a tree. A broom is a type of brush.]

*Brooms used to be made **from** twigs.*

→Of 242; *Made from, made of, made out of, made with* ○

From ... to

132c

We use *from ... to* to talk about ranges of different things:

*Prices range **from** £405 **to** £425, depending on the size of the room, and include breakfast and dinner.*

*Sir Edward Youde was the Governor of Hong Kong **from** 1982 **to** 1985.*

*The river flows **from** east **to** west.*

*There were six Miller children, ranging in age **from** nineteen **to** seven.*

We use *from ... to* to talk about a change in the state of someone or something:

*He's moved **from** Wimbledon **to** Leeds.*

*A small cloud of smoke rose from the glass and the colour of the liquid changed **from** red **to** purple, and **from** purple **to** a watery green.*

Fronting

133

The most common word order in a declarative clause is subject (s) + verb (v) + object (o) or complement:

[s] [v] [o]

I bought a new camera.

Sometimes, particularly in speaking, when we want to focus on something important, we bring it to the front of the clause. This is called 'fronting':

*I bought a new camera. And **a very expensive camera** it was.* (Most common word order: It was a very expensive camera.)

Some elements like adjuncts or complements do not typically belong at the beginning of a clause. When we want to focus on them, we bring them to the front or beginning of the clause. We often find this in written literary or formal contexts.

↔ **Compare**

<i>Carefully, he removed the lid.</i> (fronted so as to focus on <i>carefully</i>)	<i>He removed the lid carefully.</i> (most common word order)
<i>All of a sudden, it started to snow.</i> (fronted so as to focus on <i>all of a sudden</i>)	<i>It started to snow all of a sudden.</i> (most common word order)

When the fronting involves a prepositional phrase (*on the corner, in front of me*) we often change the order of the subject and the verb.

↔ Compare

fronted prepositional phrase followed by verb + subject	most common word order
<i>On the corner stood a little shop.</i>	<i>A little shop stood on the corner.</i>
<i>In front of me was the President of Chile.</i>	<i>The President of Chile was in front of me.</i>

In informal speaking we commonly take the subject or object from within the clause and put it at the front of the clause. We often do this when the noun phrase is long and we usually use a pronoun to replace it in the clause:

That man over there with the dog, he works in the corner shop. (That man over there with the dog works in the corner shop.)

That book you told me about, they've made it into a film. (They've made that book you told me about into a film.)

→ Clauses 68; Headers and tails 159; Word order: structures 391

Future

134

There is no future tense in English. We use several different ways to talk about the future. The most common are:

They're going to build a new shopping centre here. (*be going to*)

Leena is working in Singapore next week. (present continuous)

I think they will postpone the match. (modal verb *will*)

Nadia arrives in about half-an-hour from now. (present simple)

I'll be running ten kilometres a day for the next two weeks to get ready for the marathon. (future continuous)

We're late. Do you think the lecture will have started? (future perfect)

We're just about to leave for the cinema. (*be about to*)

The president is to visit Brazil in November. (*be to*)

The visitors are due to arrive at the factory early in the morning. (*be due to*)

I was on the point of leaving my job but then I got promoted so I changed my mind. (*be on the point of*)

She promised she would return soon. (future in the past)

They said they were having a holiday next April. (future in the past)

Future: *be going to* (I am going to work)

135

Be going to: form

135a

We use *be going to* + the base form of the verb:

I'm going to take a few exams at the end of the year.

It's going to be difficult to get a job during the summer as the tourist industry is suffering from the economic downturn.

Be going to: uses

135b

Be going to is commonly used in informal styles.

Intentions

We use *be going to* to talk about future plans and intentions. Usually the decision about the future plans has already been made:

She's going to be a professional dancer when she grows up.

I'm going to look for a new place to live next month.

Predictions

We use *be going to* to predict something that we think is certain to happen or which we have evidence for now:

It's going to snow again soon. (The speaker can probably see dark snow clouds.)

Look out! He's going to break that glass.

Commands

We use *be going to* when we give commands or state that something is obligatory:

[parent to a child]

You're going to pick up all of those toys right now. This room is a mess!

Gonna (informal contexts)

135c

 We use *gonna* /gənə/ instead of *going to* in informal contexts, especially in speaking and in song lyrics. We write *gonna* to show how to pronounce it:

Are you gonna try and get stuff sorted as soon as you can then? (Are you going to try and get things organised as soon as you can?)

One day I'm gonna be a star.

Be going to or will?

135d

Will is often used in a similar way to *be going to*. *Will* is used when we are talking about something with absolute certainty. *Be going to* is used when we want to emphasise our decision or the evidence in the present:

[An 'A' road is a main road. A 'B' road is a smaller road.]

We are now very late so we're going to take the 'B' road. (the speaker refers to the present and emphasises the decision)

I know the 'B' road will be quicker at this time of day. (the speaker states a fact)

→ Will 384; Future: *will* and *shall* 138

Future: present continuous to talk about the future (*I'm working tomorrow*) 136

The present continuous can refer to the future. It shows that we have already decided something and usually that we have already made a plan or arrangements:

[talking about plans for a tour by a rock music group]

*The band **is visiting** Denmark next May.*

*I **am taking** the train to Paris tomorrow.*

! We don't use the present continuous when we predict something. Instead, we use *going to* or *will*:

*It's **going to** rain again soon.*

Not: ~~It's raining again soon.~~

→Present continuous 278; Future: *be going to* 135

Future: present simple to talk about the future (*I work tomorrow*) 137

The present simple is used to refer to events in the future which are certain because they are facts, or because there is a clear or fixed schedule or timetable:

*Her birthday **falls** on a Friday next year. (a known fact about the future)*

*She **has** her driving test next week, **does** she? (a fixed arrangement)*

*The train **arrives** at 20.12. (a timetable)*

*What time **does** their flight to Seoul **leave**? (a schedule)*

Future: *will* and *shall* 138

Will and *shall*: form 138a

Will and *shall* are modal verbs. They are used with the base form of the main verb (*They will go; I shall ask her*). *Shall* is only used for future time reference with *I* and *we*, and is more formal than *will*.

	singular and plural		
+	<i>I, we she, he, it, you, they</i>	(full form) will or shall will	work
	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(short form) 'll	

–	I, we she, he, it, you, they	(full form) will not or shall not will not	work
	I, we she, he, it, you, they	(short form) won't or shan't won't	
? + Will or Shall Will	I, we she, he, it, you, they		
? – Won't or Shan't Won't	I, we she, he, it, you, they		work?

'll: short forms of *shall* and *will*



In speaking, *shall* and *will* are usually contracted to 'll, especially after subject pronouns (*I, we, you, they, she, he, it*):

We'll meet you outside the coffee shop. (more common in speaking than *We will meet you outside the coffee shop*)

Will and shall: uses

138b

Predictions

We use *will* and *shall* to make predictions and to state facts about the future:

*There **will** be strong winds tomorrow in the south of the country.*

*The year 2025 **will** be the four-hundredth anniversary of the founding of the university.*

*We **shall** need an extra bedroom when the new baby arrives.*

Decisions and offers

Will and *shall* (usually in the short form 'll) are used to announce decisions and to make offers:

[a salesperson in a clothes shop is talking to a customer]

A: *Which size do you want? Medium or large?*

B: *I'll have large.* (decision)

Wait. I'll open the door for you. (offer)

Not: *Wait. I open the door for you.*

*I **shall** contact you again when I have further information.*

→Offers 243

Shall with I and we

We can use *shall* instead of *will* with *I* and *we* in statements. Its use is more formal:

We **shall** never forget the holiday we had in Vietnam.

When we use *shall I* and *shall we* in questions it is usually to make suggestions rather than to refer to future time:

It's getting late. **Shall we** go home?

Shall I invite Louisa and Jill to the party?

→ *Be going to or will?* 135d; *Will* 384; *Shall* 320; *Suggestions* 341

Future continuous (I will be working) 139

Future continuous: form 139a

We use *will/shall + be + the -ing form of the verb*.

	singular and plural		
+	I, she, he, it, you, we, they	will 'll	be working
-	I, she, he, it, we, you, they I, she, he, it, you, we, they	(full form) will not (short form) won't	be working
? + Will ? - Won't	I, she, he, it, you, we, they		be working?

Less commonly, and in more formal situations, we can also use *shall* instead of *will* with *I* and *we*.

→ *Future: will and shall* 138

Future continuous: use 139b

We use the future continuous to refer to temporary actions and events that will be in progress at a particular time in the future:

This time next week, I'll **be taking** photographs with my new camera.



I'll post your letter for you. I'll **be passing** a post-box.

Next week they **will be flying** to Australia from Saudi Arabia.

*She **will not be working** on Tuesday.*
*Unfortunately we **won't be attending** the wedding.*

Future in the past **140**

When we talk about the past, we sometimes want to refer to something which was in the future at the time we were speaking. We use past verb forms to do this:

*The last time I met her, she **was leaving** for a new job in Italy the following day.*
(past form of *She is leaving*)

*They rang to say they **would be** with us by ten o'clock but then their flight was cancelled.* (past form of *They will be with us*)

[a novelist writes about a house where he wrote his novel]
*I saw the house that I **was to** live in for the next six months.* (past form of *I am to live in this house*)

*He said he **was going to** see the match but it was cancelled.* (past form of *He is going to see the match*)

Future perfect continuous (*I will have been working here ten years*) **141**

Future perfect continuous: form **141a**

We use *will/shall + have + been + the -ing form of the verb*.
We use *shall* only for future time reference with *I* and *we*. *Shall* is more formal and less common than *will*.

	singular and plural		
+	<i>I, we</i> <i>she, he, it, you, they</i>	(full form) will or shall will	have been working
	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(short form) 'll	
-	<i>I, we</i> <i>she, he, it, you, they</i>	(full form) will not or shall not will not	have been working
	<i>I, we</i> <i>she, he, it, you, they</i>	(short form) won't or shan't won't	
? + Will ? - Won't	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>		have been working?

Note: *Shall I, shall we* and *shan't I, shan't we* in future perfect continuous questions are rare.

Future perfect continuous: use

141b

Emphasising the length of an event at a time in the future

We use the future perfect continuous form when we are looking back to the past from a point in the future and we want to emphasise the length or duration of an activity or event:

*In September the head teacher **will have been teaching** at the school for 20 years.*



*In September, she **will have been living** in France for a year.*

*I **will have been studying** English for three years by the end of this course.*

*We're late. I think they'll **have been waiting** for us. We'd better go.*

→Future: *will* and *shall* 138; *Shall* 320; *Will* 384

Future perfect simple (*I will have worked eight hours*)

142

Future perfect simple: form

142a

We use *will/shall* + *have* + the *-ed* form of the verb.

We use *shall* only for future time reference with *I* and *we*. *Shall* is more formal than *will*.

	singular and plural		
+	<i>I, we</i> <i>she, he, it, you, they</i>	(full form) <i>will</i> or <i>shall</i> <i>will</i>	<i>have worked</i>
	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(short form) <i>'ll</i>	

-	I, we she, he, it, you, they	(full form) will not or shall not will not	have worked
	I, we she, he, it, you, they	(short form) won't or shan't won't	
? + Will			have worked?
? - Won't	I, she, he, it, you, we, they		

Note: *Shall I, shall we* and *shan't I, shan't we* in future perfect questions are rare.

Future perfect simple: use

142b

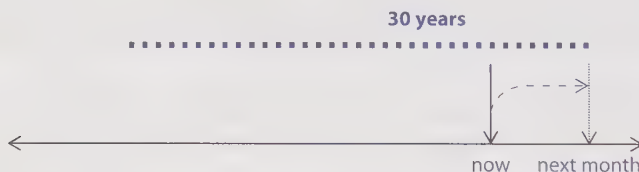
Events finished by a certain time in the future

We use the future perfect form when we look back to the past from a point in the future. We usually use a time phrase, for example *by tomorrow*, *for three years*:

*Do you think she'll **have seen** the doctor by four o'clock?*



*Next month my parents **will have been** together for thirty years.*



*At the end of this month, they **will have been** in their house for one year.*

*Next month I **will have worked** for the company for six years.*

*I think they'll **have got** there by six o'clock.*

***Won't** she **have retired** by the end of the year? (more common than *Will she not have retired?*)*

Future: other expressions to talk about the future

143

We use a number of expressions with main verb *be* when we refer to the future, especially the immediate future.

Be about to**143a**

We use *be about to* + base form of the verb to refer to things that we expect to happen very soon. We often use it with *just*, for emphasis:

*The ferry is **about to** leave.*

*The driver is **about to** collect them. Shall I phone to stop him?*

*We're just **about to** set off for a walk. Do you want to come?*

! With time expressions, we don't use *be about to*, we use the present simple:

*Hurry up, please! The coach **is about to** leave!*

*Hurry up, please! The coach **leaves** in five minutes!*

Not: ~~The coach is about to leave in five minutes!~~

Be on the point of**143b**

We can also use *be on the point of* + -ing form to refer to things that we expect to happen very soon. *Be on the point of* is similar to *be just about to*:

*I was **on the point of** leaving my job but then I got promoted so I changed my mind.*

Be due to**143c**

We use *be due to* + base form of the verb to talk about things that are scheduled:

*The visitors **are due to** arrive at the factory at 10:30.*

Be to**143d**

Be to + base form of the verb has a number of meanings. It is rather formal.

Obligations

Be to refers to what someone is obliged or required to do. We also use it to refer to formal decisions:

[referring to an obligation]

*If I **am not to** tell anyone, then that's simply not fair.*

[making decisions at a business meeting]

*So, George **is to** contact the Stockholm office, and Patricia **is to** speak to the Elsico representative. Agreed?*

Commands and instructions

We can also use *be to* when we give someone commands or instructions:

*You **are to** report to the head office by 8.30 am.*

*She's **not to** be late. OK?*

→ Commands and instructions 76

Headlines

Be to is common in newspaper headlines to refer to events which have been fixed or decided. We don't always use the verb:

Prime Minister to announce emergency plan on climate change. (a headline – used without a verb) (Full form: *The Prime Minister is to announce an emergency plan on climate change.*)

→ *Be expressions* 54

Future: typical errors

144

We don't use the present continuous when we predict something:

You're going to fail the exam unless you attend more classes.

Not: *You're failing the exam, unless ...*

When we make an immediate decision, we use *'ll not will* or *shall* or the simple present tense:

Wait a minute, I'll lend you my car.

Not: ... *I shall lend you my car.* or ... *I lend you my car.*

Get

145

Get is an irregular verb. Its three parts are *get, got, got*. In American English, the *-ed* form *gotten* is common.

Get is a very common verb, especially in informal speaking and writing. *Get* has many different meanings and is used in many idioms. We use it less often in formal writing. *Get* has many different grammatical patterns depending on the meaning.

Get meaning 'fetch', 'receive', 'obtain'

145a

We commonly use *get* + object or *get* + indirect object + direct object when we mean, very generally, 'fetch' or 'receive' or 'obtain'. In these examples the object is underlined:

When are you going to get your new car?

They were all dismissed from the firm but two of them managed to get new jobs within a week.

These examples have an indirect object (io) and a direct object (do):

Can you get me an ice-cream? Thanks.

Can we stop here? I need to get Fiona and Steven some cash from the cash machine.

Get meaning 'become'

145b

We commonly use *get* + adjective to mean 'become' or to describe a change of state or situation:

Put your coat and scarf on or you'll get cold.

Let's hope she **gets** better soon.

It's **getting** dark.

Get describing negative events

145c

We can use *get* + *-ed* form to describe things that happen to us, often things which are unfortunate and which we don't want to happen. We call this pattern the *get passive*:

*The cottage **got** really badly damaged in the floods last year.*

*Sorry we're late. The train **got** delayed for over an hour outside Manchester.*

Get meaning 'cause something to happen'

145d

When we use *get* + object (o) + *-ed* form, we say that we cause something to happen or to be done. It is a less formal way of saying *have something done*:

*I'm **getting** the computer **repaired** on Monday.*

*I'm going to the supermarket so I'll **get** your jacket **cleaned** if you like.*

We also use *get* + noun phrase object (o) + object complement (oc) to mean that we cause something to happen:

[at a hotel reception desk]

*Sorry to keep you waiting. We're just **getting** the bill ready for you now.*

Get + object + infinitive with *to*, and *get* + object + *-ing* form have similar meanings of 'cause or persuade to happen':

*They **got** me **to talk** to the police, even though I knew it wouldn't help. (They persuaded me to talk to the police ...)*

*Can you help me **get** this printer working?*

Get is a word with many different meanings. You will find other meanings of *get*, and phrasal verbs with *get*, in a good learner's dictionary.

→ *Get passive* 147; *Get or go?* 146; *Have got and have* 155; *Have something done* 157

Get or go?

146

Get and *go* have similar meanings, when talking about travel or motion. When we use *get*, we emphasise arrival:

*We'll phone you as soon as we **get** to Rome.*

Not: *We'll phone you as soon as we go to Rome.*

*The thing is, he missed the bus and **got** to school late and missed part of the match.*

Not: ... and went to school late and ...

We use *get on* and *get off* not *go on* and *go off* for buses, trains, planes:

*When I **got on** the plane, there was someone sitting in my seat.*

Not: *When I went on the plane ...*

*Liam will be waiting for me when I **get off** the train.*

Not: ... when I go off the train.

! *Get up* means 'leave your bed in the morning'; *go up* means 'go to a higher place or position':

*What time do we have to **get up** tomorrow?*

Not: *What time do we have to ~~go up~~ tomorrow?*

Get and *go* are both used to mean 'become', but they combine with different adjectives. We often use *get* with words like *dark*, *light* and *late*; we use *go* with colours and words with negative associations such as *mad*, *bald*, *bad*:

*It's **getting** dark now so be careful.*

Not: *... ~~going~~ dark ...*

*He's only 30 and he's **going** bald.*

Not: *... and he's ~~getting~~ bald.*

*We left the milk in the sun too long and it's **gone** bad.*

Not: *... and it's ~~got~~ bad.*

However, with some adjectives such as *old*, *sick*, *tired* and *ill*, we use *get*:

*He **got** very tired walking to the match in such a large crowd.*

Not: *He ~~went~~ very tired walking ...*

Get passive

147

We form the standard passive with *be* + *-ed* form. We form the *get* passive with *get* + *-ed* form:

*The trees in the garden **were** damaged in the wind.* (standard passive)

*The trees in the garden **got** damaged in the wind.* (*get* passive)

We use the *get* passive especially in informal speaking. When we use the *get* passive, we also place a little more emphasis on the nature of the action itself or on the person involved in the action:

*There were blizzards over night and the whole town **got** snowed in.* ('Get snowed in' here means to be unable to leave the town because of heavy falls of snow.)

*I've got good news for you. Jim finally **got** promoted.*

*They had only known each other for six months when they **got** married in Las Vegas.*

The *get* passive is commonly used in speaking of events that are negative or not desired:

*They've worked there for three years but they still **got** sacked (lost their jobs).*

*He feels his paintings **are** always **getting** criticised.*

*Our car **got** stolen last night.*

We sometimes use a reflexive pronoun with the *get* passive. This suggests the subject was at least partly responsible for the event or made it happen:

*I **got myself** locked out the other day. I stupidly left my keys in the bedroom. (or I **got** locked out ...)*

→ Passive: active and passive 257a; Passives without an agent 257d; Get 145

Go**148**

We use *go* to refer to movement, most commonly away from the speaker or listener to another place. We normally use *go* without an object:

*Does this tram **go** to the city centre?*

*Can you wait here while I **go** back to the house to fetch my jacket?*

! Don't confuse *go* and *walk*:

*Shall we take the bus or shall we **walk**?*

Not: ~~Shall we take the bus or shall we go?~~

Go + -ing**148a**

We use *go* + *-ing* form when we speak about general activities that involve movement:

*Jack and his dad have **gone fishing** until later this evening.*

*It was pouring with rain and all we could do was to **go shopping**.*

If the activities have a clear beginning and end, then *go* + *to*-infinitive is used:

*They've **gone to watch** the tennis final.*

Not: ~~They've gone watching ...~~

Go + complement**148b**

We use *go* + an adjective (complement) to describe changes to the state of things:

*Don't let the coffee **go cold**.*

*Their car **went wrong** again just two days after it had been repaired.*

Go is a word with many different meanings. You will find other meanings of *go*, and phrasal verbs with *go*, in a good learner's dictionary.

→ Get 145; Get or go? 146

Go and, come and ...**148c**

In speaking, we often use *and* after *go* and *come* before the base form of verbs like *ask*, *buy*, *check*, *collect*, *do*, *find*, *get*:

*Why don't you **go and ask** her?*

*I need to **go and buy** myself some running shoes.*

*Can you **come and do** the washing-up?*

*She should **go and find** another job.*

! In informal American English, speakers often leave out *and*:

*Would you like to **come have** lunch with us?*

*I was expecting him to **go get** the keys.*

Going to

149

Going to: present continuous

149a

We use the present continuous form of the verb *go* + preposition *to* + noun phrase to talk about movement in relation to a place or a person in the present:

Are you going to Maggie's party tonight?

I'm going to the shops. Do you want anything?

Going to: future

149b

We can use a present form of *be* + *going to* + the base form of a main verb to talk about the future. We use it for plans and intentions, predictions and commands:

I'm going to buy a new car next week. (plan or intention)

You're not going to do all this in an hour. There's just too much to do. (prediction: the speaker can see how much there is to do)

I'm telling you, you're going to do it. You don't have a choice. (command)

Was going to

149c

We use a past form of *be* + *going to* when we talk about a plan we had that may have changed.

↔ Compare

A: <i>You're not staying out in this rain, are you?</i> B: Well I am going to, yes.	B definitely intends to stay out in the rain.
A: <i>You're not staying out in this rain, are you?</i> B: Well I was going to, yes.	B intended to stay out but may have changed his mind.

→ Modality: introduction 207; *Will* 384; *Gonna* 135c; Commands and instructions 76; Future 134

Had better

150

Had better: form and meaning

150a

We use *had better* to refer to the present or the future, to talk about actions we think people should do or which are desirable in a specific situation. The verb form is always *had*, not *have*. We normally shorten it to *'d better* in informal situations. It is followed by the infinitive without *to*:

It's five o'clock. I'd better go now before the traffic gets too bad.

Not: *I'd better to go now.*

The democratic movement had better concentrate on the immediate issues of the economy and security. (more formal)

Had better is a strong expression. We use it if we think there will be negative results if someone does not do what is desired or suggested:

*She'd **better** get here soon or she'll miss the opening ceremony.*

Sometimes people say *had best* instead of *had better*, especially in informal speaking. This sounds slightly less strong and less direct:

*You'd **best** leave it till Monday. There's no one in the office today.*

Had better: negative and question forms

150b

The negative of *had better* is *had better not* (or *'d better not*):

*I'd **better not** leave my bag there. Someone might steal it.*

*You'd **better not** tell Elizabeth about the broken glass – she'll go crazy!*

The question form of *had better* is made by inverting the subject and *had*. This means the same as *should*, but is more formal:

***Had I better** speak to Joan first before I send this form off? What do you think?*

***Had we better** leave a note for the delivery guy to take the parcel next door?*

Negative questions with *had better* are more common than affirmative ones:

***Hadn't we better** ring the school and tell them Liam is sick?*

***Hadn't you better** switch your computer off? It might overheat if you leave it on.*

Had better or be better, be best?

150c

We use *had better* to give advice in a specific situation. We use the phrase *be better* or *be best* + to-infinitive for more general suggestions:

*It's always **better to be** safe than sorry.* ('It's better to be safe than sorry' is a saying which means that you should be careful before taking any action.)

*I think it would **be best to speak** to the people in the video shop to see what they recommend.*

Had better or would rather, would prefer?

150d

We don't use *had better* when we talk about preferences. We use *would rather* or *would prefer*.

↔ Compare

<i>I'd better get a taxi. The buses are so slow.</i>	It is a good idea, better, or advisable to get a taxi.
<i>I'd rather get a taxi. I don't like buses.</i>	I prefer to get a taxi.

Had better: typical errors

150e

- We use *had better* to give specific advice, not to talk about obligations or requirements; instead, we use *have to*, *have got to* or *must*:

*You **have to** (or **must**) hold a full, valid driving licence to hire a car.*

Not: *You'd better hold a full, valid driving licence to hire a car.*

→ *Have got to* and *have to* 156; *Must* 216

- We don't use *had better* to talk about preferences; instead, we use *would rather* or *would prefer*:

*They offered her a job in Warsaw, but she said she'd **rather work** in a smaller city. (or ... she'd prefer to work ...)*

Not: ... she'd better work ...

- We don't use *had better* to make ordinary suggestions or recommendations:

*Auckland is a great place to visit. I'd **recommend** you take a boat trip across the bay and see some of the islands. Then **you can find** a nice restaurant for lunch. There are plenty of them.*

Not: You'd better take a boat trip across the bay and see some of the islands. Then you'd better find a nice restaurant for lunch.

Hard

151

Hard is both an adjective and an adverb. When it is an adverb, it means 'needing or using a lot of physical or mental effort'. It goes after the main verb:

*I studied **hard** for my exams but didn't do very well.*

*We have worked **hard** all day.*

The comparative and superlative forms are *harder* and *hardest*:

*He didn't get into the team this year. He'll just have to try **harder** next time.*

Not: He'll just have to try more hard next time.

*Right, children, who has worked **hardest** today?*

- ! Don't confuse *hard* with *hardly*. *Hardly* usually means 'only just' or 'almost not':

*Every day I ran a lot and worked **hard** so that I would be prepared for the game.*

Not: Every day I ran a lot and worked *hardly*.

→Hardly 152

Hardly

152

Hardly is an adverb.

Hardly has a negative meaning. It normally means 'almost not at all' or 'only just'. We can use it in mid position, or before an adjective or a noun:

*He wore a big hat that covered his head and you could **hardly** see his face. (you could only see a small part of his face)*

*It's **hardly** surprising that Leeds, England's third largest city, is now fast becoming a very popular UK holiday destination.*

*At first **hardly** a person in the audience moved, although some umbrellas were opened. But then the rain came down more heavily.*

Hardly any, hardly ever

We often use *hardly* before *any*, *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything* and *ever* in negative clauses, but not before *no*, *none*, *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing* or *never*:

At first, **hardly** anyone came. (almost no one came)

Not: At first ~~hardly no one~~ came.

There was **hardly** anything to eat.

She lives in Scotland so we **hardly** ever see her now, but I like to keep in touch.

Hardly at all

We sometimes use *at all* after the verb, adjective or noun which follows *hardly* to give greater emphasis:

I **hardly** slept **at all** last night.

Hardly and very little, very few

Hardly + *any(thing)* has a similar meaning to *very little* or *very few*:

I **hardly** ate **anything** yesterday. (= I ate very little yesterday.)

She **hardly** buys **any** new clothes **at all**. (= She buys very few new clothes.)

→ *Little, a little, few, a few* 196

Word order

We usually put *hardly* in mid position, between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after main verb *be*:

My piano lesson is on Monday, and I've **hardly** played it this week.

I can **hardly** wait.

There were **hardly** any tourists.

When *hardly* is modifying either the main verb or the following noun, we can put it directly before the verb or before the noun phrase:

She **hardly** had any sleep. or She had **hardly** any sleep.

In more formal styles, to refer to something happening immediately after something else, we use *hardly* ... *when*. We move *hardly* to front position and invert the subject and verb:

Hardly had I arrived there when I was called back to the head office 100 miles away. (I arrived there and then I was immediately called back.)

! **Hardly** is not the adverb form of the adjective *hard*. The adverb form of *hard* is also *hard*.

→ *Hard* 151; *Hardly ever, rarely, scarcely, seldom* 153

Hardly ever, rarely, scarcely, seldom

153

Frequency adverbs meaning 'not very often'

Hardly ever, rarely, scarcely and *seldom* are frequency adverbs. We can use them to refer to things that almost never happen, or do not happen very often. They have a negative

meaning. We use them without *not*. *Rarely*, *scarcely* and *seldom* are more common in writing than in speaking:

*He **hardly ever** smiles.*

[a trout is a type of fish]

*Providing fresh trout for dinner was **rarely** a problem.*

*She **scarcely** saw her grandchildren.*

*Griffin, the physics teacher, **seldom** shouted.*

Hardly and scarcely meaning 'almost not at all'

Hardly and *scarcely* can mean 'almost not at all' or 'only just'. *Hardly* is much more common than *scarcely*, and *scarcely* is more formal:

*Jen was so tired. She could **scarcely** keep her eyes open.*

*I **hardly** know them. I've only met them once.*

Word order

We usually put these adverbs in mid position, between the subject and main verb, after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after main verb *be*. In more formal styles, we put them in front position and invert the subject and verb. If there is no auxiliary or modal verb, we use *do/does/did*.

↔ Compare

neutral	formal
<i>She hardly ever went on holiday.</i>	<i>Hardly ever did she go on holiday.</i>
<i>I had seldom seen so many people out on the streets.</i>	<i>Seldom had I seen so many people out on the streets.</i>
<i>Things are rarely as bad as you think they're going to be.</i>	<i>Rarely are things as bad as you think they're going to be.</i>

→ Often ☹; Sometimes or sometime? ☹; Never or not ... ever? ☹

In more formal styles, to refer to something happening immediately after something else, we use *scarcely/hardly ... when*. We move *hardly* and *scarcely* to front position and invert the subject and verb:

[v] [s]

***Scarcely** had I got myself comfortable and closed my eyes **when** I heard the sound of the alarm.*

→ **Hardly 152**

Have

154

Have: forms

154a

Have is an irregular verb. Its three forms are *have*, *had*, *had*. The present simple third person singular is *has*:

We usually **have** breakfast at about eight.

I **had** a strange dream last night.

She **has** quite dark hair.

Have: uses

154b

We use *have* as a main verb and an auxiliary verb.

→ *Have as a main verb* 154d; *Have as an auxiliary verb* 154e

Have: typical error

154c

- We don't use *have* in the third person singular of the present simple:

A meeting **has** been set up for Monday, 4pm.

Not: A meeting ~~have~~ been ...

Have as a main verb

154d

The main verb *have* has lots of uses.

Possession

We use *have* to talk about things that we own or possess:

Do you **have** a car?

They **have** two dogs, Scruffy and Milly.

→ *Have got and have* 155

Events, actions, experiences and activities

I'm going to **have** a bath.

Let's **have** a party to celebrate your birthday!

We **have** a break at 10 am.

Did you **have** a nice time in London?

Eating food and meals

We **had** a wonderful meal in the new restaurant on Elm Street.

A: Two coffees, please.

B: Large or small?

A: Er large. You want a large one, do you?

C: Mhm. Can I **have** a cake as well?

Shall we **have** lunch together sometime?

Days or parts of days

Have a nice day!

I **had** such a tough day.

Did you **have** a nice morning (or afternoon, evening, birthday, holiday)?

Hygiene routines and therapies

I **had** a shower and got ready to go out.

He needs to **have** a shave both in the morning and in the evening.

The doctor recommended that I should **have** massages every week on my back.

Conversations and interactions

I need to **have** a chat with Joan about your hours.

They **had** a big argument about money.

The chef and the manager **had** a row in the kitchen and everyone in the restaurant could hear them shouting.

Sleeping

She **had** a rest in the afternoon.

Did you **have** a good night's sleep?

I used to **have** terrible dreams when I was young.

Accidents and problems with cars

She **had** an accident when she was young. She fell off a horse.

They **had** a crash but luckily no one was injured.

We **had** a breakdown on the motorway once.

Thankfully, I have never **had** a puncture.

Travel

They **have** a 15-hour flight from Rome.

Have a safe trip.

Did you **have** a pleasant journey?

Other common expressions with have

have a baby

have a try

have a go

have an operation

have a long wait

have a shock

have a think

have a problem

have a feeling/sense

have a clue/idea

have a laugh (informal, a good time)

have a surprise

→ **Have got and have 155**

Have: using the continuous form

We can use the continuous form to talk about an activity that is happening:

She's **having** a bath right now. She'll call you back.

We use the continuous form to talk about an activity that is planned for a future time:

*I'm **having** lunch with Miriam on Wednesday.*

*They're **having** a surprise party for Mike on Saturday night.*

*She's **having** a baby in June.*

We use the continuous form of *have* when the event or action is ongoing or repeated:

*She was **having** nightmares for a year after the accident. (A nightmare is a bad dream.)*

*I've been **having** discussions with my boss about a transfer to Edinburgh. I think he's going to agree.*

*He's **having** trouble with his car.*

→ Present continuous 278; Present perfect continuous 283; Past continuous 259; Past perfect continuous 262

Have as an auxiliary verb

154e

Have is one of three auxiliary verbs in English: *be*, *do* and *have*. We use *have* before *-ed* forms to make the present perfect and past perfect.

Present perfect

have + *-ed* form

*They **have** moved house.*

*He's studied a lot. (full form: *has*)*

Past perfect

had + *-ed* form

*We **had** paid in advance.*

*I'd known her for years. (full form: *had*)*

We use *have*, not *do*, to make questions and negatives of perfect verb forms.

Present perfect

***Have** you seen Maria?*

Not: ~~Do~~ you have ...

*I **haven't** eaten yet.*

Not: I don't have ...

Past perfect

***Had** they been waiting for long?*

Not: Did they had ...

*We **hadn't** brought a map.*

Not: We didn't had ...

→ Verbs: types 364; Present perfect simple 284; Past perfect simple 263

Have got and have

155

Have got and *have* mean the same. *Have got* is more informal. We use *have* (*got*) here to refer to both verbs:

*I've **got** a terrible pain in my back.*

*I **have** a terrible pain in my back. (more formal)*

*They **haven't got** a car.*

*They don't **have** a car. (more formal)*

We use *have* (*got*) to talk about possession, relationships, characteristics and illnesses. In these contexts, it is not used in the continuous form:

She's **got** two cats and a dog.

She **has** two cats and a dog.

Not: She is ~~having got~~ two cats and a dog.

Have you **got** a drill?

Do you **have** a drill? (more formal)

How many brothers **have** you **got**?

How many brothers do you **have**? (more formal)

She's **got** a new boyfriend.

She **has** a new boyfriend. (more formal)

She's **got** a delightful voice.

She **has** a delightful voice. (more formal)

It's **got** 153 calories and 45g of carbohydrates.

It **has** 153 calories and 45g of carbohydrates. (more formal)

I **have** never **had** the measles.

She's **got** a headache.

Not: She is having a headache.

Have got to and have to

156

Have got to and *have to* mean the same. *Have got to* is more informal. We use *have (got)* to here to refer to both verbs.

Have got to and have to: forms

156a

Affirmative form

Have (got) to comes before the main verb:

You **have to** try these cakes. They are so good.

It is often contracted, especially in speaking.

You've **got to** press very hard on the doorbell.

Have (got) to cannot be followed by a modal verb:

We've **to** take the car to the garage this morning.

Not: We've ~~to must~~ take the car ~~to the~~ garage this morning.

Have (got) to is only used alone when the main verb and any complement of the verb is obvious:

A: Does he **have to** do exams this year?

B: Yes, he **has (got) to**.

→ *Have* 154

Negative form

The negative of *have to* is formed using *do not*, *does not*, *did not* or *don't*, *doesn't*, *didn't*:

We **don't have to** pay for the food.

The negative of *have got to* is formed by adding *not* after *have*. We don't use *don't*, *doesn't*, *didn't*:

We **haven't got to** pay for the food.

Not: We don't have got to pay for the food.

→ **Modality: forms 208; Have 154**

Question form

Do, *does*, *did* are used before the subject to form questions with *have to*:

Do we have to take our shoes off?

The subject and *have* change position to form questions with *have got to*:

Have we got to take our shoes off?

→ **Have 154**

Have got to and have to: meaning

156b

Obligation

Have (got) to is used to refer to obligations which come from outside the speaker:

You've got to drive more slowly! We're in a 30-mile-an-hour zone.

I've got to pay extra rent now because my friend has left the apartment.

 In speaking, *have got to* is more common than *have to* when talking about obligation:

A: *Let's clean this kitchen up.*

B: *We've just got to* try to clean it a bit more.

A: *Yes, at least once a week, it needs a good clean.*

Deductions and conclusions

Have (got) to can be used to make deductions or draw conclusions. *Have (got) to* is less common than *must* in this meaning:

*You have so much work and you're not feeling well. This **has got to** be a tough time for you.* (Because you have so much work and are not feeling well, I conclude that your life is hard at the moment.)

A: *Alan has just left his job in the bank.*

B: *Why? There's **got to** be a reason.*

A: *Nobody seems to know why.*

A: *The robbers cut a hole in the ceiling directly above the safe.*

B: *That's amazing. They've got to have known where the safe was.*

→ **Must 216**

Have got to and have to: tense

156c

 *Have got to* can only be used in the present. *Have to* can be used in a variety of forms:

I've got to study for the exam.

Not: ~~I'd got to study for the exam.~~ or ~~I'll have got to study for the exam.~~

I have to study for the exam.

I had to study for the exam.

I'll have to study for the exam.

She has to call her parents by ten o'clock.

She'd had to call her parents by ten o'clock.

She'll have to call her parents by ten o'clock.

When future obligations and plans are already agreed, the present tense of *have (got) to* is preferred, rather than *will have to*:

Jane's got to be at the doctor's by three o'clock.

I have to pick up my daughter at school at four o'clock.

Have something done

157

What someone does for us

We use *have* + object + *-ed* form when we talk about someone doing something for us which we ask or instruct them to do. It emphasises the process/action rather than who performs it:

*We're **having** the house painted next week.* (We are not going to paint the house ourselves. Someone else will paint it. The emphasis is on the fact that the house is being painted rather than who is doing it.)

! This pattern is not the same as the present perfect or past perfect.

↔ Compare

<i>I had my hair cut.</i>	Someone cut my hair.
<i>I've cut my hair.</i>	I cut my own hair.
<i>I'd cut my hair.</i>	

We can also use *have* + object + *-ed* form when something bad happens, especially when someone is affected by an action which they did not cause:

*They've **had** their car stolen.* ('They' are affected by the action of the car being stolen but they did not cause this to happen.)

*Hundreds of people **had** their homes destroyed by the hurricane.* (Hundreds of people were affected by the hurricane, which they did not cause.)

Asking or instructing

We use the pattern *have* + object + infinitive without *to* when we talk about instructing someone (underlined) to do something. We use it to emphasise who performed the action:

I'll **have** Harry book you a taxi. (I will instruct Harry to book a taxi for you. Emphasis is on who will do the action more than on the action.)

He **had** Kay make us all some tea.

Talking about an experience

We use *have* + object + *-ing* form or infinitive without *to* to talk about an event or experience. We use the *-ing* form for an event in progress and the infinitive without *to* for a completed event:

We **had** a man singing to us as we sat in the restaurant having our meal.

We **had** a strange woman come to the door selling pictures.

We can also use the *-ing* form to describe an ongoing action that someone or something is causing:

Her story **had** us laughing so much. (Her story was making us laugh.)

I just **had** them doing stretch routines, and after, they got really good at it.

Heads

158

The head is the most important word in a phrase. All the other words in a phrase depend on the head. Words which are part of the phrase and which come before the head are called the pre-head. Words which are part of the phrase and which come after the head are called the post-head.

In a noun phrase, the head is a noun, and there may be pre-head and post-head items, also called premodifiers and postmodifiers.

← ----- noun phrase ----- →		
pre-head	noun head	post-head
<i>My favourite</i>	<i>band</i>	
<i>The</i>	<i>woman</i>	<i>in the red dress</i>

In a verb phrase, the head is a verb. There may be pre-head items such as modal or auxiliary verbs and post-head items such as particles.

← ----- verb phrase ----- →			
	pre-head	verb head	post-head
<i>She</i>		<i>laughed.</i>	
<i>My mother</i>	<i>can't</i>	<i>swim.</i>	
<i>The plane</i>	<i>has</i>	<i>taken</i>	<i>off.</i>

In an adjective phrase, the head is an adjective, and there may be pre-head and post-head items, also called premodifiers and postmodifiers.

	← ----- adjective phrase ----- →			
	pre-head	adjective head	post-head	
<i>The food was</i>		<i>wonderful.</i>		
<i>We saw a</i>	<i>very</i>	<i>big</i>		<i>fish.</i>
<i>Is this</i>		<i>good</i>	<i>enough?</i>	

In an adverb phrase, the head is an adverb, and there may be pre-head and post-head items, also called premodifiers and postmodifiers.

	← ----- adverb phrase ----- →			
	pre-head	adverb head	post-head	
<i>She dances</i>		<i>beautifully.</i>		
<i>We studied</i>	<i>really</i>	<i>intensively.</i>		
<i>The machine seemed to work</i>		<i>well</i>	<i>enough.</i>	

In a prepositional phrase, the head is a preposition, and there may be pre-head items, also called premodifiers. The post-head item, which is a noun phrase, or a verb phrase with a verb in the *-ing* form, is always present.

	← ----- prepositional phrase ----- →			
	pre-head	preposition head	post-head	
<i>Your dinner is</i>		<i>on</i>	<i>the table.</i>	
<i>I'm not used</i>		<i>to</i>	<i>getting up early.</i>	
<i>The shop is</i>	<i>right</i>	<i>by</i>	<i>the bus station.</i>	

Headers and tails
 159

Headers and tails are common in speaking, but very uncommon in writing. We use headers when we place information at the front of what we say. This can help our listeners to understand more easily what we are referring to. Headers can consist of a noun phrase or noun phrases or whole clauses. The header is followed by a pronoun (underlined in the examples) which refers back to the header:

Anna, David's sister, she's going to New York for her birthday.

That big house, is it where the doctor lives?

Going to football matches, that's what my cousin Jim likes best.

Tails occur at the end of what we say. They are commonly noun phrases. Tails refer back to a pronoun (underlined in the examples), and commonly give more information about it. Like headers, they help a listener to understand more easily what we are referring to:

*They're not cheap to buy, **cars in Singapore**.*

*She's a really good marathon runner, **Alice**.*

→ Cleft sentences 72; Fronting 133

Hear, see, etc. + object + infinitive or -ing 160

We can use either the infinitive without *to* or the *-ing* form after the object of verbs such as *hear, see, notice, watch*. The infinitive without *to* often emphasises the whole action or event which someone hears or sees. The *-ing* form usually emphasises an action or event which is in progress or not yet completed.

↔ Compare

<i>He saw her drive off with a young man in the passenger seat.</i>	The speaker observed the whole event.
<i>Maria heard him coming up the stairs towards her room, and felt scared.</i>	The action was in progress, happening, but not completed.

The *-ing* form can also emphasise that an action or event is repeated:

*We **watched** them **running** back and forth, **loading** and **unloading** the trucks and **taking** boxes in and out of the building.*

After *can* or *could* with one of these verbs, we always use the *-ing* form, not the infinitive:

*I **can hear** people **talking**. They must be in the next room.*

Not: I can hear people to talk.

Typical errors

- We don't use *to* with the infinitive form after the object:

*She **heard** the doorbell **ring** and went to answer it.*

Not: She heard the doorbell to ring ...

- We don't use a finite verb form after the object:

*I **watched** the woman **come** out of the house and **get** into a car.*

Not: I watched the woman came out of the house and got into a car.

Hear or listen (to)?**161**

'Hearing' is an event; it is something which happens to us as a natural process.
'Listening' is an action; it is something we do consciously.

↔ Compare

hearing is an event.	listening is an action.
<i>Suddenly I heard a noise. Someone was in the garden.</i>	<i>I listened very carefully to what she said and wrote it all down.</i>
<i>Did you hear the thunder last night?</i> [on the phone]	<i>Do you listen to the radio in bed?</i>
<i>The line is very bad. I can't hear you.</i>	<i>George! Listen to me! I have something important to tell you.</i>

Sometimes we can use either *hear* or *listen to*, depending on whether we want to emphasise the event or the action:

*Did you **hear** that interview with David Beckham on the radio yesterday?* (emphasis on the event)

*Did you **listen to** that interview with David Beckham on the radio yesterday?* (emphasis on the action)

*I love **hearing/listening to** the sound of falling rain.*

We don't normally use *hear* in the continuous form. We often use *hear* with *can*:

[on an internet phone call]

*I **can hear** you really clearly.*

Not: ~~*I'm hearing you really clearly.*~~

! We use *to* after *listen* before an object:

*Every morning I **listen to** my Mozart CD while I'm having breakfast. It prepares me mentally for the day.*

Not: ~~*Every morning I listen my Mozart CD ...*~~

We use *listen* without *to* if we do not mention the object, or if it is a discourse marker:

*Meena, **listen!** I don't want you staying out late!*

***Listen,** I was wondering if you could help me.* (discourse marker beginning a new topic or phase of a conversation)

*The music was beautiful. We just sat there and **listened**.*

→ Discourse markers 104**Hedges (just)****162**

We use hedges to soften what we say or write. Hedges are an important part of polite conversation. They make what we say less direct. The most common forms of hedging involve tense and aspect, modal expressions including modal verbs and adverbs, vague language such as *sort of* and *kind of*, and some verbs.

Tense and aspect

*I **wondered** if I could have a word with you?* (less direct and more polite than *Could I have a word with you?*)

Modal expressions

*The answer **could** be that the trees have some sort of disease.* (less direct than *The answer is that ...*)

***Maybe** we should have a word with him about it?* (less direct than *We should* or *we must have a word with him about it.*)

*This is **possibly** the best performance in the Olympics.*

Vague language

*It's **sort of** difficult to say.* (less direct than *It's difficult to say*)

*Could you **just** post this letter for me?*

Verbs (*feel*)

Some verbs (such as *feel*, *suppose*, *reckon*) can be used to hedge personal statements, that is, to make personal statements less direct:

*We **feel** he should let them decide whether to buy the flat.* (less direct than *He should let them decide ...*)

*I **reckon** that's the best answer to the problem.* (less direct than *That's the best answer to the problem.*)

Hedges in academic writing

We use certain types of hedging in writing, especially in academic writing, so that statements don't seem to rely simply on personal opinion.

We often use structures with *it* in the passive such as *it is argued that* and *it has been agreed that*:

***It has been generally agreed that** these new video phone technologies will transform everyday life.* (a more cautious and less personal statement than *I agree that ...*)

→ Vague expressions 359; Modality: introduction 207; Politeness 271

Hope

163

Hope is a verb and a noun.

Hope as a verb

163a

After *hope*, we often use present verb forms even when there is reference to the future:

*We **hope** she passes her driving test next week.*

*I just **hope** the bus is on time tomorrow.*

! We don't normally use *hope* in the negative:

*I **hope** it doesn't rain.*

Not: *I don't hope it rains.*

The past continuous of *hope* is used to make polite statements and, especially, polite requests:

*I **was hoping** to have a word with you, Professor O'Malley.*

*We **were hoping** you could lend us your car while you were in America.*

Hope as a noun

163b

We can use *hope* as a countable noun:

*In 1938, there was still a **hope** that war could be avoided.*

*After the election, their **hopes** were high, but five years later nothing has changed.*

When we mean *hope* in general, we do not use an article:

*You must never give up **hope**.*

Not: *You must never give up the hope.*

→ **Expect, hope or wait?** 124; **Politeness** 271; **Negation** 219

How

164

The adverb *how* most commonly means 'in what way' or 'to what extent'.

How in questions

We use *how* when we introduce direct and indirect questions:

*I haven't seen you for ages. **How** are you?*

***How** was the film? Was it as bad as you thought?*

*Do you know **how** I can get to the bus station?*

*I asked her **how** she was but she didn't answer me.*

We use *how* to introduce questions about measurements or amounts:

***How** old is your grandfather?*

***How** often do you get to your cottage at weekends?*

***How** much does the average DVD player cost these days?*

[the 'Prado' is a museum and art gallery in Madrid]

***How** far is it to the Prado and **how** long will it take us to get there by taxi?*

How in indirect questions

We often use *how* with verbs such as *tell*, *wonder* and *know* in indirect questions:

*I just don't know **how** she manages to cook so well in such a small kitchen.*

*I wonder **how** they do that.*

How in exclamations

In exclamations we use *how* before adjectives, adverbs and verb phrases. In verb phrases the word order is subject + verb:

*They've bought her some flowers. **How** nice of them!*

***How** fantastic!*

How beautifully they sang!

How we love New York!

We don't use *how* with a noun phrase. We use *what*:

What a gorgeous coat!

Not: *How a gorgeous coat!*

→ Exclamations 123; What 374

How about ...?

In informal speaking we commonly use *how about* + noun phrase and *how about* + -ing form when we make suggestions:

Liz, how about some more fruit juice?

How about going to the concert with us this weekend?

→ Suggestions 341

Typical errors

- In exclamations involving clauses, the word order is subject + verb:

How I love real Italian ice-cream!

Not: *How love I real Italian ice-cream!*

- We don't use *how* with a noun phrase, we use *what*:

What a nice idea!

Not: *How a nice idea!*

How is ...? or What is ... like?

165

How is ...?

We use *How is ...?* to ask about someone's general health or about the condition or state of something, or how people experience something:

A: *How's your mother these days?* (How is her general health?)

B: *Oh, she's fine, thanks.*

[talking about an old house]

A: *How are the walls in the kitchen?* (What is the condition/state of the walls?)

B: *Well, they need redecorating really.*

A: *How's your new car?*

B: *Wonderful. It's so much easier to drive than the old one.*

What is ... like?

We use *What is ... like?* to ask for a description of someone or something (e.g. their appearance, their character, their behaviour):

A: *What's her new house like?*

B: *It's a modern one, quite big, with a nice garden.*

A: **What's** your new teacher **like**?

B: He's nice. He's very good-looking! But he's quite strict.

! We don't use *How is ... like?* to ask for a description of something:

A: Have you ever had Korean kimchi?

B: No. **What's** it **like**?

A: Well, it's sort of spicy fermented vegetables, cabbage and things.

Not: How is it like?

However, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever, whoever

166

It doesn't matter how, what, when, etc.

If we add *-ever* to *wh*-words like *how*, *what*, *which*, *when*, *where* and *who*, we change their meaning.

form	meaning
<i>however</i>	'any way at all' or 'it doesn't matter how'
<i>whatever</i>	'anything at all' or 'it doesn't matter what'
<i>whichever</i>	'any one at all' or 'it doesn't matter which'
<i>whenever</i>	'any time at all' or 'it doesn't matter when'
<i>wherever</i>	'any place at all' or 'it doesn't matter where'
<i>whoever</i>	'any person at all' or 'it doesn't matter who'

However you try to explain it, I still can't understand it. (Any way at all that you try to explain it ... /It doesn't matter how you try ...)

Please take **whatever** you want from the fridge if you feel hungry. (anything at all that you want)

Whatever you do, don't lose this key.

Choose **whichever** time suits you best then write your name against that time on the list.

Call in **whenever** you like. I'm always at home. (at any time at all that you like)

Wherever you live, you have the right to a good postal service. (it doesn't matter where you live)

Whoever you ask, you will get the same answer: no. (any person you ask/it doesn't matter who you ask)

Emphasising questions

We can use *wh*-words with *-ever* to ask very emphatic questions. In speaking, we stress *-ever*.

However will you manage to live on such a small income? (stronger than *How will you manage ...?*)

Charlie, **whatever** are you doing? (stronger than *What are you doing?*)

Whenever are you going to stop complaining? *You're getting on everyone's nerves!*

Being vague: **whatever, whenever, wherever, whoever**

We can use *whatever, whenever, wherever* and *whoever* alone to refer in a non-specific way to people and things:

A: *Shall I send you all the dates and times?*

B: Yes, **whatever**. *That would be useful. Thanks.* (it doesn't matter what you send)

A: *What time shall I come?*

B: **Whenever**, really. (no specific time/it doesn't matter)

*If you talk to the manager **or whoever**, you'll be able to find out what's happening.*
(talk to the manager or a similar, unspecified person)

Sometimes people use *whatever* in a sarcastic or disrespectful way, usually saying it in an exaggerated way, to show they are not interested (for example, with exaggerated intonation):

Parent: *You'd better start saving money if you want to go to university!*

Teenager: **Whatever!**

Whatsoever

Whatsoever is an emphatic form of *whatever*. It is most common after a negative phrase:

*He seems to have no ambitions **whatsoever**.*

*I can see no reason **whatsoever** why she should not attend classes.*

Hyphens

167

Hyphens are a form of dash (-) which we use between words or parts of words.

We can use hyphens to make compound words, most commonly compound nouns:

*French **lorry-drivers** have blockaded three ports.*

Compound nouns formed with prepositions and particles are also usually separated by hyphens:

*Come and meet my **father-in-law**.*

*Don't wear too much **make-up** if you are planning to be in the sun.*

We use hyphens with compound verbs and with adverb + adjective compounds:

*I'm phoning to ask if you can **baby-sit** for us this evening.*

[Labradors are a breed of dog.]

*It's a **well-known** fact that Labradors have a very nice temperament.*

We often use hyphens to separate words and prefixes:

*The **vice-president** will speak to the company on Monday.*

*She met her **ex-husband** at a party last week.*

We also use hyphens to separate compound modifiers:

*The oven was **red-hot** when she touched it.*

*A **twelve-year-old** girl was found alone in the large house.*

We also sometimes use hyphens when we write out figures:

*There were **sixty-eight** people who applied for the job.*

***Three-quarters** of the voters did not reply to the questionnaire.*

However, hyphens are becoming less common and people often write several of the above words without hyphens or do not separate compound words at all. A common word with a hyphen such as *post-box* will also be seen as *post box* and *postbox*.

It is important to check the spelling of compound words in a good learner's dictionary.

→ **Nouns: compound nouns 227**

If

168

If is a conjunction.

If: conditions

168a

We often use *if* to introduce possible or impossible situations or conditions and their results. The situations or conditions can be real, imagined or uncertain:

*I usually make a sandwich to take to work **if** I have enough time. (real)*

***If** you don't book now, you won't get good tickets. (real)*

*They'd have got the job done quicker **if** they'd had more people working on it. (imagined)*

*Will you bring my glasses down **if** you go upstairs? (uncertain)*

→ **Conditionals: if 85**

If possible, if necessary

168b

We can sometimes leave words out after *if* to form fixed expressions:

*Check the temperature of your meat with a meat thermometer **if possible**. (if it's possible or if that's possible)*

*Interest rates would have to rise **if necessary** to protect the pound, Mr John Smith, Shadow Chancellor, indicated yesterday on BBC TV's Money Programme.*

If so, if not

168c

We use *so* or *not* after *if* when it is obvious what we are referring to:

[from a job advertisement]

*Are you looking for part-time work? Do you want to work from home? **If so**, read on. (if you are looking for part-time work or if you want to work from home)*

*You should all have received your booklist for the course by now. **If not**, please email the office. (if you haven't received your booklist for the course by now)*

*I'll see you soon, definitely at the wedding, **if not** before.* (if I don't see you before the wedding)

Even if 168d

We can use *even if* to mean *if* when talking about surprising or extreme situations:

*You're still going to be cold **even if** you put on two or three jumpers.*

→ Even 119

If: reporting questions 168e

We use *if* to introduce reported *yes-no* questions and questions with *or*.

↔ Compare

direct question	indirect question
<i>Do you like dogs?</i>	<i>I asked if she liked dogs.</i>
<i>Are you leaving now or are you staying for a bit longer?</i>	<i>He asked if I was leaving now or staying for a bit longer.</i>

→ Conditionals 84; *If or when?* 171; *If or whether?* 169; Reported speech 312; *Even if* 168d

We use *only if* to express a strong condition, often an order or command, to mean 'on the condition that'. It has an opposite meaning to 'except if':

*Payment will be made **only if** the work is completed on time.*

*Alright I'll come but **only if** I can bring a friend with me.*

We often separate *only* and *if*, using *only* in the main clause:

*He'll **only** take the job **if** they offer him more money.*

*We'll **only** achieve our targets **if** everyone works together.*

If and politeness 168f

In speaking, we often use *if* to introduce a polite request. *If* is usually followed by modal verbs *will*, *would*, *can* or *could* when it is used to be polite:

***If** you'll just tell Julie that her next client is here.* (Can you tell Julie that ...)

***If** you would like to follow me.* (Please follow me.)

→ Conditionals 84; Politeness 271

If or whether? 169

If and whether: indirect questions 169a

We can use *if* or *whether* to report indirect *yes-no* questions and questions with *or*. *If* is more common than *whether*:

*Call the bakeries around town and find out **if** any of them sell raspberry pies.*

*I rang Peter from the station and asked **if** I could drop in to see him before going back or **if** he'd meet me.*

We often prefer *whether* in more formal contexts:

*The teachers will be asked **whether** they would recommend the book to their classes.*

[from a business meeting]

*John read a letter that he'd written and the board discussed **whether** it should be mailed.*

We prefer *whether* with *or* when there is more than one alternative in the indirect question:

*After the election, we asked **whether** the parties should change their leaders, their policies, **or both**.*

To express an alternative, we can use *or not* with *if* and *whether*. With *whether* we can use *or not* immediately after *whether* or in end position. With *if* we use *or not* in end position only:

*I called Bill to find out **whether or not** he really did go to Afghanistan.*

*I called Bill to find out **whether** he really did go to Afghanistan **or not**.*

*I called Bill to find out **if** he really did go to Afghanistan **or not**.*

We use *whether* and not *if* before a *to*-infinitive, often when we're referring to future plans or decisions:

*I was wondering **whether** to go for a swim.*

*Some financial decisions, such as planning a pension, need to be taken as early as possible. Others, such as **whether** to move house, can probably only be made much later.*

Whether not if

169b

We use *whether* and not *if* after prepositions:

*Later I argued with the doctor about **whether** I had hit my head, since I couldn't remember feeling it.*

Not: ~~Later I argued with the doctor about if I had hit my head ...~~

*The police seemed mainly interested in **whether** there were any locks on the windows.*

Not: ~~The police seemed mainly interested in if there were any locks ...~~

I doubt if, I don't know whether

169c

We use *if* or *whether* to introduce clauses after verbs of doubting:

*I don't know **if** I can drive. My foot really hurts.*

*I didn't prune the rose bush this year so I doubt **if** we're going to have many flowers. ('prune' means cut back)*

*We'll have plenty of photographs to show you but I'm not sure **whether** we'll be able to learn very much from them.*

→ If 168; If: reporting questions 168e

If, whether: typical errors**169d**

- We use *whether*, not *if*, before *to*-infinitives:

*I don't know **whether** to buy the blue one or the red one.*

Not: *I don't know if to buy the blue one ...*

- We use *whether*, not *if*, directly before *or not*:

*Can you tell me **whether or not** you're interested in the job.*

Not: *Can you tell me if or not you're interested ...*

- We use *whether*, not *if*, after prepositions:

[talking about a trip to Australia for a year]

*We're not interested in **whether** we get great jobs and that kind of thing, we just want to have a good time.*

Not: *We're not interested in if we get great jobs and that kind of thing ...*

→ If 168; Whether 378

If only**170**

We use *if only* to express a strong wish that things could be different. It means the same as *I wish* but is stronger. We use it to talk about past, present and future unreal conditions.

We use *if only* + past verb forms to talk about a wish for the present:

***If only** he knew the truth.* (he doesn't know the truth, but he wishes he did)

Not: *~~If only he knows the truth.~~*

***If only** there was something she could do or say to help.*

Not: *~~If only there is something she could do or say to help.~~*

We sometimes use *were* instead of *was* in more formal situations:

***If only** she weren't so tired.* (If only she wasn't so tired.)

To talk about a wish for the future or to show a contrast between how things are and how we would like them to be, we use *if only* + *would* + infinitive without *to*:

***If only** someone would buy the house.*

***If only** they would talk to each other.*

We use *if only* + past perfect to talk about a wish to change something that has already happened:

***If only** he had listened to what his friends had been telling him.* (He didn't listen.)

***If only** Anna had been able to come.* (Anna wasn't able to come.)

→ Conditionals 84; If 168

If or when?**171**

We use *if* to introduce a possible or unreal situation or condition. We use *when* to refer to the time of a future situation or condition that we are certain of:

*You can only go in **if** you've got your ticket.*

***When** I'm older, I'd love to be a dancer.*

↔ Compare

<i>If Giles comes back to the office, can you tell him I've gone home.</i>	The speaker does not know whether Giles is coming back to the office. It is possible, but not definite.
<i>When Giles comes back to the office, can you tell him I've gone home.</i>	The speaker is certain that Giles is coming back to the office.

To talk about situations and conditions that are repeated or predictable, we can use either *if* or *when* + present verb form:

*You can drive **if** you're 17.*

***If** you don't add enough wood, the fire goes out.*

***When** we go camping, we usually take two tents.*

*She gets out of breath easily **when** she's jogging.*

Typical error

- We don't use *when* to introduce possible or unreal situations:

*Unfortunately, **if** you arrive too late, you are not allowed to take the exam because they don't accept late enrolment.*

Not: ... ~~when you arrive too late~~ ...

Imperative clauses (*Be quiet!*) 172

We use imperative clauses when we want to tell someone to do something (most commonly for advice, suggestions, requests, commands, orders or instructions).

We can use them to tell people to do or not to do things. They usually don't have a subject – they are addressed to the listener or listeners, who the speaker understands to be the subject. We use the base form of the verb:

***Have** fun.*

***Enjoy** your meal.*

***Stop** talking and **open** your books.*

***Don't be** late.*

- ! We use the imperative carefully. It is a very direct form and we don't generally use it to make requests or commands or to give instructions.

We can use *just*, *please* or *if you wouldn't mind* to make an imperative sound less direct:

*Open the window a little more, **please**, **if you wouldn't mind**.*

Not: ~~Open the window.~~ (too direct)

[Two friends]

A: *Ann, are you ready?*

B: ***Just** give me a minute, **please**.*

→ Commands and instructions 76; Requests 316

Imperatives with subject pronouns**172a**

For emphasis, we can use *you* in an imperative clause:

[a student and a teacher]

A: *Can I leave the room?*

B: No. **You stay** here.

In negative imperatives of this type, *you* comes after *don't*:

*Maria, **don't you try** to pay for this. I invited you for lunch and I insist on paying.*

! Be careful when using subject pronouns in imperative clauses, as they can sound very direct.

We can also use words like *someone*, *somebody*, *no one*, *nobody*, *everyone*, *everybody*, especially in speaking:

***Somebody** call a doctor. Quick!*

***Everybody** sit down, please.*

Imperatives with do**172b**

! When we use the emphatic *do* auxiliary, it makes an imperative sound more polite and more formal:

[at the beginning of a meal]

Do start. (formal)

Do sit down and make yourself comfortable.

We can use emphatic *do* in short answers without a main verb:

A: *Can I use your phone to call a taxi?*

B: **Do**, of course, by all means. *It's there on the desk.*

Imperatives with let (let's)**172c**

We use *let* to form first person and third person imperatives.

First person

Let me see. *What should I do?*

Let's start at nine-thirty tomorrow, please. *Okay?*

! In more formal contexts, we use the full form *let us*:

[at the beginning of a meeting]

Let us begin by welcoming our new members.

We can use emphatic *do* with *let's* in formal contexts:

Do let's try to be more environmentally friendly.

Very often we use *let's* (*let us*) when we are referring to the first person singular (*me*):

*I can't find my keys. **Let's** see, where did I last have them? (or **Let me** see, ...)*

We can use *let's* on its own in short responses, meaning 'yes', when we respond to a suggestion:

A: *Shall we stop now and have a coffee break?*

B: **Let's.**

Third person

Third person imperatives are not common; they are formed with *let* + *him/her/it* or a noun phrase:

[B is joking]

A: *How will Patrick know which house is ours?*

B: *Let **him** knock on all the doors until he finds ours!*

→ *Let, let's* 193

Negative imperatives

172d

To make negative imperatives, we use the auxiliary *do* + *not* + the infinitive without *to*. The full form *do not*, is rather formal. In speaking, we usually use *don't*:

[a public notice]

Do not use the lift in the event of fire.

Don't tell anyone that I was here.

We can use *don't* on its own in short responses:

A: *Shall I show everyone the old photo of you?*

B: *No, **don't**. It's terrible!*

Negative imperatives with subject pronoun

172e

We can use emphatic pronoun *you* or *anyone/anybody* after *don't* in negative imperatives, especially in informal speaking:

Don't you worry. Everything will be okay.

*It's a surprise party so **don't anybody** mention it to Jim.*

Negative imperative of *let's*

172f

We often use the phrase *let's not*:

Let's not forget to lock the door!

We sometimes use *don't let's* in more formal contexts:

Don't let's mention anything about her husband. I think they've split up.

Question tags commonly used after imperatives

172g

We sometimes use question tags with imperatives. They make the imperative less direct:

*Turn on the light, **will you?***

*Ask him, **can you?***

Won't you? adds more emphasis to the imperative:

*Write to me, **won't you?***

The tag after a negative imperative is normally *will you*:

*Don't tell anyone, **will you?***

→ *Tags* 343

Imperatives as offers and invitations

172h

We can use imperatives to make offers and invitations:

Have another piece of melon.

Please stay another night. You know you'll be most welcome.

Go on! Come to the match with us tonight.

Don't be afraid to ask if you want anything.

→ Clauses 68; Offers 243; Invitations 182

Infinitive: active or passive?

173

Most verbs have an active infinitive form (with or without *to*): *(to) catch*, *(to) do*, *(to) help*, *(to) leave*, *(to) wash*.

Most verbs also have a passive infinitive form, which consists of the infinitive of *be* (with or without *to*) + the *-ed* form of the main verb: *(to) be caught*, *(to) be done*, *(to) be helped*, *(to) be left*, *(to) be washed*.

↔ Compare

active infinitive	passive infinitive
<i>The police are determined to catch the murderer.</i>	<i>The police are confident that the murderer will be caught soon.</i>
<i>Come on, there's work to do!</i>	<i>There was no more work to be done, so we left.</i>
<i>Let me help you.</i>	<i>She doesn't want to be helped.</i>
<i>I didn't want to drive home, so I got a taxi.</i>	<i>I'd always prefer to be driven by a local person when I'm in a foreign country.</i>

Focus on the agent

We use the active infinitive if we are focusing on the agent (the person who does the action):

*The doctor gave me an eye-patch **to wear**.*

Not: The doctor gave me an eye patch to be worn. ('me', the agent – I will wear the eye-patch)

*She brought a portable chair **to sit** on – the rest of us had to sit on the grass.*

Not: She brought a portable chair to be sat on ... ('she', the agent – she will sit on the chair)

Focus on the receiver or the action

We use the passive infinitive when we want to focus on the receiver (the person who experiences the action), or when we do not want to mention the agent (the person who does the action):

*I didn't give out my email address because I didn't want **to be contacted by strangers**.* (I am the receiver, the person 'to be contacted')

*Ben was hoping **to be chosen** for the rugby team, but he didn't do very well in the trials.* (It is not important to mention the agent; to say who would choose him.)

After *there is*, *there are*

The difference between the two infinitive forms is often very small when we use a *there is* or *there are* construction to talk about obligation:

*Come on! There's work **to do**.* or *Come on! There's work **to be done**.* (There is work that we must do.)

Infinitives with and without to

174

Form

174a

The infinitive of a verb has two forms: the *to*-infinitive and the infinitive without *to*. The *to*-form consists of *to* plus the base form of the verb:

*I want **to speak** to you.*

*We came here **to work**, not **to play**.*

The form without *to* consists of the base form of the verb:

*She made us **wait** for half an hour.*

*John lets the dog **sleep** on the sofa.*

To-infinitive

174b

We use the *to*-infinitive after a number of common main verbs. These include:

agree	demand	long	pretend
aim	fail	love	promise
arrange	forget	manage	propose
ask	hate	mean	refuse
begin	help	need	remember
choose	hope	offer	try
claim	intend	plan	want
continue	learn	prefer	wish
decide	like	prepare	

*We arranged **to see** the bank manager and applied for a loan.*

*Mrs Harding asked us **to call** in on our way home.*

*Did you remember **to post** the letter to your mother?*

*He just wants everyone **to be** happy.*

Some of these verbs are also often followed by *-ing*.

→ Verb patterns: verb + infinitive or verb + *-ing*? 365; Verbs followed by + *to*-infinitive 365a; Verbs followed by an infinitive without *to* 365d

We can use the *to*-infinitive in a clause with a verb that has no subject (a non-finite clause). The *to*-infinitive focuses on the idea of an action or the results of an action, rather than the action in itself:

To work in a developing country had always been her ambition.

To get there before lunch, you would have to take the seven o'clock train.

→ Finite and non-finite verbs 127; Non-finite clauses 69b; Perfect infinitive with *to* 269

Infinitive without *to*

174c

We use the infinitive without *to* after modal verbs *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *shall*, *would*, *should*, *must*:

She can sleep in the guest room tonight.

Will you need to rent a car during your stay?

We also use the infinitive without *to* after *let*, *make* and (optionally) *help*:

He lets us use some of his land to grow vegetables.

You can't make a cat do anything it doesn't want to do.

I just want to help you (to) understand the situation better.

→ Modality: introduction 207; Auxiliary verbs 364c; *Had better* 150; *Would rather* 395a

Typical errors

- We don't use the *to*-infinitive after modal verbs:

We might buy a new sofa.

Not: ~~We might to buy a new sofa.~~

- We don't use the infinitive (with or without *to*) after prepositions:

Lemon juice is useful for cleaning stained surfaces in the kitchen.

Not: ... is useful ~~for clean~~ ... or ... ~~for to clean~~ ...

→ Prepositions 275

In order to

175

In order to is a subordinating conjunction.

We use *in order to* with an infinitive form of a verb to express the purpose of something. It introduces a subordinate clause. It is more common in writing than in speaking:

[main clause] [subordinate clause]

Mrs Weaver had to work full-time in order to earn a living for herself and her family of five children.

We all need stress in order to achieve and do our best work.

The negative of *in order to* is *in order not to*:

They never parked the big van in front of the house in order not to upset the neighbours.

→ Conjunctions 88; *So that* or *in order that*? ○

In spite of and despite

176

In spite of and *despite* are prepositional expressions.

In spite of and *despite* have a similar meaning to *although* or *even though*. They express a contrast between two things. They are both more common in writing than in speaking. *Despite* is a little more formal than *in spite of*.

We usually use *in spite of* and *despite* with a noun:

He got the job **in spite of** his prison record.

[recession is a time when the economy of a country is not good]

John's company is doing extremely well **despite** the recession.

We can also use *in spite of* and *despite* with -ing:

He was very fast **in spite of** being terribly overweight.

They arrived late **despite** leaving in plenty of time.

! We don't use a *that*-clause after *in spite of* or *despite*. We use *in spite of the fact that* or *despite the fact that*:

When they arrived at Malaga it was hot, **in spite of the fact that** it was only the end of April.

Not: ... ~~in spite of that~~ it was only the end of April

In spite of is written as three separate words. We never use *of* with *despite*:

They enjoyed the rides **in spite of** the long queues. (or ... **despite** the long queues.)

Not: ... ~~in spite of the~~ long queues or ... ~~despite of~~ the long queues.

→ *Although* or *though*? 32; *Even though* and *even if* 119d

In, into

177

In and *into* are prepositions.

In, into: position and direction

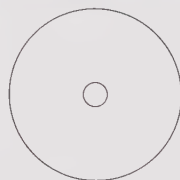
177a

We use *in* to talk about where something is in relation to a larger area around it:

A: Where's Jane?

B: She's **in** the garden.

I've left my keys **in** the car.

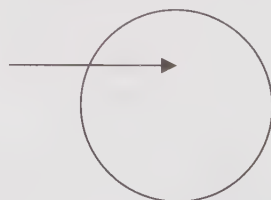


We use *into* to talk about the movement of something, usually with a verb that expresses movement (e.g. *go*, *come*). It shows where something is or was going:

A: Where's Jane?

B: She's gone **into** the house.

Helen came **into** the room.



↔ Compare

She's gone for a walk in the garden.	She is in the garden walking.
She walked into the garden.	She entered the garden.

With some verbs (e.g. put, fall, jump, dive) we can use either *in* or *into* with no difference in meaning:

Can you put the milk **in/into** the fridge?

Her keys fell **in/into** the canal.

→ **At, on, and in (place) 50; At, in, and to (movement) 49**

Into: enthusiasm, interest**177b**

We use *be into* to express enthusiasm or strong interest for something:

He's really **into** his work.

I'm **into** classical music and Thai food.

Change into, turn into**177c**

We use *into* after verbs describing change:

We've **translated** the course **into** six different languages.

She **changed into** her swimming costume and went for a swim.

They **divided** the cake **into** four pieces.

Not: They divided the cake in four pieces.

In: phrasal verbs**177d**

We use *in* to make a number of phrasal verbs:

I was feeling very tired and I couldn't really **take in** what she was saying. (understand)

Please **call in** and see us next time you're in the area. (visit us briefly)

A good learner's dictionary will include the most common phrasal verbs with *in*.

Intensifiers (very, at all)**178**

Intensifiers are adverbs or adverbial phrases that strengthen the meaning of other expressions and show emphasis. Words that we commonly use as intensifiers include *absolutely, completely, extremely, highly, rather, really, so, too, totally, utterly, very* and *at all*:

She was **so** upset. I felt **extremely** sorry for her.

She has a **very** strict teacher.

Don't work **too** hard. Sometimes you'll get more done by relaxing a bit.

*I don't think she understood the topic and her essay was **rather** a mess.*

*She has **really** offended her sister.*

At all is a very common intensifier with negative expressions:

*Are there no suitable DVDs **at all**?*

*I'm afraid I'm not **at all** interested.*

We also use *on earth* and *ever* as intensifiers with *wh*-words:

***What on earth** is he doing?* (suggests disapproval)

***Why** did I **ever** invite them to stay with us?* (suggests that there were problems)

→ All 27; Downtoners 108; Really ☺; So 323; Swearing and taboo expressions ☹

Interjections (*ouch, hooray*)

179

We use interjections to express emotions such as pleasure, surprise, shock and disgust. Most interjections are just sounds, rather than actual words, and come at the beginning or at the end of what we say. Interjections are more common in speaking than in writing:

***Ouch**, it stings.* (expresses pain)

*You're going to the Maldives. That's a long way, **wow**.* (expresses surprise and wonder)

***Hooray**, here comes the bus at last!* (expresses delight)

***Ugh**, sorry, I can't eat tomatoes.* (expresses disgust)

→ Exclamative clauses 71d

Intonation

180

Intonation describes how the voice rises and falls in speech. The three main patterns of intonation in English are: falling intonation, rising intonation and fall-rise intonation.

Falling intonation

180a

Falling intonation describes how the voice falls on the final stressed syllable of a phrase or a group of words. A falling intonation is very common in *wh*-questions.

*Where's the nearest **post-office**?*

*What time does the film **finish**?*

We also use falling intonation when we say something definite, or when we want to be very clear about something:

*I think we are completely **lost**.*

*OK, here's the **magazine** you wanted.*

→ Questions: *wh*-questions 297

Rising intonation

180b

Rising intonation describes how the voice rises at the end of a sentence. Rising intonation is common in *yes-no* questions:

I hear the Health Centre is expanding. So, is that the new doctor?

Are you thirsty?

Fall-rise intonation

180c

Fall-rise intonation describes how the voice falls and then rises. We use fall-rise intonation at the end of statements when we want to say that we are not sure, or when we may have more to add:

I don't support any football team at the moment. (but I may change my mind in future).

It rained every day in the first week. (but things improved after that).

We use fall-rise intonation with questions, especially when we request information or invite somebody to do or to have something. The intonation pattern makes the questions sound more polite:

Is this your camera?

Would you like another coffee?

→ Question tags 343c

Inversion

181

Inversion happens when we reverse (invert) the normal word order of a structure, most commonly the subject-verb word order. For example, a statement has the subject (s) before the verb (v), but to make question word order, we invert the subject and the verb, with an auxiliary (AUX) or modal verb (M) before the subject (s):

[s] [v]

She sings.

[AUX] [s] [v]

Does she sing?

[s] [AUX] [v]

They are working.

[AUX] [s] [v]

Are they working?

[s] [M] [v]

Joe can swim.

[M] [s] [v]

Can Joe swim?

→ Questions 295

When does inversion happen?

181a

The most common type of inversion is question word order (see above). Inversion also happens in other situations.

Negative adverbs

In formal styles, when we use an adverb with negative meaning (e.g. *never*, *seldom*, *rarely*, *scarcely*, *hardly*) in front position for emphasis, we invert the subject (s) and auxiliary (AUX)/modal verb:

[AUX] [s]

Never have we witnessed such cruel behaviour by one child to another. (or *We have never witnessed ...*)

Seldom does one hear a politician say 'sorry'. (or *One seldom hears ...*)

Expressions beginning with **not**

We also invert the subject and verb after *not* + a prepositional phrase or a clause in initial position:

Not for a moment did I think I would be offered the job, so I was amazed when I got it.

Not till I got home did I realise my wallet was missing.

Here and there

Inversion can happen after *here*, and after *there* when it is as an adverb of place. After *here* and *there*, we can use a main verb without an auxiliary verb or modal verb:

Here comes the bus!

Here's your coffee.

I opened the door and **there stood Michael**, all covered in mud.

She looked out and **there was Pamela**, walking along arm in arm with Goldie.

→ Negation 219

Invitations

182

When we give somebody an invitation, we ask if they would like to go somewhere or do something or have something. We can use the formal phrase *would you like (to)* and the more informal phrase *do you want (to)*:

Would you like to come to dinner on Friday night?

Karen, **would you like** some cake?

Do you want to go for a coffee?

We can accept or reject an invitation. *Thanks* on its own means 'yes':

Accept

A: Frank, **would you like** a chocolate?

B: Yes, please.

A: **Would you like** to come to the cinema with us tonight?

B: **Thanks**. That would be great.

Reject

A: **Do you want** some more coffee?

B: **No thanks**. I'm fine.

A more forceful but polite way of inviting someone to do something is to use an imperative, including emphatic imperatives with *do*:

***Come** and join us.*

***Do** sit down anywhere you like.*

***Don't be** afraid to ask if you want anything.*

We often use *you'll have to* and *you must* when we are not specific about the time, for example *soon*, *in the New Year*, *some time*:

***You'll have to** come over soon.* (*come over* means 'visit us')

***You must** come for a walk with us some time.*

We can also make invitations with *Why don't you ...?*:

A: ***Why don't you** join us for lunch on Sunday?*

B: *Thanks, that's very kind of you.*

→ Imperatives with subject pronouns 172a; Imperatives as offers and invitations 172h

-ish and -y

183

We can add the suffixes *-ish* and *-y* to words in informal contexts to make the reference sound deliberately vague and approximate.

We commonly use the suffix *-ish* when we refer to numbers, times and quantities:

*Ok, I'll come and collect you from your house at seven**ish**.*

A: *How old do you think he is?*

B: *Forty**ish**. Possibly older.*

We can add *-ish* to adjectives, adverbs and prepositions:

A: *Is he tall, her new boyfriend?*

B: *Well, tall**ish**.*

A: *Is it far from the supermarket?*

B: *No, but it's near the cinema, well, near**ish** to the cinema.*

-ish and *-y* are not normally interchangeable. *-ish* is more common than *-y* and *-y* is principally used with colours (though not black or white):

*What colour tie do you think goes with this shirt? The green one? Or should it be the blue**y** one?*

It

184

We commonly use the pronoun *it* as both a subject and an object pronoun:

*Don't drink the milk. **It** smells terrible.*

*Has anyone seen my phone? I can't find **it** anywhere.*

We often use *it* in question tags:

*That furniture is lovely. **It** isn't too expensive for us, is **it**?*

*You know the flat with three bedrooms by the supermarket? **It's** the best one we've seen so far, isn't **it**?*

→Tags 343; *It, this* and *that* in paragraphs 185

It as an 'empty' or 'dummy' subject and object

184a

We can use *it* as an 'empty' subject or as an 'empty' object. It is 'empty' because it doesn't refer to anything in particular:

*I know **it's** going to rain today!*

***It's** getting a bit late now, so let's watch a DVD at home, shall we?*

*She doesn't like **it** when you are so quiet.*

*How long will **it** be before he gives up smoking?*

Anticipatory it

184b

We also use *it* to introduce or 'anticipate' the subject or object of a sentence, especially when the subject or object of the sentence is a clause. Most commonly, such clauses are *to* + infinitive and *that* clauses. We also call this use of *it* a 'dummy' subject, since the real subject is another part of the sentence (real subject underlined):

***It's good** that she's doing more exercise.* (or, more formally: *That she's doing more exercise is good.*)

***It was nice** to talk with them again.* (or, more formally: *To talk with them again was nice.*)

***It's quite likely** that we shall be late, so please do start without us.*

I find it amazing that ...

184c

With verbs such as *find* or *consider*, *it* + adjective + *that* clause or *it* + adjective + *to* infinitive, are commonly used to anticipate an object:

*I find **it** amazing that they've never stopped arguing about football.*

Not: *I find amazing that they've ...*

*I must say, local people will consider **it** to be an insult that they have not learned to speak a few words of the language.*

*I find **it** surprising to see so many people here.*

We also use *it* when a clause is the subject of a verb such as *appear*, *seem*, *look*, *occur*, which hedge or soften the statement, making it less direct:

***It seems** they've all lost contact since they met at the wedding.*

***It occurred to me** that we might visit them while we are in South Africa.*

→Hedges 162

It and cleft sentences (It was my friend who ...)

184d

We use *it* in cleft sentences. *It* emphasises the subject or object of the main clause:

***It was his sister who** ran the marathon in New York, wasn't **it**?*

[talking about a computer problem]
 Was **it** the printer that caused the problem?
It was Mary they promoted, not Laura.

→ Cleft sentences 72

It with the passive voice 184e

It is common with the passive voice. *It* makes the sentence seem less personal and more objective:

It was decided that we should all swim across the lake before breakfast.
It is accepted that research into cancer has advanced considerably in the last few years.

→ Passive: active and passive 257a

***It, this and that* in paragraphs 185**

We use *it*, *this* and *that* to introduce further information about a topic already mentioned. However, the words have different uses.

We use *it* to continue to refer to the topic we are already writing or speaking about:

*The heart is the central organ in our bodies. **It** is used to pump oxygen around the body through the bloodstream. (It refers back to *The heart*)*

*The new album by 'The Noughts' went on sale yesterday. **It** is their third album in three years and is set to become as great a success as previous releases.*

! We don't use *it* when we first give information about a topic, for example immediately after a chapter or section title in a text:

(b) *Green application form*

This must be signed by all applicants and returned by 30 November 2009.

Not: ~~*It must be signed ...*~~

We can use *this* to refer back to whole clauses and sentences and to previous parts of a text. *This* highlights the information referred to much more strongly than *it*. Writers often use *this* when a point or idea is to become an important part of the discussion that follows:

*More and more people are discovering that Tai Chi is one of the most valuable forms of exercise. **This** has led to a big demand for classes. (This refers back to a whole sentence.)*

*Heavy rains and stormy conditions throughout the summer have led to severe shortages in strawberries and other soft fruits. **This** has led to price rises in many supermarkets and shops.*

We use *that* in a similar way to *this*. However, when we use *that*, we distance ourselves more from the topic or from aspects of the topic:

*For many traditional football supporters, it is a problem that so many young girls and women attend football matches these days. **That** is a sexist attitude of course.*

That is also used to refer to ideas associated with another person:

*The chairman apologised for the poor performance of the company and promised a better future for investors. **That** was a promise many people felt he could not possibly keep.*

→ **It 184; Pronouns 287**

It's or its?

186

It's is the contracted form of *it is* or *it has*:

*Can you hear that noise? Where do you think **it's** (it is) coming from?*

***It's** (it is) nearly the end of the month. **It's** (it has) gone really quickly.*

Its is a possessive determiner (like *my*, *your*, *his*) which we use when referring to things or animals:

*Every house in the street has got **its** own garage.*

[talking about a famous American journalist]

*He joined the New York Tribune (1868), becoming **its** editor-in-chief and eventually **its** principal owner (1872–1905).*

We don't use *its* as a possessive pronoun.

↔ Compare

A: <i>Whose is this ball?</i> B: <i>Mine.</i>	Possessive pronoun <i>mine</i> used alone.
A: <i>Whose is this ball?</i> B: <i>The dog's.</i> Not: <i>Its.</i>	Possessive determiner <i>its</i> is not used alone. We repeat the noun which is being referred to.

→ **Pronouns: possessive 291**

Just

187

Just is a common adverb in English, especially in speaking. It has different meanings.

Just meaning 'simply' or 'absolutely'

187a

We can use *just* meaning 'simply' or 'absolutely' to add emphasis to a statement:

*It's **just** not right.*

*Our holiday was **just** perfect.*

Just meaning 'exactly'

187b

*You look **just** like your sister.*

*Can you put your signature **just** here?*

Just meaning 'only'**187c**

*His first pay cheque was **just** fifty pounds.*

[in a clothes shop]

A: *Can I help you?*

B: *No, it's all right, thanks. I'm **just** looking.*

Just and expressions of time**187d**

Just can mean 'recently' or 'a very short time before or after speaking':

*Where's my phone? I had it **just** now.*

*Could you wait for me? I'm **just** going to the shop.*

We often use the present perfect or past perfect with this meaning of *just* when we refer to a short time before the moment of speaking:

*I've **just** decided to sell my apartment.*

*I'm on my way to the station. Their train has **just** arrived.*

Just for emphasis**187e**

We also use *just* to emphasise an imperative:

***Just** shut the door quickly or we're going to be late.*

→ Imperative clauses 172

Just to soften expressions**187f**

We use *just* in speaking to soften what we say, especially in requests:

*Could you **just** open the window?*

*I was **just** wondering if I could speak to you about Anna?*

→ Hedges 162; Requests 316

Kind of and sort of**188**

Kind of and *sort of* are very common expressions in speaking. They soften other words and phrases so that they do not appear too direct or exact. *Kind of* is more common in American English. *Sort of* is more common in British English:

*He's **kind of** jealous that they have become such good friends.*

*I'm sorry but she's just **kind of** lost interest in buying the car.*

*They said it was a chalet but it was more like a **sort of** wooden hut.*

*She's spent the whole year **sort of** travelling around the world.*

→ Hedges 162; Sort, type and kind 328; Vague expressions 359

Late or lately?

189

Late is both an adverb and an adjective; it means the opposite of *early*. *Lately* is also an adverb; it means 'recently'.

Late meaning 'not on time'

189a

Late as an adverb means 'not on time':

*Well, I couldn't find my classroom, so I got to the classroom a bit **late** and then I had to sing a song in front of the other students!*

Not: ~~I got to the classroom a bit lately ...~~

*The programme started **late**.*

Not: ~~The programme started lately.~~

Late as an adjective means 'after the usual time':

*We had a **late** breakfast.*

↔ Compare

<i>We got the train home late.</i>	describes when the activity happened
<i>I got the late train home.</i>	describes the train

Lately meaning 'recently'

189b

We use *lately* for states or for repeated events, mostly with the present perfect:

*She says she's been feeling tired **lately**. I think she's working too much.*

*He's been studying hard **lately**. He's got exams at the end of the month.*

! We don't use *lately* for single events that happened recently:

*I had a strange experience **recently**.*

Not: ~~I had a strange experience lately.~~

! We don't use *lately* as an adjective:

*We usually have a **late** lunch.*

Not: ... a lately lunch.

→ Adjectives 8; Adverbs 16

Least, the least, at least

190

We use the quantifier *least* to talk about quantities, amounts and degree. (*The*) *least* is the superlative form of *little*.

We use *the least* with different classes of words.

We use *the least* to make the superlative forms of longer adjectives and the majority of adverbs:

*Rosalind seems to be **the least** worried about their move. (+ adjective)*

***The least** environmentally damaging power source is also the most expensive.*

*The machines that worked (the) **least** efficiently were replaced.*

We use *the least* with a noun to mean 'less than all of the others'. We can leave out the noun when it is obvious:

*He did **the least** work of any of us.*

*We had a quiz. Rory got the most points. Tim got **the least**. (the least points)*

We use *least* and *the least* with a verb as an adverb:

*None of them worked much, but Karen worked **the least**.*

*Think of the person you'd **least** expect to get the job.*

→Comparative and superlative adjectives 77b

At least

We use *at least* (and with more emphasis *at the very least*) to talk about a minimum number or amount, meaning 'no less than':

*There were **at least** twenty people there.*

*It'll cost you £3,000 **at the very least**.*

We also use *at least* to express a minimum of what we expect to happen, usually when we are annoyed about something:

*You could **at least** have phoned me to say you weren't coming. I waited for ages.*

We use *at least* to rephrase something we have said, to make it more accurate:

*She hasn't got any children. **At least**, I don't think she has.*

We also use *at least* to introduce something positive in a situation that seems negative:

*It's a shame it's so cold but **at least** it isn't raining.*

Less

191

We use the quantifier *less* to talk about reduced quantities, amounts or degree. *Less* is a comparative word.

Less: position

191a

We use *less* with different classes of words. We use *less* after verbs but before every other word class:

[talking about a car]

*This model consumes **less fuel**. (less + noun)*

[sign on a bus]

*Give up this seat to someone **less able** to stand. (less + adjective)*

*Second class post arrives **less quickly** than first class. (less + adverb)*

*It **costs less** to go by bus than by train. (verb + less)*

→Determiners 98; Little, a little, few, a few 196

Less with nouns

191b

We use *less* on its own with singular uncountable nouns:

You've got **less chance** of passing if you don't work hard.

Small local shops can be more expensive and can have **less choice**.

Less of

191c

Whenever we use *less* before articles (*a/an, the*), demonstratives (*this, that*), possessives (*my, your*) or pronouns (*him, it*), we need *of*:

Doctors and nutritionists always seem to be telling us to eat **less of the** food we enjoy.

There was **less of a** crowd at the match today than at last week's.

We see **less of them** since they moved away.

Less without a noun (as a pronoun)

191d

We usually leave out the noun after *less* when the noun is understood:

That's too much pasta for me. Can I have **less**? (less pasta)

Less and less

191e

We often use *less and less* to emphasise a decrease in something:

Ever since I met you, my work has seemed **less and less** important.

I've been sleeping **less and less**.

Less or fewer?

192

We use the quantifiers *less* and *fewer* to talk about quantities, amounts and degree. *Less* and *fewer* are comparative words.

Less is the comparative form of *little*. *Fewer* is the comparative form of *few*.

Less and fewer with a noun

192a

We usually use *less* with uncountable nouns. We use *fewer* with plural nouns:

I do **less work** at weekends than I used to.

Better cycle routes would mean **fewer cars** and **fewer accidents**.

! You will often hear *less* used with plural countable nouns in informal spoken situations, but traditionally it is not considered to be correct:

We've got **less pizzas** than we need. There's **ten people** and **only eight pizzas**.
(traditionally correct usage: fewer pizzas)

Less and fewer with of

192b

When we use *fewer* or *less* before articles (*a/an, the*), demonstratives (*this, that*), possessives (*my, your*) or pronouns (*him, them*), we need to use *of*. We use *less of* with singular nouns and *fewer of* with plural nouns:

It was funny to begin with, but as time went on, it became **less of a** joke.

In ten years' time, more and more people will be demanding information twenty-four hours a day, from all parts of the world. **Fewer of them** will be getting that information from newspapers which arrive hours after the news has occurred.

Less and fewer without a noun**192c**

We can leave out the noun when it is obvious:

*Every year in Britain about 5,000 people die on the roads. **Fewer** are killed at work.
(fewer people)*

→ More or less **O**; Little, a little, few, a few **196**; Least, the least, at least **190**

Let, let's**193****Let: permission****193a**

We use *let* to talk about permission. *Let* is followed by an object and an infinitive without *to*:

*She **let** me look at the photos.*

Not: *She let me to look ...*

*She'd live on pizzas if we **let** her.*

! We don't use *let* in the passive with this meaning:

*They didn't **let** us take photographs inside the theatre. (or We weren't allowed to take photographs ...)*

Not: *We weren't let (to) take photographs*

Let's, let: suggestions, offers, imperatives**193b**

Let us is the first person plural imperative, which we only use in very formal situations. *Let's* is the short form, which we often use to make suggestions which include ourselves:

*It's midday. **Let's** stop now and have some lunch, shall we?*

Not: *Lets stop now ...*

*Okay. We're all ready. **Let's** go.*

We also use *let me* (the first person singular imperative) to give a direct, more formal suggestion or offer:

***Let me** move these books out of your way.*

We use *let* for third person imperatives and for impersonal imperatives:

***Let them** walk home on their own. (third person)*

***Let there** be no doubt about it. (impersonal)*

There are two negative forms of *let's*: *let's not* and *don't let's*. *Let's not* is more common:

***Let's not** argue about money. We can share the costs.*

***Don't let's** throw away the good books with the damaged ones. We can sell them.*

We can use the full forms *let us*, *let us not* and *do not let us* in very formal situations such as political documents and speeches, and religious and other ceremonies:

Let us remember all those who have died in this terrible conflict.

*We must forgive, but **let us not** forget, what happened on that day ten years ago.*

***Do not let us** deceive ourselves that our economic problems can be easily solved.*

→ Allow, permit or let? ❶; Imperative clauses 172; Offers 243; Suggestions 341

Let meaning 'rent'

193c

We use *let* with a direct object meaning 'rent something to someone':

*They've **let** their house for the whole summer.*

Like

194

Like has a number of meanings and uses.

Like as a verb meaning 'enjoy'

194a

We use *like* to talk about things or people which we enjoy or feel positive about:

like + noun phrase

*I **like** Sarah but I don't **like** her brother much.*

*Do you **like** pasta?*

*She really **likes** the singing of Luciano Pavarotti.*

like + -ing

*I **like** swimming before breakfast.*

*He **likes** telling jokes.*

like + to-infinitive

*She **likes** to go and see her parents at the weekend.*

*I don't **like** to cycle in the dark.*

*He **likes** his friends to call him Hank.*

*Do you think she would she **like** us to bring some chocolates or flowers?*

like + wh-clause

*I didn't **like** what he did.*

*We **liked** how they cooked the fish.*

→ Hate, like, love and prefer ❷

Would like in offers and requests

194b

We use *would like* or *'d like* to offer something to someone in a polite way or to ask them to do something politely (requests), or politely to say what we want. We use the *to*-infinitive form of verbs that follow:

***Would you like** another coffee?*

***Would you like** to watch a DVD?*

[At a fast food restaurant]

A: *How can I help you?*

B: *I'd like a cheese burger and fries please.*

[In an email to a company that has advertised a job]

... *I'd like to enquire about the Sales Manager position which you have advertised ...*

Would you like to follow me, please? (Please follow me)

→ **Would like 394; Offers 243; Requests 316**

Like as a preposition meaning 'similar to'

194c

Like means 'similar to'. We often use it with verbs of the senses such as *look, sound, feel, taste, seem*:

My sister is like my mother. (My sister and my mother are similar)

I think this tastes like coconut.

That looks like Marco's car.

He seems like a nice man.

When we use *like* to mean 'similar to', we can put words and phrase such as *a bit, just, very, so* and *more* before it to talk about the degree of similarity:

It's a bit like skiing but there's no snow.

Isn't that just like the bike we bought you for your birthday?

That smells very like garlic.

The car was more like a green than a blue colour.

Like as a conjunction

194d

In informal contexts, we can use *like* as a conjunction instead of *as*. Traditional grammar books consider this use of *like* incorrect:

Like any good cook book will tell you, don't let the milk boil. (or *As any good cook book ...*)

→ **As or like? 43; As if and as though 41; Conjunctions 88**

Like as a suffix

194e

We can use *like* as a suffix at the end of a noun to mean 'similar to':

There is something child-like about Marianne. She always seems so innocent.

Like in spoken English

194f

In informal speaking, you will hear *like* used very commonly. It has a number of functions. It is important not to use these forms in formal writing such as academic essays.

Filler

We can use *like* to fill in the silence when we need time to think about what to say next or how to rephrase what we have just said:

*I want to ... **like** ... I think we need to think carefully about it. It's ... **like** ... it's a very difficult decision for us to make.*

Focusing attention

We can use *like* to bring attention to what we are going to say next. We do this especially when talking about quantities and times:

*There were **like** five hundred guests at the wedding. (like brings focus to the large number of guests)*

*It wasn't till **like** 12:00 that I actually got to start on the project. (like brings focus to how late it was)*

Asking for an example (*Like what?*)

In speaking, we often use *like what?* to ask for an example:

A: *Some really funny things happened on the last day of school.*

B: *Funny things? **Like what?***

It can also be used to ask a question, meaning 'similar to what?':

[talking about a new restaurant]

A: *There was kangaroo steak on the menu. I decided to try it.*

B: *Really?*

A: *Yeah. It actually tasted good.*

B: ***Like what?***

A: *I don't know. Like steak but softer.*

Softening what has just been said

We can use *like* at the end of what we say to modify or soften what we have just said especially if we are not sure if it was the right thing to say:

[A and B are talking about B's holiday]

A: *So did you buy anything there?*

B: *No. It was too expensive, **like**.*

*I hated the film. It was very violent, **like**.*

Reported speech

It has become common in very informal speaking to use *like* as a reporting verb. It can be used to report what someone said or what someone thought. It is used especially by young people, and it makes what is reported sound more dramatic:

*Jason was **like** 'I'm not going to Alma's party because Chris is going to be there' and I'm **like** 'he's so afraid of Chris'. (in the first use of *like*, it means 'he said', but in the second use it means 'I thought')*

Saying something is like something else

We can use the structure *it + be + like* to introduce an example or say that something is similar to something else:

*It's **like** when you go to the airport and you keep thinking that you have forgotten something important.*

[a woman talking about her husband Bob]

Everyone is always saying hello to Bob. *It's like* being married to a superstar!

Be like or what is ... like?

194g

We can use *be like* to ask for a description of someone or something (e.g. their appearance, their character, their behaviour):

What's your new apartment like?

Not: ~~How is your new apartment like?~~

→ *How is ...? or What is ... like?* 165

Be like or look like?

194h

We use *be like* to talk about someone's character or personality. We use *look like* to talk about someone's appearance:

A: *What is your new boss like?*

B: *She's nice. She's very professional.*

Not: ~~She's like a very professional person.~~

A: *What does your father look like?*

B: *He's very like me but taller and older!*

↔ Compare

A: <i>What is Martina's new boyfriend like?</i> B: <i>He's really nice.</i>	What is his personality like? Is he nice?
A: <i>What does Martina's new boyfriend look like?</i> B: <i>He's tall, with blond hair.</i>	What is his appearance like? Is he handsome?

→ *Hate, like, love and prefer* O; *How* 164

Likely and unlikely

195

Likely and *unlikely* are adjectives. We use them to say that something will probably happen or not happen in the future. We can use them before a noun, or with the verbs *be*, *seem* and *appear*:

What is the most likely outcome of the referendum?

It seems unlikely that inflation will fall below 3% this year.

We can follow *likely* or *unlikely* by a verb in the *to*-infinitive form:

The economy is likely to recover slowly after the long recession.

Are you likely to want this cardboard box or shall I throw it out?

The weather seems unlikely to change over the next few days.

Instead of *unlikely*, we can say *not likely*:

Zoe's not likely to arrive before eight o'clock. She doesn't finish work till seven.

We can also follow *likely* and *unlikely* by a *that*-clause with *will*. This pattern is less common than *likely/unlikely* + *to*-infinitive:

It is **likely** that there will be a general election next year. or There is **likely** to be a general election next year.

It seems **unlikely** that space travel for ordinary people will become common in the near future.

We can use adverbs such as *very, quite, highly* and *extremely* before *likely* and *unlikely* to make their meaning stronger:

The government is **very likely** to propose changes to the income tax system soon.

I think it's **highly unlikely** that she'll get into university with the test scores she has.

We can compare how probable different things are using *likely* and *unlikely* with *as ... as, more, (the) most, less* and *(the) least*:

Steve is **as likely** to get the job **as** Dora. They're both very well qualified.

People are **more likely** to take climate change seriously if they can understand the economic consequences for their own lives.

Kevin is **(the) least likely** to want to get married of all his friends.

In American English, and more and more in British English, *likely* is used as a mid-position adverb (like *probably* in British English), most commonly between *will* and a main verb:

The new regulations **will likely** result in many people losing their jobs.

Typical error

- *It is likely* to does not mean the same as *it is easy* to:

It's **easy** to forget to save your work on the computer.

Not: It's ~~likely to~~ forget ...

It's **easy** to confuse mushrooms you can eat with poisonous ones.

Not: It's ~~likely to~~ confuse ...

Little, a little, few, a few

196

(A) *little* and (a) *few* are quantifiers meaning 'some'. *Little* and *few* have negative meanings. We use them to mean 'not as much as may be expected or wished for'.

↔ Compare

All she wanted was a few moments on her own.	some, a small number
She had few moments on her own.	not many/almost none
She saves a little money every month.	some, a small amount
They had little money to spend.	not much/almost nothing
A: Have you got any money? B: Yes, a little .	some, a small amount
A: Have you got any money? B: No, very little .	not much/almost nothing

A little, a few with a noun

196a

We use *a little* with singular uncountable nouns. We use *a few* with plural countable nouns:

*Mary said nothing, but she drank some tea and ate **a little** bread.*

*We stayed **a few** days in Florence and visited the museums.*

→ Nouns: countable and uncountable 228

Little, few with a noun

196b

We use *little* with uncountable nouns. We use *few* with plural countable nouns. They are used in formal contexts:

*I'm not very happy about it but I suppose I have **little** choice.*

***Few** cities anywhere in Europe can match the cultural richness of Berlin.*

[talking about a period of history]

*At that time **few** people travelled who didn't have to.*

(A) little, (a) few without a noun

196c

We can use *(a) little* and *(a) few* as pronouns. We can use them to substitute for a noun when it is obvious from the context:

*After that, she began to tell them **a little** about her life in Scotland, particularly her life with the Rosenblooms.*

*Don't take all the strawberries. Just have **a few**.* (Just have a few strawberries.)

Little and few are not very common without a noun. We use them in formal contexts:

***Little** is known about his upbringing and education.*

***Few** would be in favour of police officers carrying weapons.*

→ Determiners followed by pronouns 99g; Determiners and singular countable nouns 99a; Determiners and uncountable nouns or plural countable nouns 99e; Substitution 336

(A) little of, (a) few of

196d

We use *of* with *(a) little* and *(a) few* when they come before articles (*a/an, the*), demonstratives (*this, that*), possessives (*my, your*) or pronouns (*him, them*):

*Put the flour into a bowl, blend with **a little of** the milk, beat in the egg yolks, then the sugar and the rest of the milk.*

***A few of** his films were seen abroad.*

A little: adverb

196e

We use *a little* as an adverb of degree. It is more formal than *a bit*:

*He smiled just **a little**.*

*Her hands were shaking **a little**.*

→ A bit ○; Adverbs 16

A little with adjectives, determiners, adverbs**196f**

We use *a little* before adjectives and adverbs to modify them. It is more formal than *a bit*:

*She seemed to be getting **a little** better.*

*What you need is **a little** more romance.*

We often use *a little* with *bit*:

*I find that **a little** bit hard to believe.*

→ **A bit** 196; **Much, many, a lot of, lots of: quantifiers** 214

Little: adjective**196g**

We use *little* as an adjective to mean 'small':

*'You're going to have a **little** baby brother, Martha,' her mother told her one day.*

*I know a **little** restaurant not far from here.*

Little or small?

Little and *small* have similar meanings. We use *small* to refer only to size. We use *little* to refer to size, but also to express a positive emotion (especially with words like *beautiful*, *lovely*, *wonderful*):

*He's a **small** baby. (He's smaller than average.)*

*He's a lovely **little** baby. (He's lovely and small.)*

*There's a wonderful **little** café at the end of the street. (preferred to: There's a wonderful small café at the end of the street.)*

→ **Less or fewer?** 192; **Comparison: nouns** 79

Long**197**

Long is an adjective or an adverb.

We can use *long* to talk about time, distance or length.

Time

We use *long* as an adverb in questions and negative clauses to talk about duration:

*A: How **long** has Valerie been staying with you?*

B: She arrived in January, so she's been here for four months.

*Marco didn't stay **long** at the party.*

*Don't be **long**.*

! We don't use *long* on its own in affirmative clauses. We often use *(for) a long time*:

*We waited **for a long time** in the rain for the bus.*

Not: ... waited long ...

*They took **a long time** getting here.*

Not: They took long ...

We can use *long* in affirmative clauses with *too*, *enough* and *so*:

*A month is **too long** to wait for an appointment.*

*We've waited **long enough** for a reply. I think we need to phone them.*

*You took **so long**. What were you doing?*

When we talk about actual amounts of time, we can use phrases with time + *long*, or phrases like *all day long*, *all month long*:

*The lecture was **three hours long**.*

*We worked **all day long**.*

We can also use *a long time ago*, *long ago* or *long before* to refer to a time many years in the past:

*This castle was built **a long time ago**. (or ... was built **long ago**.)*

***Long before** you were born, there was a factory here. It was closed in the 1960s.*

We use *long* as an adjective:

*You're home already. That can't have been a very **long** film.*

Distance

We can use the phrase *a long way* to talk about distance:

*My house is **a long way** from the station. You'll have to take a taxi.*

*It's **a long way** to the nearest petrol station.*

In negative statements and questions we usually use *far*:

*My house is not **far** from the station.*

*Is it **far** to the beach?*

Length

We use *long* to talk about the length of something:

*It was three metres **long** and four metres wide.*

*How **long** is the boat?*

*This is such a **long** queue. It's going to take at least an hour.*

As long as

The phrase *as long as* is used as a conjunction. It means 'on condition that':

***As long as** the weather is okay, we're going to paint the house tomorrow.*

*Jenny said she'd come to the party **as long as** we don't stay too late.*

→ Conditionals 84; Conjunctions 88

No longer and not any longer

We can use the phrases *no longer* and *not ... any longer* to refer to something that used to exist or happen but does not exist or happen now:

There are **no longer** any family bakeries in our town.

A: Are you still working at the garden centre?

B: No, **not any longer**.

→ **Any more or any more?** 198

Typical error

- We can't use *long* on its own in affirmative sentences:

A: Will it take **long**?

B: No, it won't take **long**. (or Yes, it'll take **a long time**.)

Not: Yes, it'll take long.

Look

198

We use the verb *look* to mean 'turn our eyes in a particular direction to see something'. It is followed by *at* to refer to the person or thing which we see:

He's **looking at** me.

Not: He's looking me.

Look, there's a massive spider!

Don't **look** now.

[In a shop]

A: Can I help you?

B: No thank you, I'm just **looking**.

! We don't use *look* with *if* or *whether*. We use *see* instead:

Can you **see if** there are any biscuits in the cupboard?

Not: Can you look if there are ...

Look is used to form a number of phrasal and prepositional verbs (*look for*, *after*, *look up*, etc.). A good dictionary will give you information on these verbs.

→ **Look at, see, or watch?** 199

Look as a linking verb

198a

We often use *look* as a linking verb like *appear*, *be*, *become*, *seem*. As a linking verb, *look* does not take an object and it is followed by a phrase or clause which gives more information about the subject (a complement):

That picture **looks** old.

That jacket **looks** very expensive.

Look as a linking verb is sometimes followed by *like*, *as if* or *as though*:

look like + noun phrase

He **looks like** someone famous.

It **looks like** a nice day outside.

look as if/as though + clause

*She **looks as if** she is going to cry.*

*They **looked as though** they had seen a ghost.*

→ Linking verbs 364b

Look as a discourse marker**198b**

We sometimes use *look* as a discourse marker but it needs to be used carefully as it is very strong. We use it when we are explaining something or making a point, especially when we are annoyed or speaking very forcefully:

[in a political debate]

***Look**, too many people have died in this war.*

[a boss talking to an employee]

***Look**, Mark, you have been late for work every day this week. Is there a reason?*

→ Discourse markers 104

Look at, see or watch?**199****Look at****199a**

When we *look at* something, we direct our eyes in its direction and pay attention to it:

[the speaker is sitting at her computer]

*Come and **look at** this photo Carina sent me.*

***Look at** the rabbit!*



When *look* has an object, it is followed by *at*:

***Look at** the rain. It's so heavy.*

Not: ~~Look the rain.~~

See**199b**

See means noticing something using our eyes. The past simple form is *saw* and the *-ed* form is *seen*:

*I **saw** Trevor at the shopping centre yesterday.*

*Has anyone **seen** my glasses?*

→ See 318

Watch as a verb**199c**

Watch is similar to *look at*, but it usually means that we look at something for a period of time, especially something that is changing or moving:

*We **watch** television every evening.*

*I like to sit at the window to **watch** what's happening in the garden.*



We use *see*, not *watch*, when we talk about being at sports matches or public performances, such as films, theatre and dramas. However, we *watch* the television:

We **saw** a wonderful new film last night. You'll have to go and **see** it while it's in the cinema.

Not: We watched ... You'll have to go and watch ...

↔ Compare

<i>I watched 'Phantom of the Opera' last night on DVD.</i>	I was at home.
<i>I saw 'Phantom of the Opera' last night.</i>	I was at a theatre or cinema.

When we look at something for a long time, we use *watch*, not *see*.

↔ Compare

<i>We watched whales jumping out of the water.</i>	<i>Watch</i> focuses on the process of seeing: we spent time looking at the whales.
<i>We saw whales jumping out of the water.</i>	<i>See</i> focuses more on the finished event. It doesn't suggest that we spent much time looking at the whales.

Look at, see or watch: typical errors

199d

- When there is an object, we use *at* after *look*:

*If you go for a walk by the river, you can **look at** the beautiful scenery.*

Not: ... you can look the beautiful scenery.

- We don't use *watch* to talk about things that we see without trying:

*If you go to the forest, you might **see** some deer.*

Not: ... you might watch some deer.

- We don't use *watch* when referring to a film in the cinema:

A: *We're going to the cinema tonight.*

B: *What are you going to **see**?* (Not: What are you going to watch?)

A: *I'm not sure. I really want to **see** the new Rocky movie but Nancy said she's not interested in that.*

Not: *I really want to watch the new Rocky movie ...*

- We use *watch*, not *see*, when we refer to something on the television:

*At night, I like to **watch** the television.*

Not: ... I like to see the television.

Lots, a lot, plenty

200

We use *lots*, *a lot* and *plenty* in informal styles to talk about quantities, amounts and degree. *Lots* and *a lot* are similar in meaning to *much* and *many*. *Plenty* means 'enough' or 'more than enough'. *Lots* is even more informal than *a lot*.

Lots, a lot, plenty with a noun

When we use *lots*, *a lot* or *plenty* with a noun, we need *of*:

*I've got **lots of** plans for today.*

*There'll be **a lot of** your friends there.*

*There's no need to rush. We've got **plenty of** time.*

Not: *We've got plenty time.*

Lots, a lot, plenty without a noun

We usually leave out the noun after *a lot*, *lots* and *plenty* when the noun is obvious.

When there is no following noun, we don't use *of*:

A: *I haven't got any money*

B: *Don't worry, I've got **plenty**.* (plenty of money)

*She didn't bring anything to eat but we've got **lots** anyway.*

Not: ... but we've got lots of anyway.

Formal styles: a great deal of, a good deal of, a large number

We prefer to use expressions like *a great deal of* (+ singular uncountable nouns) or *a large number of* (+ plural nouns) in more formal styles:

*There's **a great deal of** truth in what he said.*

*From here, **a large number of** roads led back to various parts of the city.*

→ *Much, many, a lot of, lots of: quantifiers* 214

Make**201**

The verb *make* can be used in a number of ways.

Make + object

We use *make* + object to talk about things that we produce or create:

*She **made** some coffee.*

*Did you really **make** this table?*

There are many expressions which use this pattern:

make a claim

make a mess

make a speech

make a complaint

make a mistake

make a start

make a concession

make a note

make a statement

make a date

make a phone call

make a wish

make a difference

make a point

make an appointment

make a fuss

make a profit/loss

make an effort

make a list

make a sound

→ *Do or make?* 106

Make + object (o) + adjective complement (ac)

[o] [ac]

*Music **makes** me happy.*

Make + object (o) + noun complement (nc)

[o] [nc]

They **made** her team captain for the coming year.

[at the lost luggage department at an airport]

A: When am I going to get my suitcase?

B: I promise you we're going to **make** it a priority.**Make + indirect object (io) + direct object (do)**

[io] [do]

The chef **made** him a special cake.Can I **make** you a cup of tea or coffee?**Make + object (o) + prepositional phrase (pp) with for**

[o] [pp with for]

Can you **make** a sandwich for Lisa as well? (or Can you make Lisa a sandwich as well?)I've **made** an appointment for you at the dentist's.We don't use the preposition *to* in this pattern with *make*:I **made** pasta **for** our guests.Not: I ~~made~~ pasta ~~to~~ our guests.**Make + object + adjective (or noun) complement + prepositional phrase with for**

[o] [AC] [pp with for]

He **made** life difficult for me.

[o] [nc] [pp with for]

What would **make** it a better book for students?→ **Made from, made of, made out of, made with** ○**Make meaning 'force to do'**We can use *make* meaning 'force someone (to do something)'. In the active voice, we use it with an infinitive without *to*:The boss **made** me work an extra day.Not: The boss ~~made~~ me ~~to~~ work ...However, in the passive voice, we must use an infinitive with *to*:The people **were made** to wait outside while the committee reached its decision.**May****202****May: forms****202a****Affirmative (+) form***May* comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):It **may** be possible for him to get home tonight.

May can't be used with another modal verb:

*This **may** hurt you.*

Not: ~~This may could hurt you.~~ or ~~This could may hurt you.~~

Negative (-) form

The negative form of *may* is *may not*. We don't use *don't/doesn't/didn't* with *may*:

*We **may not** have enough information at the moment.*

Not: ~~We don't may have enough information at the moment.~~

! We don't use *mayn't* as the contracted form of *may not*:

*We **may not** yet know what is safe to eat.*

Not: ~~We mayn't yet know what is safe to eat.~~

→ Modal verbs 208a

Question (?) form

! The subject and *may* change position to form questions. We don't use *do/does/did*:

***May** we drop you at your hotel?*

Not: ~~Do we may drop you at your hotel?~~

***May** I leave the room, please?*

Not: ~~Do I may leave the room please?~~

May: uses

202b

Permission

We use *may* to ask for, give and refuse permission. It is quite formal.

asking for permission	giving permission	refusing permission
<i>May I leave the room?</i>	<i>Yes, you may.</i>	<i>No, you may not.</i>
<i>May we use your phone?</i>	<i>Yes, you may.</i>	<i>No, you may not.</i>

Can, *could* and *may* are all used to ask for permission. *May* is the most formal/polite and *could* is more formal and polite than *can*.

→ Can, could or may? 66; Requests 316

Possibility

We use *may* to refer to weak possibility in the present and future:

*The economy **may** go up or down in the next year.* (I think both are possible, the economy going up or the economy going down. I am not making either one a strong possibility.)

*I think I **may** go to the doctor today and try to get some antibiotics.* (I am not very sure yet if I will go to the doctor.)

General truths

We use *may* in formal writing, especially academic English, to describe things which the speaker thinks are generally true or possible. In this case, it is a more formal equivalent of *can*.

↔ Compare

A typical farmer's cottage can be seen in the Ulster Folk Museum.	Both sentences express what the speaker believes to be a general truth about where the cottage is located. The speaker knows that there is a cottage in the museum and a visitor is able to see them there if they want to. <i>May</i> is more formal.
A typical farmer's cottage may be seen in the Ulster Folk Museum.	

→ Hedges 162

Accepting a different view or opinion

We often use *may* to accept a different view or opinion, especially with *well*, and/or followed by *but*:

One month **may well** be too long to go away on holiday.

I **may** be wrong but I am going to tell the police about it.

The couch **may well** cost more but it's going to be different.

May as well and might as well

203

We can use *may as well* and *might as well* for making suggestions. We can use them to say what we think is the easiest or most logical course of action when we cannot see a better alternative. They are both fairly informal. *Might as well* is more common than *may as well*:

You **might as well** get a taxi from the station. It'll be quicker than me coming in to get you.

A: What time does the film finish?

B: I think it's ten o'clock.

A: Uh-huh. **We may as well** eat in town before it, then.

We can make *may as well* and *might as well* stronger by using *just* after *may* or *might*:

Well, I think if it's a choice between a job and a place at college, you **may just as well** take the job. At least you'll earn some money.

We don't know anyone here and they're discussing stuff that doesn't concern us. **We might just as well** leave.

! *May as well* and *might as well* don't mean the same as *may also* and *might also*, in the sense of 'possibly in addition':

Before you go hiking, buy yourself a good pair of boots. You **may also** need to buy thick walking socks. (in addition to boots, you might need to buy socks)

Not: You ~~may as well~~ buy ...

Mean

204

Understanding

We use *mean* to explain or ask what a word or phrase refers to. We form questions with *mean* with the auxiliary verb *do*:

What **does** 'strike' **mean**?

Not: What ~~means~~ 'strike'?



We don't normally use *mean* in the continuous form when we are talking about expressing ideas:

What **does** that sign **mean**?

Not: What ~~is~~ that sign ~~meaning~~?

Talking about intentions

We use *mean* to clarify something that we have said or to explain what we intended to say:

A: You have to take the road by the church.

B: Which church?

A: Here's what I **mean**, Lynn: there are two roads ahead. Take the right-hand road.

We use *mean* followed by a *to*-infinitive to express intentions:

Sorry, I **didn't mean** to upset you.

I **meant** to call you before I left. I forgot.

We often use *keep meaning to* for longer-term intentions:

I've got to go to the dentist. I **keep meaning to** make an appointment.

Talking about significance

We use *mean* to say that something is important or significant:

The bracelet **meant** a lot to her. It had belonged to her grandmother.

Does this name **mean** anything to you?

Mean: result in

We can use *mean* + noun to talk about one thing resulting in another:

Higher fuel prices will **mean** higher airfares. (will result in or involve)

Talking about necessity or obligation

We use *mean* + -ing form to talk about something necessary or the result of something:

I'll have to catch the 7 am train to Nottingham, which **means** getting up at 5 am.

(I need to get up at 5 am.)

We also use the passive *be meant to* to express obligation. It has a similar meaning to 'be supposed to':

Why are you watching TV? You're **meant to** be working.

→Modality: Expressions with *be* 212c

Mean by

We can use *mean by* to ask what somebody is specifically thinking of when they use a word or phrase:

A: *We don't want to discourage her from studying.*

B: *It depends what you **mean by** 'discourage'.*

A: *Well, I mean make her think we can't afford to pay for her.*

Means (noun)

Even though it ends in an 's', *means* is a singular noun. We use a singular verb with it. We use it to talk about a method of doing something:

*The most economical **means** of travelling to Aberdeen is by plane.* (the most economical method or way)

Not: ... most-economical-mean ... or ... most-economical-means-are ...

I mean**204a**

We use *I mean* very commonly in speaking as a discourse marker. We use it when we want to add to what we have just said, to make a point clearer or to correct what we have just said:

*The law is not fair. **I mean**, it's just not right that he didn't go to prison.* (adding)

*It cost over £200. **I mean**, that's more than most of us can afford.* (making something clearer)

*We need to ask Helen, **I mean** Harriet.* (correcting)

We often use *I mean* when hesitating, to make something negative less strong or to soften a disagreement:

A: *What do you think of Ben?*

B: *Well, **I mean**, he's not very confident and not always sure what he's supposed to be doing.*

*I think Peter probably has a strong view about that. It's interesting ... **I mean** I ... what I said earlier and **I mean** Peter might disagree with me.*

When we are not sure what to say, we sometimes use *I mean*. We often pause before or after it:

*She's not coming back, er **I mean**, erm ... she and I have broken up.*



We don't use *I mean* to introduce opinions. It is not the same as *I think*:

***I think** we should stay at the Lakeside Inn.*

Not: ~~*I mean we should stay at the Lakeside Inn.*~~

You know what I mean**204b**

We often use the phrase *you know what I mean* (or *if you know what I mean* or *do you know what I mean?*) in speaking, to check that our listener understands what we are saying or to show that we assume the listener has the same opinion about something:

A: *I just can't go to Norah's house.*

B: *Why's that?*

A: *I just don't like all the cats. **You know what I mean?** They're everywhere even in the beds.*

B: *Yeah, I have to say I'm not a fan of cats either.* (A is checking that B understands that she doesn't like all the cats in Norah's house and she assumes that B is going to understand)

*Ken isn't very helpful, **if you know what I mean.***

*We've got white on the walls in the back room now, but I think he feels as though, pink is not the right colour for the front room, **do you know what I mean?***

→ Discourse markers 104

Mean: typical errors

- We use auxiliary *do* in questions with *mean*:

*What does 'rosehip' **mean**?*

Not: ~~What means 'rosehip'?~~

- We don't use *I mean* to introduce opinions:

***I think** people shouldn't start university until they are 20.*

Not: ~~I mean people shouldn't ...~~

- *Means* is a singular noun. We use a singular verb with it:

*A very relaxing **means** of transport is the train.*

Not: ~~... very-relaxing mean of transport are the train.~~

Measurements

205

Area: length, width, depth and height

205a

We use the nouns *length*, *width*, *depth* and *height* and the adjectives *long*, *wide*, *deep* and *high* to talk about area and size:

A: *What **length** is the pool at the sports club?*

B: *Eighteen metres, I think.*

A: *And what about the **depth**?*

B: *It's not very **deep**, maybe a metre.*

*The island is 11 miles **long** and 5 miles **wide**.*

*We were travelling at a **height** of 10,000 metres above sea level.*

*The statue is 3 metres **high**.*

*The zoo insists on the mammals having a pool at least 10 metres **deep**, 30 metres **wide** and 150 metres **long**.*

We can use *by* instead of *long* and *wide*:

*The island is 11 miles **by** 5 miles.*

Tall or high?

We use *tall* for people, buildings and things that grow. Otherwise we use *high*:

*She's very **tall** for her age.*

Not: *She's very ~~high~~ for her age.*

*The Burj Dubai will be the world's **tallest** tower.*

*The plants were two metres **tall**.*

***High** ceilings are common in Georgian houses.*

*They built **high** walls around the garden.*

→ **High or tall?** ○

Weight and volume**205b**

We use the verb *weigh* to measure weight:

*The engine is designed to take minimum space and **weighs** 55 kg.*

We buy things (fruit, vegetables, flour, etc.) *by the kilo/pound*, etc:

*We buy rice **by the kilo**, which works out cheaper.*

We use the verb *hold* to indicate volume:

*The bath **holds** 500 litres before it overflows.*

Frequency, speed, time**205c**

We use many different expressions to describe frequency, speed and time. Here are some of them:

Frequency

[from a brochure describing a holiday villa]

*Linen is changed **weekly** and the villa is cleaned **twice a week**.*

Speed

*Each time you fill the bath, the water flows in at the rate of **15 litres per minute** through the cold tap and **12 litres per minute** through the hot tap (when they are fully turned on).*

*The traffic moves at a fast pace; a speed of over **one hundred kilometres an hour** is not difficult. (or ... 100 kilometres **per hour**.)*

Time

*You could hire the boats **by the hour**, and so they took one and rowed on the lake.*



We use *a/an* or *per* when we talk about prices or times in relation to weights, speed and other times, not *the*:

*This cheese is £12.50 **a** kilo. (or £12.50 **per** kilo)*

Not: ... £12.50 ~~the~~ kilo

*The speed limit in towns in the UK is 30 miles **per** hour. (or 30 miles **an** hour)*

Not: ... 30 miles ~~the~~ hour.

It costs 20 pounds **an** hour to rent a boat on the lake.

→ Abbreviations, initials and acronyms ○

You will find tables of weights and measures in a good learner's dictionary.

Might

206

Might: forms

206a

Affirmative (+) form

Might comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

She **might** sell her house.

This **might** be true.

Not: ~~That might can be true.~~ or ~~That can might be true.~~

Negative (–) form

The negative form of *might* is *might not* or *mightn't*. We don't use *don't/doesn't/didn't* with *might*:

There **might not** be anyone in the house. (or There **mightn't** be ...)

Not: ~~There doesn't might be anyone in the house.~~

→ Modal verbs 208a

Question (?) form

The subject and *might* change position to form questions.

! We don't use *do/does/did*:

Might this be the key?

Not: ~~Does this might be the key?~~

Mightn't this be the key?

Not: ~~Doesn't might this be the key?~~

We can use *might* and *mightn't* in question tags, but they're not very common:

That might not be a bad idea, **might it?**

That plant might do better by the window, **mightn't it?**

Might: uses

206b

Possibility

We use *might* most often to refer to weak possibility:

I **might** go to Japan for a month to study Japanese.

The dog **might** bark when we pass by the gate.

They **might** not like very hot food.

Permission

We use *might* to refer to permission. It is very formal and is not used very often:

***Might** I ask your name?*

***Might** I interrupt you for a moment?*

! The reply to these will not contain *might*:

A: ***Might** I ask your address?*

B: Yes. It's 41 Ross Avenue.

A: ***Might** I ask you a question?*

B: Yes. Of course.

Not: Yes. You might.

Suggestions

We can use *might* to give advice or make a suggestion sound more polite or less direct, especially when used together with *like*, *prefer* or *want*:

[A waiter politely suggesting a dessert to a customer.]

You **might** like to try one of our wonderful desserts.

→ Declarative clauses 71a; Suggestions 341

Criticism

We often use *might have* + *-ed* form to express disapproval or criticism:

You **might have told** me you weren't coming home for dinner. (you didn't tell me)

You **might have tidied** your room.

Might: reporting *may*

We use *might* as the past form of *may* in indirect reports:

'That **may** not be true', she said.

She said that it **might** not be true.

→ Reported speech 312

Might: typical error

206c

- We don't use *might* for ability; we use *can* or *could*:

Although you **can** visit these places, if you are tired, you're welcome to stay in the hotel.

Not: Although you ~~might~~ visit these places ...

I **could** hear the noise of an engine.

Not: I ~~might~~ hear the noise of an engine.

→ Can 65; Could 95

Modality: introduction

207

Modality is about a speaker's or a writer's attitude towards the world. A speaker or writer can express certainty, possibility, willingness, obligation, necessity and ability by using modal words and expressions.

Speakers often have different opinions about the same thing.

These speakers are looking at the same thing.



Modal verbs

207a

Here are the main verbs we use to express modal meanings:

Core modal verbs: *can, could, may, might, will, shall, would, should, must*

Semi-modals: *dare, need, ought to, used to*

Other verbs with modal meanings: *have (got) to, be going to* and *be able to*

→ *Be able to* 54b; *Be going to*: form 135a; *Can* 65; *Could* 95; *Dare* 0; *Have got to* and *have to* 156; *May* 202; *Might* 206; *Must* 216; *Need* 218; *Ought to* 253; *Shall* 320; *Should* 321; *Used to* 357; *Will* 384; *Would* 393

Modal words and expressions

207b

There are a number of other words and expressions in English, apart from the main modal verbs, which also express modal meanings.

Here are some examples:

modal form	example
noun	There is a possibility of snow this evening.
adjective	It's clear that the Prime Minister is worried about education.
adverb	I'm certainly not fed up with it.

→ Modality: meanings and uses 209; Modality: other modal words and expressions 212;
Be expressions 54

Modality: forms

208

Modal verbs

208a

Core modal verbs have only one form. They have no *to*-infinitive form, *-ing* form, past form or *-ed* form. We have to reword what we want to say by using other expressions:

I'd love to be able to see the Taj Mahal one day.

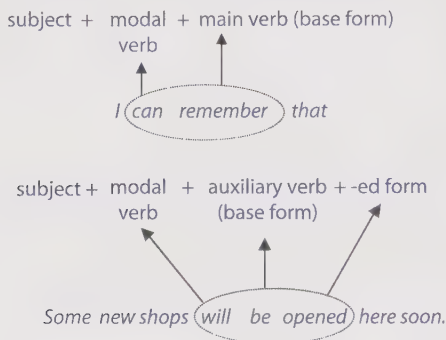
Not: *I'd love to can see the Taj Mahal one day.*

They had to sell their house.

Not: ~~They musted sell their house.~~

Affirmative (+) forms

Modal verbs are placed first in the verb phrase (after the subject) and are followed by a verb in the base form. The next verb may be a main verb or an auxiliary verb (*be, have*):



Modal verbs do not change form for tense or person. Modal verbs can be followed by the substitute verb *do*:

A: *We thought he **might** sell the house*

B: *Yes, he **could do**.*

Modal verbs cannot be used with another modal verb:

*Windsurfing **can** be difficult.*

Not: ~~Windsurfing can might be difficult.~~ or ~~Windsurfing might can be difficult.~~

Modal verbs always go before other verbs in a verb phrase:

[in a restaurant after a meal]

*I think the bill **could** be expensive.*

Not: ~~I think the bill could expensive.~~

*You **can** go swimming, go for a long walk or visit the exhibition.*

Not: ~~You can swimming, go for a long walk or visit the exhibition.~~

Modal verbs can only be used alone when the main verb is clearly understood:

A: *She **could** take the bus.*

B: *Yeah, that's true. She **could**.* (She could take the bus.)

A: *He may be wrong, you know.*

B: *Yes, he **may**.* (Yes, he may be wrong.)

Negative (-) forms

! Negatives are formed by adding 'not' after the modal verbs. We don't use *don't/doesn't/didn't* with modal verbs:

*We **can't** hear very well at the back.*

Not: ~~We don't can hear very well ...~~

Question (?) forms

! The subject and the modal verb change position to form questions. We don't use *do/does/did*:

Could you help me?

Not: ~~Do you could help me?~~

Will it be a problem?

Not: ~~Does it will be a problem?~~

Why **can't** you come too?

Not: ~~Why don't you can come too?~~

We use modal verbs in question tags:

You **can't** live like that, **can** you?

It **could** be any of those things, **couldn't** it?

→ Question tags 343c; Tags 343

Contracted forms

In speaking *shall* and *will* are often contracted to 'll and *would* is contracted to 'd, especially when they follow a pronoun:

I'll see you later.

We'll never get there.

I knew they'd love it.

The negative forms of modal verbs are often contracted.

modal verb	uncontracted negative	contracted negative
<i>can</i>	<i>cannot</i> (usually written as one word not two)	<i>can't</i> /kɑnt/
<i>could</i>	<i>could not</i>	<i>couldn't</i> /'kʊdənt/
<i>may</i>	<i>may not</i>	
<i>might</i>	<i>might not</i>	<i>mightn't</i> /'maɪtənt/
<i>will</i>	<i>will not</i>	* <i>won't</i> /wəʊnt/ or 'll not
<i>shall</i>	<i>shall not</i>	* <i>shan't</i> /ʃɑnt/ or 'll not
<i>would</i>	<i>would not</i>	* <i>wouldn't</i> /'wʊdənt/ or 'd not
<i>should</i>	<i>should not</i>	<i>shouldn't</i> /'ʃʊdənt/
<i>must</i>	<i>must not</i>	<i>mustn't</i> /'mʌsənt/

*is the more common of the two forms.

Modal verbs and adverbs

We usually put adverbs in mid position between the modal verb and the main verb:

*Loud noises may **sometimes** frighten dogs and other animals.*

*You'll **probably** notice something different about the house.*

When the main verb is understood, we can put the adverb between the subject and the modal verb:

A: *I can **never** remember Flo's number.*

B: *I **never** can either.* (I can never remember Flo's number either.)

Dare, need, ought to and used to (semi-modal verbs) 208b

Dare, need, ought to and *used to* are often called semi-modal because in some ways they are formed like modal verbs and in some ways they are like other main verbs.

Like modal verbs, *ought to* and *used to* do not change form for person. *Needn't* and *daren't* do not have a third person -s in the present:

*It **used to** be so easy. It **ought to** be easy now.*

*She **needn't** worry.*

*John **daren't** tell Ruth about the accident.*

Like main verbs, the negative form of *need*, *dare* and *used to* is made by using *do*. But it can also be made without using *do* (like modal verbs).

↔ Compare

<i>You don't need to dress smartly.</i>	<i>You needn't dress smartly.</i>
<i>We don't dare (to) tell him.</i>	<i>We daren't tell him.</i>

The negative form of *ought to* is not made with *do*:

*We **oughtn't to** spend so much money.*

Not: *We ~~don't~~ ought to spend so much money.*

Like main verbs, the question form for *need*, *dare* and *used to* is made by using *do*:

***Does she need** to get a camera before she goes away?*

***Did you use** to play football when you were a child?*

Question and negative forms of *ought to* are rare.

→ *Dare* ; *Need* 218; *Ought to* 253; *Used to* 357

Modality: meanings and uses 209

Modal meaning 209a

We often use modal verbs or other modal expressions when we want to express an opinion or attitude about a possible fact or to control a possible action. All modal expressions are about the speaker's or writer's view of the world.

⇔ Compare

<i>He's her brother. She told me.</i>	I know this fact for certain. I am not expressing an opinion about it. I am stating it as a fact.
<i>He must be her brother. They look so much alike.</i>	I am expressing an opinion about a fact because of the evidence that I have.
<i>Jan always goes with us.</i>	I'm not expressing an attitude or opinion about this action.
<i>OK. Jan can go if she's finished.</i>	I'm controlling a possible action. I'm giving Jan permission.

We can divide most modal words and expressions into two types of meaning:

- The speaker or writer decides how certain something is, either in the present, future or past. They predict or speculate about a fact. We see this type of meaning when we talk about degrees of certainty, possibility, likelihood, doubt:

*Paula **can't** be home yet. It's **impossible**. She left 10 minutes after us.*

[The speaker hears the phone ring and predicts who is ringing.]

There's the phone. That'll be Mum.

*I **may** go. I haven't decided yet.*

- The speaker or writer wants to control or 'direct' the action. They give and refuse permission. They talk about obligation and necessity. They talk about how they would like the world to be:

[parent says to child]

*You **can** come if you're good.*

*He **should** take more care.*

*Tell Jen she **needn't** bother about the washing up.*

*You **mustn't** worry so much about her.*

*You **may** go now. (formal)*

Modal verbs

209b

Often the same modal verb is used to express different meanings.

meaning	which verb?	example
really certain	<i>will</i>	<i>My birthday will be on a Monday this year.</i>
	<i>won't</i>	<i>I won't have a party.</i>
	<i>shall</i>	<i>I shall have plenty to tell you when I see you.</i>
	<i>shan't</i>	<i>I shan't ask you to come again.</i>
	<i>must</i>	<i>The cakes must be ready soon. They've been in the oven for an hour.</i>
	<i>can't</i>	<i>You can't be hungry. You had a huge lunch.</i>

very likely	should	<i>The traffic isn't heavy. We should be there in an hour.</i>
	ought to	<i>The traffic isn't heavy. We ought to be there in an hour.</i>
possible	may	<i>She may be a friend of Richard's.</i>
	might	<i>She might be a friend of Richard's.</i>
	could	<i>She could be a friend of Richard's.</i>
strong obligation	must	<i>You must arrive at 6 to pick up the tickets.</i>
	have to	<i>I have to go up to the hospital twice a week.</i>
	need to	<i>We need to win this game to get into the final.</i>
weak obligation	should	<i>Children should look after their parents in old age.</i>
	ought to	<i>Children ought to look after their parents in old age.</i>
no obligation	needn't	<i>I needn't do it now. I'll do it later.</i>
	don't need to	<i>I don't need to do it now. I'll do it later.</i>
	don't have to	<i>I don't have to do it now. I'll do it later.</i>
permission	can	<i>Can we go out now? You can go now if you've finished.</i>
	may	<i>You may go now if you've finished. May I borrow a chair?</i>
	could	<i>Could we borrow the car?</i>
	might	<i>Might we have a little more time to finish the exam? (very formal)</i>
no permission	can't	<i>You can't go in without a ticket.</i>
	may not	<i>You may not enter while the exam is in progress. (formal)</i>
	must not	<i>You must not leave your bike in front of the fire exit.</i>
offer	will	<i>I'll get it. You stay there.</i>
	shall	<i>Shall I go and make dinner?</i>
request	will	<i>Will you close that door?</i>
	would	<i>Would you close that door?</i>
	could	<i>Could you help me with this?</i>

promise	will	<i>I'll come back before 6.</i>
decision	will	<i>I think I'll eat later. I'm not hungry now.</i>
advice and suggestion	should	<i>You should apply for that job.</i>
ability	can	<i>Can you swim underwater?</i>
	could	<i>I could play much better ten years ago.</i>
general truth	can	<i>Too much exercise can be bad for you.</i>
	may	<i>A list of verbs may be found at the back of the book.</i>

→ Be able to 54b; Be going to: form 135a; Can 65; Could 95; Dare 9; Have got to and have to 156; May 202; Might 206; Must 216; Need 218; Ought to 253; Shall 320; Should 321; Would 393; Will 384

Modality: tense

210

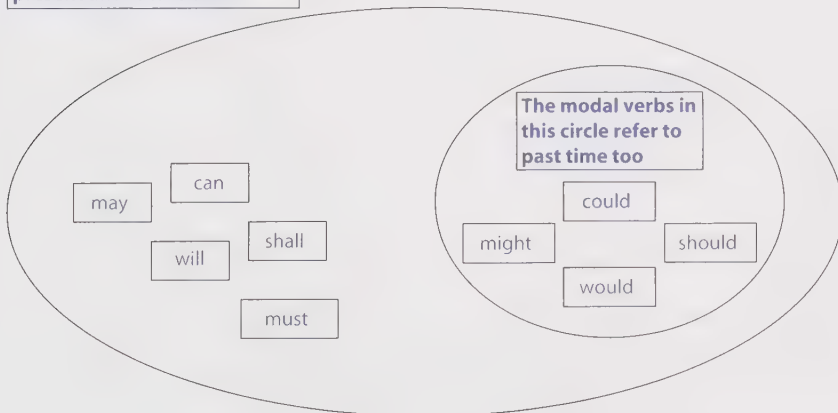
Modal verbs in past, present and future time

210a

Modal verbs do not change in form to make different tenses.

All of the modal verbs can refer to present and future time. Only some of them can refer to past time.

All these modal verbs refer to present and future time



[ready-made pastry is pastry you can buy which is ready to use]

When I was in school, you **could** get a type of ready-made pastry. I think you **can** still get it now. (*could* refers to past time; *can* refers to present time)

*Students on a computer course at the polytechnic **will** get their own laptops next year. (will refers to future time)*

Past and present relations

The modal verbs that only refer to past time are sometimes seen as past forms of the other core modal verbs.

Politeness

We often use the past forms to be more polite or formal, or less direct.

↔ Compare

<i>Can you just have a quick look at the pasta?</i>	<i>Could you just have a quick look at the pasta?</i>	<i>Could is a little less direct.</i>
<i>Will you find me another pen?</i>	<i>Would you find me another pen?</i>	<i>Would is more polite.</i>
<i>You may want to change the formatting.</i>	<i>You might want to change the formatting.</i>	<i>Might is a little more formal and distant.</i>

→ **Can 65; Could 95; Would 393; Will 384**

Reported clauses

We use *would*, *could*, *should* and *might* as the reported forms of *will*, *can*, *shall* and *may* in reported clauses.

↔ Compare

what was said	reported
<i>I'll answer the phone.</i>	<i>She said she would answer the phone.</i>
<i>If we've lost the customer's order, we can't blame that on anybody else, can we?</i>	<i>He said that if they'd lost the customer's order they couldn't blame that on anybody else, could they?</i>
<i>How much food shall I take?</i>	<i>She wondered how much food she should take.</i>
<i>The animals may be there but it may not be easy to see them because they are too small.</i>	<i>They said that the animals might be there but it might not be easy to see them because they were too small.</i>

→ **Reported speech: indirect speech 314**

Past and continuous

We can indicate the past by using a modal verb + *have* + *-ed* form of the verb which follows:

We **should have listened** more carefully.

The fire **could have been** worse. It **could have spread** upstairs.

I suppose we **could have gone** to the hotel. I **would have preferred** the holiday camp.

We can indicate the continuous by using a modal verb + *be* + *-ing* form of the verb which follows.

continuous	<i>They may be coming sooner than we expected.</i> <i>He could be staying with friends in London.</i>
past and continuous	<i>She might have been waiting for us.</i> <i>I must have been chatting to him for 20 minutes.</i>

→ Can 65; Could 95; May 202; Might 206; Shall 320; Should 321; Will 384; Would 393

Modality: other verbs

211

Apart from the core modal verbs, some other common verbs express modal meaning.

Verbs expressing possibility

211a

These verbs express possibility and likelihood:

<i>appear</i>	<i>feel</i>	<i>know</i>	<i>reckon</i>	<i>suppose</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>gather</i>	<i>look</i>	<i>seem</i>	<i>tend</i>
<i>expect</i>	<i>guess</i>	<i>promise</i>	<i>sound</i>	<i>think</i>

*I **expect** to be back home by 6.*

*I **think** the meeting is about to start.*

*I **suppose** we'd better go.*

*I **promise** you that I will continue to listen and, where I can, I will do my best.*

Appear, feel, look, seem and sound with it

We often use *it* with *appear*, *feel*, *look*, *seem* and *sound* when the following clause is the subject of the verb. *It* anticipates the subject:

***It appears** that they won't be able to sell the house.*

***It seems** like I was dreaming.*

***It feels** more comfortable in here than in the kitchen.*

Verbs expressing obligation

211b

These verbs express obligation, permission and necessity:

<i>allow</i>	<i>force</i>	<i>make</i>	<i>permit</i>	<i>require</i>
<i>demand</i>	<i>involve</i>	<i>mean</i>	<i>prohibit</i>	<i>want</i>
<i>forbid</i>	<i>let</i>	<i>oblige</i>		

*There aren't any flights that **allow** smoking.*

*Millie **made** us walk back.*

*Do you **want** him to come and work here?*

→ **Allow** ❶; **Can** 65; **Let**: permission 193a; **Make** 201; **Mean** 204; **Must** 216; **Ought to** 253; **Permit or permission?** ❶; **Should** 321; **Want** 371

Modality: other modal words and expressions 212

Other modal words

212a

Apart from modal verbs, there are a lot of words which also express modality. They are words which express degrees of certainty or obligation.

Expressing degrees of certainty

Adjectives: *possible, probable, certain, sure, likely, unlikely, definite, clear, obvious*

Adverbs: *possibly, probably, certainly, surely, definitely, clearly, obviously*

Expressing degrees of obligation

Adjectives: *necessary, compulsory, obligatory, essential*

Adverbs: *necessarily, perhaps, maybe*

[on the phone]

*Is it **possible** to ring us back when my husband is home? (or Can/could you (possibly) ring us back when my husband is home?)*

*I'm thinking of **possibly** buying a house now. (I might buy a house.)*

[talking about a computer]

A: *It's a good machine.*

B: *Yeah. It **certainly** is. (I agree completely.)*

Necessarily is often used with *not*.

*Erm I met Gary in Wales when I was at university there and we ideally wanted to stay in Wales. **Not necessarily** in South Wales. (not obligatory – it can be South Wales or in another part of Wales)*

Other modal expressions

212b

These expressions are also very common in informal speaking: *for certain, for sure, for definite*:

*It's nice to get something for free, that's **for sure**.*

A: *When's the wedding going to be? April?*

B: *April the seventeenth **for definite**.*

We often use *for certain* *for sure*/*for definite* with *know*:

*We think Graham is coming. We don't know **for certain**. (or for sure/for definite)*

Certainly and surely

! *Certainly* and *surely* do not have the same meaning. We use *certainly* when we have no doubt about something. We use *surely* when we want agreement:

*The car is **certainly** more comfortable than the bike.* (I have no doubt about it.)

*The car is **surely** more comfortable than the bike.* (I'm not certain but this seems likely.)

A: *When I go to town now in Cardiff, I don't know anybody.*

B: *But, Richard, **surely** you've still got lots of friends here.* (The speaker is asking for agreement with something that seems likely.)

Modality: expressions with *be*

212c

Some expressions with *be* have modal meanings:

<i>be to</i>	<i>be certain to</i>	<i>be meant to</i>
<i>be able to</i>	<i>be due to</i>	<i>be obliged to</i>
<i>be about to</i>	<i>be forced to</i>	<i>be set to</i>
<i>be allowed to</i>	<i>be going to</i>	<i>be supposed to</i>
<i>be bound to</i>	<i>be likely to/that</i>	<i>be sure to</i>

→ *Be expressions 54; Be to 143d*

Modality: typical errors

213

- We use the infinitive without *to* after modal verbs:

*You really **must** go to bed now.*

Not: ~~You really must to go to bed now.~~

*I **can** ski very well now.*

Not: ~~I can to ski very well now.~~

- Modal verbs have no *to*-infinitive form, *-ing* form, *-ed* past form or *-ed* form. Because they have only one form, we have to reword what we want to say by using other expressions:

*We'd like to **be able to** help you in some way.*

Not: ~~We'd like to can help you in some way.~~

*She **had to** pay a fine for driving over the speed limit.*

Not: ~~She musted pay a fine for driving over the speed limit.~~

- We use *not* or *n't* after the modal verb to make the negative form. We do not use *don't/doesn't/didn't*:

*You **can't** park here.*

Not: ~~You don't can park here.~~

→ *Modal verbs 208a*

- We normally put adverbs after modal verbs:

*You **should always** keep your PIN in a safe place.*

Not: ~~You always should keep your PIN in a safe place.~~ (PIN = Personal Identification Number)

*We **must only** stay until 9 pm.*

Not: ~~You only must stay until 9 pm.~~

→ Adverbs 16

Much, many, a lot of, lots of: quantifiers

214

We use the quantifiers *much*, *many*, *a lot of*, *lots of* to talk about quantities, amounts and degree. We can use them with a noun (as a determiner) or without a noun (as a pronoun).

Much, many with a noun

214a

We use *much* with singular uncountable nouns and *many* with plural nouns:

[talking about money]

*I haven't got **much** change. I've only got a ten euro note.*

*Are there **many** campsites near you?*

Questions and negatives

We usually use *much* and *many* with questions (?) and negatives (-):

*Is there **much** unemployment in that area?*

*How **many** eggs are in this cake?*

*Do you think **many** people will come?*

*It was pouring with rain but there wasn't **much** wind.*

*There aren't **many** women priests.*

Affirmatives

In affirmative clauses we sometimes use *much* and *many* in more formal styles:

*There is **much** concern about drug addiction in the US.*

*He had heard **many** stories about Yanto and he knew he was trouble.*

In informal styles, we prefer to use *lots of* or *a lot of*:

*I went shopping and spent **a lot of** money.*

Not: ~~I went shopping and spent much money.~~

→ Lots, a lot, plenty 200

Much of, many of

When we use *much* or *many* before articles (*a/an, the*), demonstratives (*this, that*), possessives (*my, your*) or pronouns (*him, them*), we need to use *of*:

*How **much of** this book is fact and how much is fiction?*

*Claude, the seventeenth-century French painter, spent **much of** his life in Italy.*

Unfortunately, not **many of** the photographers were there.

How **many of** them can dance, sing and act?

This much, that much

When we are talking to someone face-to-face, we can use *this much* and *that much* with a hand gesture to indicate quantity:

[the speaker indicates a small amount with his fingers]

I only had **that much** cake.



A lot of, lots of with a noun

214b

We use *a lot of* and *lots of* in informal styles. *Lots of* is more informal than *a lot of*. *A lot of* and *lots of* can both be used with plural countable nouns and with singular uncountable nouns for affirmatives, negatives, and questions:

We've got **lots of** things to do.

That's **a lot of** money.

There weren't **a lot of** choices.

Can you hurry up? I don't have **a lot of** time.

Are there **a lot of** good players at your tennis club?

Have you eaten **lots of** chocolate?

→ *Lots, a lot, plenty* 200

Much, many, a lot of, lots of: negative questions

214c

When we use *much* and *many* in negative questions, we are usually expecting that a large quantity of something isn't there. When we use *a lot of* and *lots of* in negative questions, we are usually expecting a large quantity of something.

↔ Compare

Haven't they sold **many** tickets?

(No, they haven't.)

The speaker expects that they have sold a small quantity of tickets.

Haven't they sold **a lot of** tickets?
(or **lots of**)

(Yes, they have.)

The speaker expects that they have sold a large quantity of tickets.

Isn't there much food left?	(No, there isn't.) The speaker expects that there is a small quantity of food left.
Isn't there a lot of food left? (or lots of)	(Yes, there is.) The speaker expects that there is a large quantity of food left.

Much, many, a lot, lots: without a noun

214d

We usually leave out the noun after *much*, *many* and *a lot*, *lots* when the noun is obvious:

A: Would you like some cheese?

B: Yes please but not **too much**. (not too much cheese)

A: Can you pass me some envelopes?

B: How **many**? (how many envelopes?)

A: How many people came?

B: **A lot**. (or **Lots**.)

Much with comparative adjectives and adverbs: much older, much faster

214e

We can use *much* before comparative adjectives and adverbs to make a stronger comparison:

Sometimes the prices in the local shop are **much** better than the supermarket's prices.

I feel **much** calmer now I know she's safe. (much calmer than I felt before)

She's walking **much** more slowly since her operation. (much more slowly than before)

Too much, too many and so much, so many

214f

Too much, too many with a noun

We often use *too* before *much* and *many*. It means 'more than necessary'. We can use *too much* before an uncountable noun and *too many* before a plural noun, or without a noun when the noun is obvious:

I bought **too much** food. We had to throw some of it away.

They had a lot of work to do. **Too much**. (too much work)

There are **too many** cars on the road. More people should use public transport.

There are 35 children in each class. It's **too many**. (too many children)

So much, so many with a noun

We use *so* rather than *very* before *much* and *many* in affirmative clauses to emphasise a very large quantity of something:

He has **so much** money!

Not: He has very much money!

There were **so many** jobs to do.

As much as, as many as

214g

When we want to make comparisons connected with quantity, we use *as much as* and *as many as*:

Try and find out **as much** information **as** you can.

You can ask **as many** questions **as** you want.

→ *As ... as* 40; *As much as, as many as* 40c

Much, many and a lot of, lots of: typical errors

214h

- We use *much* with uncountable nouns and *many* with countable nouns:

*It doesn't need **much** effort.*

Not: *It doesn't need many effort.*

- We usually use *a lot of* and *lots of* rather than *much* and *many* in informal affirmative clauses:

*There are **a lot of** monuments and **a lot of** historic buildings in Rome.*

Not: *There are many monuments and many historic buildings in Rome.*

*She gave me **a lot of** information.*

Not: *She gave me much information.*

- We don't use *of* after *much* or *many* when they come immediately before a noun without an article (*a/an, the*), demonstrative (*this, that*), possessive (*my, your*) or pronoun (*him, them*):

*They haven't made **many** friends here.*

Not: *They haven't made many of friends here.*

- We don't use *a lot of* without a noun:

A: *Do many people work in your building?*

B: *Yes. Quite **a lot**.* (quite a lot of people)

Not: *Quite a lot of.*

Much, a lot, lots, a good deal: adverbs

215

We use *much*, *a lot*, *lots* and *a good deal* as adverbs to refer to frequency, quantity and degree.

Much

215a

We use *much* in questions and negative clauses to talk about degrees of something. We put it in end position:

*I don't like the sea **much**.*

! We don't use *much* in affirmative clauses:

*I hadn't seen my mother for a month. I'd missed her **a lot**.*

Not: ... I'd missed her ~~much~~.

In informal styles, we often use *much* in questions and negative clauses to mean 'very often':

*Do you see Peter **much**?*

*I haven't played tennis **much** this year.*

In formal styles, we use *much* as an intensifier meaning 'really' with verbs that express likes and dislikes:

*He **much** enjoyed his week in the 5-star hotel.*

*Thank you for your help. It was **much** appreciated.*

Very much

We often use *very much* as an intensifier in affirmative and negative clauses and questions:

[in a formal letter]

*Please find attached my report. I **very much** welcome your comments.*

*Is she **very much** like her father?*

! With the verb *like* we don't put **very much** between the verb and its object:

*I like comedy films **very much**.*

Not: I like ~~very much~~ comedy films.

Too much, so much

We often use *too much* to mean an excessive amount, 'more than enough':

*He talks **too much**.*

*You worry **too much**.*

We can also use *so much* to mean 'to a large degree' or 'a large amount' or 'a lot':

*She's changed **so much**. I hardly recognised her.*

*I've eaten **so much**.*

→ Too 352; So 323

A lot, a good deal and a great deal

215b

We can use *a lot*, *a good deal* and *a great deal* as adverbs of frequency, quantity or degree:

A: *Have you ever been to Brosh?*

B: *Actually we go there **a lot**.*

*I'm really hungry now. I didn't have **a lot** for breakfast.*

A good deal and a great deal are more formal than a lot.

↔ Compare

A: How's your mum?	A: How's your mum?
B: She's feeling a good deal better, thanks.	B: She's feeling a lot better, thanks.
She always worries a great deal .	She always worries a lot .

Must

216

Must: forms

216a

Affirmative (+) form

Must comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

She **must** have lots of friends.

Must can't be used with another modal verb.

This **must** be your sister.

Not: This ~~must~~ can be your sister. or This can ~~must~~ be your sister.

Negative (-) form

The negative form of *must* is *mustn't*. We don't use *don't/doesn't/didn't* with *must*:

There **mustn't** be any rubbish left.

Not: There ~~doesn't~~ ~~must~~ be any rubbish left.

We can use the full form *must not* in formal contexts or when we want to emphasise something:

You **must not** leave any rubbish.

→ Modal verbs 208a

Question (?) form

! The subject and *must* change position to form questions. We don't use *do/does/did*:

Must you make that noise?

Not: Do you ~~must~~ make that noise?

We can use *must* and *mustn't* in question tags though tags with *must* aren't very common:

The house *must* be worth millions, **mustn't** it?

Must: uses

216b

Deductions and conclusions

When we think carefully about facts, we often use *must* to express deductions and conclusions from these:

[fact] [deduction/conclusion]

He's so small. He **must be no more than** four years old.

[Two teachers talking about a student]

A: *He falls asleep in class every morning.* (fact)

B: *He **must** be out late every night or maybe he works at night.* (deduction/conclusion)

! We use *can't/cannot* as the negative of *must* to deny something or make negative deductions or conclusions:

*It just **can't** be true. He **can't** have left his job.*

*That **cannot** be his sister. She looks so different.*

→ Can 65

! We use *must have + ed* form and *can't have + ed* form to talk about deductions in the past. They always refer to deduction, not obligation:

[A wanted to talk to B so she phoned him but he didn't answer the phone. She phoned again the next day]

A: *I called you yesterday around three o'clock but you **must have been** out.*

B: *We **must have been** in the garden. That's a pity.*

[A is telling B about his illness]

A: *I spent a month in hospital before I was able to walk.*

B: *That **can't have been** easy for you.*

! In speaking, we very often express our reaction to what we hear using phrases such as *that must be* or *that must have been*:

A: *She lives in Thailand now.*

B: ***That must be** amazing!*

A: *Twelve years ago Kevin and I went on a six-week camping trip.*

B: ***That must have been** fun.*

Obligation and necessity

Must expresses strong obligation and necessity:

*I **must** talk to you about the new project.*

*Seat belts **must** be worn even in the back of the car.*

*There **must** be a minimum of two members of the company at the meeting.*

! We use *had to* not *must* to express obligation and necessity in the past:

*By the time we got back to our bikes, it was dark and we **had to** cycle home in the dark without any lights ...*

Not: ... it was dark and we ~~must~~ cycle home in the dark ...

*Last year, teachers **had to** make a report on each child every week.*

Not: Last year, teachers ~~must~~ make a report ...

We use *must* to talk about the future in the past when we report speech or people's thoughts in formal contexts:

[Extract from a novel]

*The pain was back in full force, but she knew she **must** not give in to it. She **must** go on day by day.*

We use *will have to* more than *must* to express future obligation, especially when talking about obligations at a particular point in the future:

*He'll **have to** wait five weeks for his eye operation. Then he'll **have to** have both eyes operated on.*

We often use *must* with more general references to the future, particularly when talking about obligations that come from the speaker:

*The Prime Minister **must** decide in the next month.*

*I **must** try harder next time.*

*I **must** pop round one evening next week.*

When we talk about no obligation, we use either *need not*, *don't/doesn't/didn't have to* or the negative of the main verb *need* (*don't/doesn't need*):

*You **needn't** worry about it. I'll take care of it.*

*You **don't have to** worry about it. I'll take care of it.*

*You **don't need to** worry about it. I'll take care of it.*

Rules and laws

We use *must not* to talk about what is not permitted:

*You **must not** park outside the entrance.*

*You **must not** make noise after 9 o'clock.*

Must and *must not* often occur in public signs and notices indicating laws, rules and prohibitions:

[airline website information]

*All passengers **must** present valid photo identification at check-in for all flights.*

[bus company website notice]

*Tickets **must** be retained for inspection, and **must** be produced for inspection on request by any authorised official of Bus Éireann. (Bus Éireann is the name of the Irish national bus company)*

→ Commands and instructions 76

Invitations and encouragement

We also use *must* to express polite invitations or encouragement:

*You **must** come and see us soon.*

*You **must** try some of this chocolate cake. It's delicious.*

*You **must** go and see that film.*

→ Invitations 182

Criticisms

We use the question form of *must* in criticisms:

Must you keep playing that terrible music?

Why must you mispronounce my name every time?

Must and have (got) to?

216c

Obligations

We usually use *must* to talk about obligations which come from the speaker and we generally use *have (got) to* when we refer to obligations that come from outside the speaker.

⇔ Compare

<i>I must buy some new clothes. Mine look so old.</i>	The obligation is from me to buy new clothes.
<i>I've got to buy some new clothes. I'm starting a new job as a teacher and we have to wear formal clothes.</i>	The obligation is from the school to buy new clothes.



Must not and *don't have to/haven't got to* have different meanings.

⇔ Compare

<i>You must not give my credit card details to anyone.</i>	We use <i>mustn't</i> to talk about something which is forbidden.
<i>You mustn't tell this to anyone. It's a secret.</i>	
<i>You don't have to tell anyone. I will email everyone.</i>	We use <i>don't have to/haven't got to</i> when something is not necessary. It is not forbidden.
<i>We haven't got to wear a uniform to work.</i>	

Don't have to can sometimes be used to criticise someone or to tell them not to do something. This is less direct than *must not*:

*You **don't have to** drink all of the juice! (stop drinking the juice!)*

Deductions

We can also use *have got to* when we make deductions or draw conclusions. *Must* is more common than *have (got) to* in this meaning:

*That **must** be a fake!*

*That picture has **got to** be a fake!*

→ *Have got to* and *have to* 156

Must: typical errors 216d

- We don't use *must* to express obligation and necessity in the past. We use *had to* instead:

*When she got home, she **had to** cook dinner before everyone arrived.*

Not: *When she got home, she ~~must~~ cook dinner before ...*

- We don't use *must* to make predictions about the future. We use *will* instead:

*Don't worry about our accommodation because I found a nice hotel which **will** be suitable for us.*

Not: *Don't worry about our accommodation because I found a nice hotel which ~~must~~ be suitable for us.*

→ Will 384

Near and near to 217

Near and *near to* are prepositions. *Near* is also an adjective.

Near and near to as prepositions 217a

The preposition *near (to)* means 'not far away in distance'. *Near* and *near to* mean the same, but *near* is more common:

*She comes from a small place on the coast **near** Barcelona.*

*My mother loves to sit **near** the fire at night.*

*She reached out her hand and drew him **near to** her.*

We can use *near (to)* to talk about time:

*My boss is **near** retirement. (He will retire soon.)*

*Call me back **near** the end of September.*

We can use *near (to)* to talk about being almost in a particular state or condition:

*It was full of soldiers and of military police, and I was **near** despair.*

Near as an adjective 217b

In formal contexts, we can use *near* as an adjective to refer to time with the phrase *in the near future* meaning 'soon'. It is usually in end position:

*Bank interest rates are expected to rise **in the near future**.*

! We don't use *near* as an adjective modifying a noun when it refers to distance:

*We went to a **nearby** restaurant in the evening.*

Not: ... a ~~near~~ restaurant ...

→ Nearby 0; Prepositions 275

Need 218

Need is a semi-modal verb because in some ways it is like a modal verb and in other ways like a main verb.

We use *need* mostly in the negative form to indicate that there is no obligation or necessity to do something:

*You **needn't** take off your shoes.*

Need: form

218a

Affirmative form

Affirmatives with the semi-modal *need* are not common and they are used in formal contexts. There is almost always a negative word (e.g. *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing*) or phrase in the clause, even if the verb phrase is affirmative:

*No one **need** think that we are doing this every week.* (we are not doing this every week)

*Nobody **need** know the name of the person who made the complaint.*

*Not a thing **need** change on this page.*

Need comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

*Let's forget about it. No one **need** know about it.*

We can't use another modal verb with *need*:

*No one **need** read this.*

Not: ~~No one need must read this.~~ or ~~No one must need read this.~~

Negative form

! We form the negative by adding *not* after *need*. *Need not* can be contracted to *needn't*. We don't use *don't/doesn't/didn't* with the semi-modal verb *need*:

*You **need not** spend a lot of money on presents.* (formal) (or *You **needn't** spend a lot of money on presents.*)

Not: ~~You don't need spend a lot of money on presents.~~

→ Modal verbs 208a; Semi-modal *need* and main verb *need* 218c

Question form

The question form of the semi-modal *need* is not very common. It is rather formal. The subject and *need* change position to form questions. We don't use *do/does/did*.

***Need** we write this down?*

Not: ~~Do we need write this down?~~

Need: use

218b

No obligation (*needn't*)

The semi-modal *need* is most common in the negative. We use it to show that there is no obligation:

*We **needn't** spend much time on this topic. It's not going to be in the exam.*

*Cans of soup **needn't** be kept in the fridge.*

No obligation in the past

The semi-modal *need* has no past simple form. Instead, we use *didn't need to* or *didn't have to* when we express no obligation in the past:

*I **didn't need to** buy any books. They were all in the library.* (main verb *need* + *to*)
(or *I **didn't have to** buy any books. They were all in the library.*)

Not: *I didn't need buy any books. They were all in the library.*

→ Semi-modal *need* and main verb *need* 218c

Unnecessary events

We use *needn't have* + *-ed* form to refer to events which happened but which the speaker considers were unnecessary:

*You **needn't have waited** for me.* (You waited for me but it wasn't necessary.)

*You **needn't have bought** so much food. There are only three of us staying for the weekend.* (You bought a lot of food but it wasn't necessary.)

Semi-modal *need* and main verb *need*

218c

We can use main verb *need* as an alternative to semi-modal *need*. Main verb *need* is followed by *to* and it changes with person, number and tense (*I, you, we, they need to*; *she, he, it needs to*; *I, you, she, he, it, we, they needed to*).

↔ Compare

Semi-modal <i>need</i>	Main verb <i>need</i>	Comment
<i>Need it be so dark in here?</i> (formal)	<i>Does it need to be so dark in here?</i>	In these examples, the meaning is the same for semi-modal <i>need</i> and main verb <i>need</i> + <i>to</i> .
<i>You needn't mention this to your father.</i>	<i>You don't need to mention this to your father.</i>	

! We must use the main verb *need* when it is followed by a noun phrase or *-ing* clause:

[noun phrase]

*You **don't need** an umbrella.*

Not: *You ~~needn't~~ an umbrella.*

[-ing clause]

*My hair **doesn't need** cutting for at least another month.*

Not: *My hair ~~needn't~~ cutting for at least another month.*

Typical error

- The main verb *need* is followed by *to* when used with another verb.

*I **need to** have my hair cut.*

Not: *I ~~need~~ have my hair cut.*

Negation

219

When we want to say that something is not true or is not the case, we can use negative words, phrases or clauses. Negation can happen in a number of ways, most commonly, when we use a negative word such as *no*, *not*, *never*, *none*, *nobody*, etc:

A: *Is there a bus at ten o'clock?*

B: **No**. *The last one goes at nine forty-five.* (No = There isn't a bus at ten o'clock.)

Kieran doesn't play the piano. (It is not true that Kieran plays the piano.)

The most common negative words are *no* and *not*. Other negative words include: *neither*, *never*, *no one*, *nobody*, *none*, *nor*, *nothing*, *nowhere*:

*She's **never** been abroad.*

*There were **no** newspapers left in the shop by one o'clock.*

***Nobody** came to the house for several days.*

***None** of my cousins live near us.*

*Most children **don't** walk to school any more.*

→ *Neither, neither ... nor and not ... either* 220; *So am I, so do I, Neither do I* 323d; *Never or not ... ever* 3; *No one, nobody, nothing, nowhere* 223; *No, none and none of* 222; *Not any and no* 34d

We can also make negative meanings using prefixes (e.g. *de-*, *dis-*, *un-*) and suffixes (*-less*):

*He was very **disrespectful** to the teacher.*

*This new printer is **useless**; it's always breaking down.*

We can also use the following words to make negative or negative-like statements: *few*, *hardly*, *little*, *rarely*, *scarcely*, *seldom*.

*There are **rarely** ducks in this pond.*

*We **seldom** hear any noise at night.*

→ *Little, a little, few, a few* 196; *Hardly* 152; *Hardly ever, rarely, scarcely, seldom* 153; *Scarcely* 3

Negation is more common in spoken than in written language because negative forms can be used in face-to-face interactions to make what we say less direct:

*I'm **not sure** if this is the right desk. I'm looking for information on the train times to Liverpool.* (less direct than *Is this the right desk?*)

→ *Hedges* 162; *Politeness* 271

Forming negative statements, questions and imperatives

219a

Negative statements

We form negative statements with *not* or *n't* after *be*, modal and auxiliary verbs. *n't* is the contracted form of *not*. In informal language we can add *n't*, without a space, to *be*, to modal verbs (except *may*) and to auxiliary verbs (*do* and *have*). The negative contracted form of *will* is *won't*. The uncontracted form of *can* + *not* is *cannot*.

Jan **isn't** coming. She's not feeling very well.
 She **might not** be joking. It could be true.
 They **don't** go to school on Wednesday afternoons.
 Living in a small flat **does not** make it easy to have pets.
 I **hadn't** decided whether to take the train or go in the car.
 They **can't** be hungry again. They've only just eaten.

Negative questions

We use *not* or *n't* to form negative questions. When there is no modal verb or *be*, we use auxiliary verb *do* + *n't* (*don't*, *do not*, *doesn't*, *does not*, *didn't*):

Why **didn't** you ask Linda?
 What **don't** you understand?
Won't we be able to see the film?
Isn't that Mike's brother?

Negative imperatives

We use *do* + *not* or *don't* + the base form of a verb to form negative orders or commands:

Do not open until instructed.
Don't take the car. Go on your bike.

→ Declarative clauses 71a; *Not* and *n't* in questions O; *Don't*, *Do not*: orders and instructions O;
Let's, *let*: suggestions, offers, imperatives 193b

Negation: two negatives

219b

Standard English does not have two negatives in the same clause (double negatives). Words such as *never*, *nobody*, *no one*, *none*, *nothing*, *nowhere*, etc. already have a negative meaning, so we don't need another negative with the verb:

There was **no one** in the office so I left a message.
 Not: There wasn't ~~no one~~ ...

Nobody likes to think they are worthless.
 Not: Nobody doesn't like to think ...

If we use *not* with the verb, we use words such as *ever*, *anybody*, *anyone*, *anything*, *anywhere*, instead of *never*, *nobody*, *no one*, *nothing*, *nowhere*:

I **haven't** seen Ken **anywhere** today. In fact I **don't** think **anyone's** seen him for the last couple of days.
 Not: I haven't seen Ken nowhere ... or I don't think no one's seen him ...

You may hear some speakers using two negatives in the same clause, but many people consider this to be incorrect.

Not ... I don't think

There are some cases where we can use reporting verbs such as *imagine*, *suppose* and *think* in end position, after the reported clause. In such cases, both clauses may have a negative verb:

He's **not** a teacher, I **don't** think. (or I **don't think** he's a teacher.)

Not: I ~~don't think~~ he's ~~not~~ a teacher.

I **won't** be very late tonight, I **shouldn't** imagine. (or I **shouldn't imagine** I'll be very late tonight.)

Not: I shouldn't imagine I won't be late.

Sometimes we use *not* in front position where a following reduced clause (a clause with something omitted but which is understood) also has a negative form:

A: Have you seen Leila?

B: **Not** today, I haven't. (I haven't seen Leila/her.)

A: Is Tony working at the university?

B: **Not** now, he **isn't**. He used to.

Negative clauses with **any, anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere** 219c

We don't use *not* with *some, someone, somebody, something, somewhere* in statements. We use *any, anyone, anybody, anything, anywhere*:

There **aren't any** seats left. You'll have to stand.

Not: There aren't some seats left.

Tell them I **don't** want to see **anyone**.

Not: Tell them I don't want to see someone.

After verbs with a negative meaning like *decline* or *refuse*, we use *anything* rather than *something*:

They refused to tell us **anything** about it. (preferred to *They refused to tell us something about it.*)

→ Any 34; Anyone, anybody or anything? ○

Negation in non-finite clauses

219d

Non-finite clauses are clauses without a subject, where the main verb is in the *to*-infinitive form, the *-ing* form or the *-ed* form. To make the negative of a non-finite clause, we can use *not*.

↔ **Compare** (non-finite clauses are underlined)

affirmative non-finite clause	negative non-finite clause
<u>To have given up</u> such a good job would have been foolish.	<u>Not to have invited</u> James to our little party would have been impolite.
<u>Thinking</u> of my own situation, I decided it was time to talk to Dennis.	She left the house very quietly, <u>not wishing</u> to alarm anyone.
<u>Cooked</u> in a slow oven, this dish is delicious with baked potatoes.	<u>Not funded</u> by any government grants, the research team have to raise money from companies and individuals.

In non-finite clauses with a *to*-infinitive verb, we can use *not* after *to*. However, many speakers consider such 'split infinitives' (where something comes between *to* and the verb) to be bad style:

To not realise what was happening was stupid. She should have noticed something was wrong. (or ***Not to realise what was happening ...***)

I was thinking it would be nice to not have to go out and just stay in and watch TV.
(or ... it would be nice ***not to have to go out ...***)

Negative prefixes and suffixes

219e

We use these prefixes most commonly in negation: *de-*, *dis-*, *il-/im-/in-/ir-*, *mis-*, *non-*, *un-*:

*What he said was very **impolite**.*

*There was a **misunderstanding** about who should sign the contract.*

*The refugees also need **non**-food items such as tents and blankets.* (items which are not food)

-less is the most common suffix for negation:

*Too many people are **homeless** in this city.*

*We just have **endless** meetings at work – they're so boring.*

→Prefixes 274; Suffixes 340

Negative adverbs: *hardly*, *seldom*, etc.

219f

Some adverbs (e.g. *hardly*, *little*, *never*, *only*, *scarcely* and *seldom*) have a negative meaning. When we use these at the beginning of the clause, we invert the subject and verb:

***Hardly** had we left the hotel when it started to pour with rain.*

Not: *Hardly we had left the hotel ...*

***Little** did we know that we would never meet again.*

***Only** in spring do we see these lovely little flowers.*

We also invert the subject and verb after *not* + a prepositional phrase or *not* + a clause in front position:

***Not** for a moment did I think I would be offered the job, so I was amazed when I got it.*

***Not** till I got home did I realise my wallet was missing.*

→Inversion 181; Word order and focus 390; *Little*, *a little*, *few*, *a few* 196; *Hardly* 152;

Hardly ever, *rarely*, *scarcely*, *seldom* 153

Negation: emphasising

219g

When we want to emphasise something negative, we often use *at all*. We normally use *at all* immediately after the word or phrase we are emphasising:

*There's **nothing at all** left in the fridge.*

*I'd rather **not** be here **at all**.*

*We had **no** rain **at all** this summer and now we have floods!*

Not at all can come before an adjective:

*She was **not at all** happy with the result.*

→ **All 27**

We can also use *whatsoever* for emphasis after *no* + noun, *nobody*, *no one*, *none* and *nothing*. Its meaning is similar to *at all*, but it is stronger. We can use *whatsoever* to add emphasis to any negative noun phrase:

*No food or drink **whatsoever** must be brought into the classroom.*

A: *Did any of her family go to the wedding?*

B: *No. **None whatsoever.***

We can also use *not a bit*, *a little bit*, *one bit*, *in the least*, *the least bit* to emphasise negatives:

*Setting off the alarm was supposed to be a joke but **no one** found it **one bit** funny.*

*We suggested going to the cinema but they **didn't** seem **the least bit** interested, so we just took them shopping instead.*

→ **A bit** ○

We often add emphasis to negation to make what we say more polite. When someone makes a request using the phrase *Do you mind if* or *Would you mind if*, instead of replying with *No* (I don't mind) we often say *not at all* or *not in the least* when we reply:

A: *Do you mind if I sit here?*

B: ***Not at all.***

A: *Would you mind if I check my emails on your computer?*

B: ***Not in the least.***

When someone says *thanks* or *thank you*, we often reply *not at all*:

A: *Thanks so much for lunch, Rachel.*

B: ***Not at all.** It was my pleasure.*

→ **Politeness 271; Requests 316; Please and thank you** ○

Negation of *think*, *believe*, *suppose*, *hope*

219h

When we use verbs like *think*, *believe*, *suppose* (mental process verbs) to express uncertainty about something, we usually use *not* with the mental process verb rather than with the verb in the following clause:

*I **don't think** I'm going to pass my exams. (preferred to *I think I'm not going to pass my exams.*)*

However, we don't normally use a negative with *hope* and *wish*:

*I **hope** I'm **not** going to fail.*

Not: *I ~~don't hope~~ I'm ~~going to fail~~.*

*I **wish** I **hadn't** sent that email to Joan.*

Not: *I ~~don't wish~~ I ~~had sent~~ ...*

→ **So and not with *expect*, *hope*, *think*, etc. 324; No or not? 224**

Neither, neither ... nor and not ... either**220****Neither as a determiner****220a**

Neither allows us to make a negative statement about two people or things at the same time. *Neither* goes before singular countable nouns. We use it to say 'not either' in relation to two things. *Neither* can be pronounced /'naɪðə(r)/ or /'niːðə(r)/.

Neither parent came to meet the teacher. (The mother didn't come and the father didn't come.)

Neither dress fitted her. (There were two dresses and not one of them fitted her.)

We use *neither of* before pronouns and plural countable nouns which have a determiner (*my, his, the*) before them:

Neither of us went to the concert.

Neither of the birthday cards was suitable.

 In formal styles, we use *neither of* with a singular verb when it is the subject. However, in informal speaking, people often use plural verbs:

Neither of my best friends was around.

Neither of them were interested in going to university.

In speaking, we can use *neither* on its own in replies when we are referring to two things that have already been mentioned:

A: Mike, which would you prefer, tea or coffee?

B: *Neither* thanks. I've just had a coffee.

Neither ... nor**220b**

We can use *neither* as a conjunction with *nor*. It connects two or more negative alternatives. This can sound formal in speaking:

Neither Brian *nor* his wife mentioned anything about moving house. (Brian didn't mention that they were moving house and his wife didn't mention that they were moving house.)

Neither Italy *nor* France got to the quarter finals last year.

The less formal alternative is to use *and ... not ... either*:

Italy didn't get to the quarter finals last year *and* France didn't *either*.

→ *Not ... either* 220e

Not with neither and nor**220c**

When a clause with *neither* or *nor* is used after a negative clause, we invert the subject and the verb after *neither* and *nor*:

He *hadn't* done any homework, *neither* had he brought any of his books to class.

We *didn't* get to see the castle, *nor* did we see the cathedral.

→ *Conjunctions* 88

Neither do I, Nor can she**220d**

We use *neither* and *nor* + auxiliary/modal verb + subject to mean 'also not':

A: *I hate snakes. I can't even look at a picture of a snake.*

B: **Neither** can I.

Not: ~~I can't also.~~

A: *Jacqueline doesn't drive.*

B: **Nor** does Gina.

Not: ~~Gina doesn't also.~~

→ *So am I, so do I, Neither do I* 323d

Not ... either**220e**

We can use *not ... either* to mean 'also not', but we do not change the word order of the auxiliary or modal verb and subject:

A: *I haven't ever tasted caviar.*

B: **I haven't either.** (or *Neither have I./Nor have I.*)

A: *I didn't see Lesley at the concert.*

B: **I didn't either.** (or *Neither did I./Nor did I.*)

In informal speaking, we often say *me neither*:

A: *I can't smell anything.*

B: **Me neither.** (or *I can't either.*)

Neither: typical errors**220f**

- We use *neither*, not *none*, when we are talking about two people or things:

*Books and television are different. **Neither** of them should replace the other.*

Not: ~~None of them ...~~

- We don't normally use *both (of) + not* to make a negative statement about two people or things:

***Neither** of these shirts is/are dry yet.*

Not: ~~Both of these shirts aren't dry yet.~~

- Take care to spell **neither** correctly: not 'niether' or 'neighter'.

Next**221**

Next is an adjective, an adverb or a pronoun.

Next means the first thing or person immediately after the present thing or person:

*The **next** person she met was an old lady who had lived in the village all her life.*
(adjective)

*There was a loud bang, and I can't remember what happened **next**.* (adverb)

*Each week is just like the **next**: work, work, work.* (pronoun)

! *Next* does not mean *nearest*.

Can you tell me where the **nearest** supermarket is please?

Not: Can you tell me where the next supermarket is please?

→ Nearest or next? ○

Next as an adjective

221a

Next or the next?

When we talk about days of the week, weeks, months, years, seasons or public holidays in the future in relation to now, we use *next* without *the* and without a preposition:

*I have an appointment with the dentist **next** Wednesday morning.*

Not: ... the ~~next~~ Wednesday morning.

*Are you working **next** week?*

Not: Are you working on ~~next~~ week?

***Next** year will be our fortieth wedding anniversary.*

*We're going to plant some new flowers **next** spring.*

To refer to the future, we can use *the next few hours*, *the next two days*, *the next six months*, etc.:

*I'll finish the work in **the next few days**. You can pay me then.*

*We'll be home for **the next three weeks**, then we're going away to France for two weeks.*

When we talk about times in the past or future not related to now, we normally use *the*. However, in informal situations, we can omit *the* when we talk about the past:

***The next day** we travelled to the ancient city of Qom.*

*We're going to spend the first night in Oslo, then **the next day** we'll fly to Narvik.*

*Two policemen grabbed me. **Next minute**, I was arrested and thrown into a van.*

The next time

We can use *the next time* to refer to the past or to the future. In informal situations, we can omit *the*:

*We've been to Australia a few times. The first time we went it was work, then **the next time** we went it was a mix of work and holiday.*

***The next time** you're in Ireland, you must come and visit us.*

*I saw him about five years ago and he was unemployed. **Next time** I saw him he was driving a bus. (informal)*

Next as an adverb

221b

[a group of children are waiting to ride a pony]

Adult: Who wants to go **next**?

Child: Me! Me!

*He said he was upset about the drama club, but I can't remember what he said **next**.*

Next as a linking adjunct

221c

We can use *next* as a linking adjunct to refer to something which follows immediately after something before. We often use this when giving instructions:

*To convert your old cassette tapes to CDs, first you will need a cable to connect your cassette player to your computer. **Next**, you will need some sort of software to convert your music to a digital format such as MP3.*

Next as a pronoun

221d

We can use *next* as a pronoun with or without *the*:

*Ollie's coming to stay the week after **next**. (the week after next week)*

*I don't know how I'm going to manage from one day to **the next**.*

Next to

221e

We can use *next to* for people or things that are very near or beside each other:

*Can I sit **next to** you at the restaurant? There's something I want to tell you.*

We can also use *next to* when we are comparing things:

***Next to** English, my best language is Spanish. (English is my best language, then Spanish.)*

Next: typical error

221f

- When we say *next week*, *next summer*, *next August*, etc., we don't use a preposition:

*I'm going away **next** Wednesday.*

Not: I'm going away on next Wednesday.

No, none and none of

222

No and *none of* are determiners. *None* is a pronoun. *No*, *none* and *none of* indicate negation.

No

We use *no* directly before nouns:

*I've got **no** time to waste.*

*There are **no** people I recognise here.*

*She says she has **no** friends.*

None

None is the pronoun form of *no*. *None* means 'not one' or 'not any'. We use it as a pronoun to replace countable and uncountable nouns. We use it as subject or object:

*Slorne stared ... and seemed to try to find some strength which would let her speak. But **none** came. (No strength came.)*

*My mother had two brothers. My father had **none**. (My father didn't have any brothers.)*

A: *What reasons did he give?*

B: **None.**

When *none* is the subject, the verb is either singular or plural depending on what it is referring to.

*I'm always looking for inspiration. **None** ever comes.*

*She's always looking for ideas. **None** ever come.*

! We don't use *none* where we mean *no one* or *nobody*:

*They had a wonderful time and luckily **no one** was injured.*

Not: ... and luckily ~~none~~ was injured.

None of

We use *none* with *of* before *the*, demonstratives (*this*, *that*), possessives (*my*, *your*) or pronouns:

None of his old friends knew what had happened to him.

*It doesn't matter. **None of** it was your fault.*

We don't use *none of* when there is already a negative word (*not*, *n't*) in the clause:

*She doesn't remember **any of** us.*

Not: ~~She doesn't remember none of us.~~

! When we are referring to two things or people, we use *neither of* rather than *none of*:

*We sat down at the table, just the two of us. He carried on eating his food. **Neither of** us said anything.*

Not: ~~None of us said anything.~~

In formal styles, we use *none of* with a singular verb when it is the subject. However, in informal speaking, people often use plural verbs:

None of that surprises me.

*Indeed, **none of** his novels is well shaped or well written.*

None of the products have been tested on animals and all the bottles are recyclable.
(informal)

Typical error

- We don't use *none* directly before nouns. We use *no* + noun or *none of* + noun:

***No** children in my group caused any trouble. (or **None of** the children in my group ...)*

Not: ~~None children in my group ...~~

→ No or not? 224

No one, nobody, nothing, nowhere

223

No one, nobody, nothing and *nowhere* are indefinite pronouns.

We use *no one, nobody, nothing* and *nowhere* to refer to an absence of people, things or places. We use them with a singular verb:

Nobody ever goes to see her. She's very lonely.

You usually have to wait for a long time. **Nothing** happens quickly.

There was **nowhere** to park the car.

We often use the plural pronoun *they* to refer back to (singular) *no one* or *nobody* when we do not know if the person is male or female:

No one remembers the titles of the books they've read.

No one or nobody?

No one and *nobody* mean the same. *Nobody* is a little less formal than *no one*. We use *no one* more than *nobody* in writing:

I knew **nobody** at the party.

No one moved; **no one** said anything.

We write *no one* as two separate words or with a hyphen: *no one* or *no-one* but not ~~noone~~.

Nobody or not ... anybody, etc.

Nobody, *no one*, *nothing*, *nowhere* are stronger and more definite than *not ... anybody/ anyone/anything/anywhere*:

I did **nothing**. (stronger than *I didn't do anything*.)

She told **no one**, not even her mother. (stronger than *She didn't tell anyone ...*)

We don't use *not + anyone/anything/anywhere* as the subject of a clause:

Nothing will make me change my mind.

Not: ~~Not anything will make me change my mind.~~

We don't use *nobody*, *no one*, *nothing*, *nowhere* after *no*, *not*, *never* or other words which have a negative meaning (*hardly*, *seldom*). We use *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything*, *anywhere*:

I can't do **anything**.

Not: I can't do nothing.

She talks to **hardly anyone**.

Not: She talks to hardly no one.

→ *Anyone, anybody or anything?* 20; Double negatives and usage 107

No or not?

224

No and *not* are the two most common words we use to indicate negation. We use *no* before a noun phrase:

There's **no** address on the envelope.

[parent to child]

No biscuits before dinner!

No decisions have been made.

We use **not** with any other phrase or clause:

*It's **not** often that you stop and think about the way you breathe.*

***Not** suitable for children under 15.*

***Not** surprisingly, it was a tense match but eventually the more experienced Australians won.*

A: *Do you go cycling all year round?*

B: ***Not** in the winter.*

Not: ~~No in the winter.~~

No or not any?

There is very little difference in meaning between *There is/are no + noun* and *There isn't/aren't any + noun*:

*There's **no** reason to be afraid of her. (or There **isn't any** reason to be afraid of her.)*

*There are **no** eggs in the fridge. (or There **aren't any** eggs in the fridge.)*

No + noun often makes the negative stronger. In speaking, we often stress *no*.

⇔ Compare

<i>He paid no attention to what I was saying.</i> (stronger)	<i>He didn't pay any attention to what I was saying.</i>
<i>I've decided that I have no alternative.</i> (stronger)	<i>I've decided that I don't have any alternative.</i>

No or Not a/an?

When a noun has an ungradable meaning (it is either something or it is not) we cannot use *no + noun*:

*A potato is **not a** fruit.*

Not: ~~A potato is no fruit.~~

When a noun has a gradable meaning, *no + noun* means the same as *not a/an + noun*:

[a football manager talking about signing a new player]

*It's **no** secret that we are interested. (= It's **not a** secret. A secret is gradable.*

Something can be more of a secret than something else.)

Responding to a question

We often use *no* to respond to a *yes-no* question, or to agree with a negative statement.

We don't use *not* on its own in this way:

A: *Do you need anything from the shops?*

B: ***No.** I went earlier, thanks.*

A: *He's not going to get any better.*

B: ***No.** You're right.*

Not: ~~Not. You're right.~~

No problem, no good, not worth

We use *no* and *not* in some common fixed expressions:

A: When you see Alan, can you give him this letter?

B: Yes sure, **no problem**.

She had **no idea** what time they were arriving.

It's **no good** standing around watching. Do something!

You've got **no chance** of getting a ticket now. They're all sold out.

It's **not worth** taking a taxi. We can walk.

→ Not ○; No, none and none of 222; Negation 219; Worth or worthwhile? ○

Not only ... but also

225

We use *not only* X *but also* Y in formal contexts:

The war caused **not only** destruction and death **but also** generations of hatred between the two communities.

The car **not only** is economical **but also** feels good to drive.

This investigation is **not only** one that is continuing and worldwide **but also** one that we expect to continue for quite some time.

We can sometimes leave out *also*:

I identified with Denzel Washington **not only** as an actor **but** as a person.

To add emphasis, we can use *not only* at the beginning of a clause. When we do this, we invert the subject and the verb:

Not only was it raining all day at the wedding **but also** the band was late.

Not only will they paint the outside of the house **but also** the inside.

When there is no auxiliary verb or main verb *be*, we use *do*, *does*, *did*:

Not only did she forget my birthday, **but** she **also** didn't even apologise for forgetting it.

→ Inversion 181

Nouns

226

Nouns are one of the four major word classes, along with verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Nouns are the largest word class.

Types of nouns

226a

A noun refers to a person, animal or thing. Some examples are:

Nouns referring to people

boy	woman	student	Maria
girl	teacher	president	Lennon
man	mother	John	

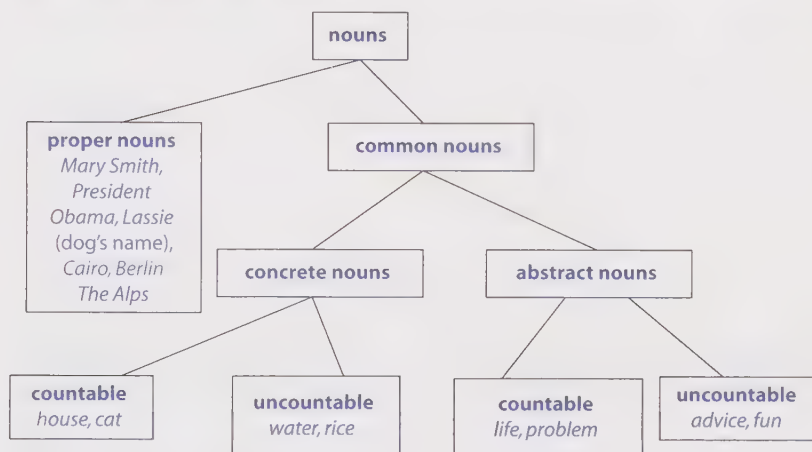
Nouns referring to animals and things

book	tree	Manchester	name
computer	bird	idea	place
picture	dog	love	

The **woman** in the **picture** is my **mother**.

Her **name** is **Anna**. She's from **Manchester**.

The diagram shows the different types of nouns and how they relate to one another.



Most nouns are **common nouns**, referring to classes or categories of people, animals and things.

Proper nouns are the names of specific people, animals and things. They are written with a capital letter at the start.

Concrete nouns refer to material objects which we can see or touch.

Abstract nouns refer to things which are not material objects, such as ideas, feelings and situations.

→ Nouns: countable and uncountable 228

Identifying nouns

226b

It is not always possible to identify a noun by its form. However, some word endings can show that the word is probably a noun.

ending	examples
-age	postage, language, sausage
-ance/-ence	insurance, importance, difference
-er/-or	teacher, driver, actor
-hood	childhood, motherhood, fatherhood

-ism	socialism, capitalism, nationalism
-ist	artist, optimist, pianist
-itude	attitude, multitude, solitude
-ity/-ty	identity, quantity, cruelty
-ment	excitement, argument, government
-ness	happiness, business, darkness
-ship	friendship, championship, relationship
-tion/-sion	station, nation, extension

Gerunds

The *-ing* forms of verbs (gerunds) can also act as nouns.

Smoking is forbidden on all flights.

The City Council does its economic *planning* every September.

Nouns: compound nouns

227

Some nouns consist of more than one word. These are compound nouns. Compound nouns can be formed in different ways. The most common way is to put two nouns together (noun + noun); other common types are adjective + noun and verb + noun.

noun + noun

car park *Iceland* *shopkeeper* *website*

adjective + noun

blackberry *grandstand* *greenhouse* *small talk*

verb + noun

breakwater *fall-guy* *go-kart* *runway*

Writing compound nouns

Many compound nouns are written as one word, but some are written with hyphens or spaces. In modern English, hyphens are less common than they were in the past. A good learner's dictionary will tell you how each compound is usually written.

Examples of one word

bathroom *sheepdog* *windscreen*

Examples of hyphens

check-in *fire-fighter* *son-in-law*

Examples of spaces

bottle opener *New Year's Day* *Prime Minister*

Plurals of compound nouns

We form the plural of most compounds by adding a plural ending to the last part of the compound:

*We saw some large **greenhouses** with vegetables growing in them.*

*They're building two new **car parks** in town.*

! The compounds *mother-in-law*, *brother-in-law*, etc. form their plurals on the first noun:

*I've got one **brother-in-law** and two **sisters-in-law**.*

Not: ~~two sister-in-laws~~

Compound nouns and spoken stress

Compound nouns normally have the spoken stress on the first part:

CAR park, BATHroom, WEBSITE, BROther-in-law, DOORbell, CHECK-in

However, not all compound nouns follow this rule. Some have spoken stress on the second part, especially in proper names and titles:

Mount EVerest, Prime MINister, New YORK

A good learner's dictionary will tell you where to put the stress.

Nouns: countable and uncountable

228

Countable nouns

228a

Some nouns refer to things which, in English, are treated as separate items which can be counted. These are called countable nouns. Here are some examples:

a car, three cars

my cousin, my two cousins

a book, a box full of books

a city, several big cities

Singular and plural

Countable nouns can be singular or plural. They can be used with *a/an* and with numbers and many other determiners (e.g. *these, a few*):

*She's got **two sisters** and **a** younger **brother**.*

*Most people buy **things** like **cameras** and **MP3-players** online **these days**.*

***These shoes** look old now.*

*I'll take **a few magazines** with me for **the flight**.*

→ **Determiners 98; Singular and plural nouns 229a; Nouns 226**

Uncountable nouns**228b**

In English grammar, some things are seen as a whole or mass. These are called uncountable nouns, because they cannot be separated or counted.

Some examples of uncountable nouns are:

Ideas and experiences: *advice, information, progress, news, luck, fun, work*

Materials and substances: *water, rice, cement, gold, milk*

Weather words: *weather, thunder, lightning, rain, snow*

Names for groups or collections of things: *furniture, equipment, rubbish, luggage*

Other common uncountable nouns include: *accommodation, baggage, homework, knowledge, money, permission, research, traffic, travel*.

These nouns are not used with *a/an* or numbers and are not used in the plural.

*We're going to get new **furniture** for the living room.*

Not: *We're going to get a new furniture for the living room. or We're going to get new furnitures for the living room.*

*We had terrible **weather** last week.*

Not: *We had a terrible weather last week.*

*We need **rice** next time we go shopping.*

Some nouns always have plural form but they are uncountable because we cannot use numbers with them.

*I bought **two pairs of trousers**.*

Not: *I bought two trousers.*

Other nouns of this type are: *shorts, pants, pyjamas, glasses (for the eyes), binoculars, scissors*.

! Some nouns which are uncountable in English are countable in other languages (e.g. *accommodation, advice, furniture, information*):

*They can give you some **information** about **accommodation** at the tourist office.*

Not: *They can give you some informations about accommodations at the tourist office.*

*Can you give me some **advice** about buying a second-hand car?*

Not: *Can you give me some advices about buying a second-hand car?*

A good learner's dictionary will tell you whether a noun is countable or uncountable.

Quantity expressions (a bit/piece)

To refer to one or more quantities of an uncountable noun, expressions such as *a bit of, a piece of, an item of* or words for containers and measures must be used:

*He bought **a** very expensive **piece of furniture** for his new apartment.*

*Maggie always has some exciting **bits of news** when she comes to see us.*

*I think we'll need **five bags of cement** for the patio.*

*There's **a litre of milk** in the fridge for you. And I bought you **a bar of chocolate**.*

Determiners (*my, some, the*)

Uncountable nouns can be used with certain determiners (e.g. *my, her, some, any, no, the, this, that*) and expressions of quantity (e.g. *a lot of, (a) little*):

*They gave me **some information** about courses and scholarships and things.*

*Have you heard **the news**? Fran's getting engaged.*

*She's been studying hard and has made **a lot of progress**.*

*There's **no work** to do here, so you can go home if you like.*

***This milk's** a bit old, I'm afraid.*

→ Determiners 98

Countable phrases for uncountable nouns

We can sometimes use countable noun phrases to talk about an individual example of the thing an uncountable noun refers to.

uncountable	countable
accommodation	<i>a house, a flat, a place to live, a place to stay</i>
baggage/luggage	<i>a suitcase, a bag, a rucksack</i>
bread	<i>a loaf (of bread), a (bread) roll</i>
lightning	<i>a flash of lightning</i>
luck	<i>a stroke of luck</i>
money	<i>a note, a coin, a sum of money, a euro, a dollar</i>
poetry	<i>a poem</i>
rain	<i>a shower, a downpour, a storm</i>
travel	<i>a journey, a trip</i>
work	<i>a job, a task</i>

*Finding **a place to live** is difficult if you're a student and you've got no money. (or Finding **accommodation** ...)*

Not: *Finding an accommodation ...*

*She brought **two big suitcases** and **a rucksack** with her.*

Not: *She brought two big luggages ...*

*I read **a poem** once about someone riding a horse at night.*

Not: *I read a poetry ...*

*We went on **a trip** to the Amazon when we were in Brazil.*

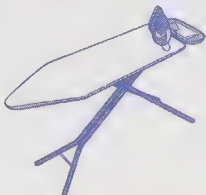
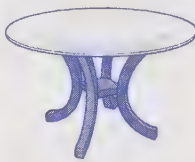
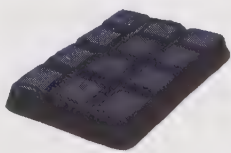
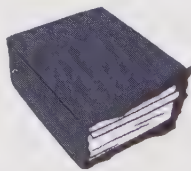
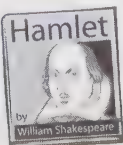
Not: *We went on a travel ...*

Countable and uncountable nouns with different meanings

228c

Some nouns can be used either countably or uncountably, but with different meanings.

↔ Compare

Countable use	Uncountable use
 We bought a new iron and an ironing board.	 People believed that ships made of iron would sink.
 I broke a glass yesterday.	 The table was made of hardened glass.
 Would you like a chocolate?	 Would you like some chocolate?
 Let's get a paper and see what's on at the cinema.	 The printer has run out of paper.
 'Hamlet' is one of Shakespeare's most famous works.	 I had work to do so I couldn't go out.

Uncountable nouns used countably

228d

Measures and examples

Sometimes uncountable nouns are used countably, to mean ‘a measure of something’ or ‘a type or example of something’:

- Can I have **two teas** and **one coffee**, please? (two cups of tea and one cup of coffee ...?)
- A: How many **sugars** do you want in your tea? (How many spoonfuls/lumps of sugar?)
- B: Just **one**, please.
- To some degree we tend to eat the **foods** that we ate as children. (i.e. types of food)

Abstract nouns

Some abstract nouns can be used uncountably or countably. The uncountable use has a more general meaning. The countable use has a more particular meaning.

Nouns of this type include: *education, experience, hatred, help, knowledge, life, love, sleep, time, understanding.*

↔ Compare

uncountable use	countable use
Good education is the best investment in Britain's future. (education in general)	The first daughter had a very expensive education at a private school in France. (the time one person spent at school)
Love is like a physical pain for some people. (love in general/all love)	I've always had a love of poetry , ever since I was a child. (a specific liking for something)
They have a quiz every week, with questions about general knowledge . (all knowledge/knowledge in general)	The job requires a knowledge of statistics and basic computing . (a specific type of knowledge)
Time passes more and more quickly as you grow older. (time in general)	We had a great time in Ibiza. We didn't want to come home. (a specific period of time)

Nouns: form

229

Singular and plural nouns

229a

Nouns can be either singular or plural. Singular means just one of the person, animal or thing which the noun refers to. Plural means more than one.

singular	plural
<i>a car</i>	<i>three cars</i>
<i>my house</i>	<i>some new houses</i>
<i>that cow</i>	<i>those cows</i>

We use singular verbs with singular nouns, and plural verbs with plural nouns:

*My house **is** the white house on the corner.*

*Those houses **were** all built in the 1950s.*

→Noun phrases 234

Forming the plural of nouns

229b

The rules for making the plural of nouns depend on the spelling and pronunciation. Most nouns form their plural by adding *-s*:

<i>face - faces</i>	<i>school - schools</i>
<i>hole - holes</i>	<i>store - stores</i>
<i>monkey - monkeys</i>	<i>week - weeks</i>
<i>part - parts</i>	

In other cases, the plural depends on how the noun ends.

singular	plural	rule
<i>box, watch, bus</i>	<i>boxes, watches, buses</i>	If the noun ends in <i>-ch, -s, -sh, -x</i> or <i>-z</i> , add <i>-es</i> . The plural ending <i>-es</i> is pronounced /ɪz/ (<i>/'bɒksɪz/, /'wɒtʃɪz/</i>).
<i>university, baby, ferry</i>	<i>universities, babies, ferries</i>	If the noun ends in a consonant plus <i>-y</i> , change <i>y</i> to <i>i</i> and add <i>-es</i> .
<i>wife, thief, loaf</i>	<i>wives, thieves, loaves</i>	For some nouns ending in <i>-f</i> , change <i>-f</i> to <i>-ves</i> but note: <i>roof-roofs, belief-beliefs, cliff-cliffs</i> .
<i>potato, cargo, torpedo</i>	<i>potatoes, cargoes, torpedoes</i>	If the noun ends in <i>-o</i> , add <i>-es</i> but note: <i>radio-radios, video-videos</i> .
<i>formula, phenomenon, crisis</i>	<i>formulae, phenomena, crises</i>	Some nouns which come from Latin and Greek form their plurals in special ways.

Here are some important exceptions to the spelling and pronunciation of plural nouns.

singular	plural
<i>child</i>	<i>children</i> /ˈtʃɪldrən/
<i>man</i>	<i>men</i>
<i>woman</i>	<i>women</i> /ˈwɪmɪn/
<i>tooth, foot</i>	<i>teeth</i> /ti:θ/, <i>feet</i> /fi:t/
<i>mouse</i>	<i>mice</i> /maɪs/
<i>sheep, fish, deer</i>	<i>sheep, fish, deer</i> *

*The plural has the same form as the singular.

A good learner's dictionary will tell you how to make the plural of any noun.

→ **Spelling 330; Collective nouns 231c**

Nouns: forming nouns from other words 230

We often form nouns from other parts of speech, most commonly from a verb or an adjective. We can then use the noun phrase instead of the verb or adjective to create a more formal style. We call this nominalisation:

excite → *excitement*
fly → *flight*

grow → *growth*
industrial → *industrialisation*

invade → *invasion*
wide → *width*

After 1900 there was a **growth** in trade with Europe. (less formal: After 1900 trade with Europe grew.)

The **closure** of the Meteorcorp factory caused 200 workers to lose their jobs. (less formal: Meteorcorp closed the factory and 200 workers lost their jobs.)

Nominalisation is common in writing, especially formal writing.

→ **Word formation 389**

Nouns: singular and plural 231

Nouns used only in the singular 231a

Some nouns are used only in the singular, even though they end in -s. These include: the names of academic subjects such as *classics*, *economics*, *mathematics/maths*, *physics*; the physical activities *gymnastics* and *aerobics*; the diseases *measles* and *mumps*; and the word *news*:

Maths was never my best subject at school.

Aerobics is great fun – you should try it!

Nouns used only in the plural**231b**

Some nouns only have a plural form. They cannot be used with numbers. They include the names of certain tools, instruments and articles of clothing which have two parts.

Tools and instruments

<i>binoculars</i>	<i>headphones</i>	<i>sunglasses</i>
<i>glasses</i>	<i>scissors</i>	<i>tweezers</i>

Clothing

<i>jeans</i>	<i>pyjamas</i>	<i>tights</i>
<i>knickers</i>	<i>shorts</i>	<i>trousers</i>
<i>pants</i>		

*I've got new **sunglasses**. Do you like them?*

*He always wears **shorts**, even in the winter.*

A pair of

We can use *pair of* to refer to one example of these nouns:

*I bought a new **pair of binoculars** last week.*

***That old pair of trousers** will be useful for doing jobs in the garden.*

We use *pairs of* to refer to more than one example of this type of noun:

*They're advertising **two pairs of glasses** for the price of one.*

*I bought **three pairs of shorts** for the summer.*

Other nouns which are always plural in form

<i>belongings</i>	<i>outskirts</i>
<i>clothes</i>	<i>premises (buildings)</i>
<i>congratulations</i>	<i>savings (money)</i>
<i>earnings</i>	<i>stairs</i>
<i>goods</i>	<i>surroundings</i>
<i>likes/dislikes</i>	<i>thanks</i>

*Please ensure that you take all your **belongings** with you as you leave the aircraft.*

*They live on the **outskirts** of Frankfurt, almost in the countryside.*

*My **clothes** are wet. I'll have to go upstairs and change.*

*She spent all her **savings** on a trip to South America.*

Collective nouns (group words)**231c**

Some nouns refer to groups of people (e.g. *audience, committee, government, team*). These are sometimes called collective nouns. Some collective nouns can take a singular or plural verb, depending on whether they are considered as a single unit or as a collection of individuals:

<i>audience</i>	<i>crew</i>	<i>public</i>
<i>committee</i>	<i>enemy</i>	<i>team</i>
<i>company</i>	<i>government</i>	<i>Manchester United</i>

⇔ Compare

seen as a single unit	seen as individuals
<i>The audience was larger than average and the concert was a success.</i>	<i>The audience were all cheering wildly.</i>
<i>The government is hoping that online voting will attract more young people to vote.</i>	<i>The government are all very nervous about the report, which will be published tomorrow.</i>
<i>Manchester United is the world's most famous football club.</i>	<i>Manchester United are looking forward to meeting Valencia in the final next week.</i>

In general, a plural verb is more common with these nouns in informal situations.

→ Piece words and group words 270

Nouns and gender

232

Most English nouns do not have grammatical gender. Nouns referring to people do not have separate forms for men (male form) and women (female form). However, some nouns traditionally had different forms. Nowadays, people usually prefer more neutral forms.

male form	female form	neutral form
<i>actor</i>	<i>actress</i>	<i>actor</i>
<i>chairman</i>	<i>chairwoman</i>	<i>chair or chairperson</i>
<i>headmaster</i>	<i>headmistress</i>	<i>headteacher or head</i>
<i>host</i>	<i>hostess</i>	(social) <i>host</i> (on an aircraft) <i>cabin attendant</i>
<i>policeman</i>	<i>policewoman</i>	<i>police officer</i>
<i>steward</i>	<i>stewardess</i>	(on an aircraft) <i>cabin attendant</i>
<i>waiter</i>	<i>waitress</i>	<i>waiter</i>

Traditional work-roles

Some jobs were normally done by men in the past, and their names had no form for women (e.g. *fireman*, *fisherman*). Some were normally done by women, and their names had no form for men (e.g. nurses and secretaries were almost always women). Nowadays, *fire-fighter* is preferred to *fireman*, and *nurse* is preferred for both sexes instead of *male nurse* for a man. *Personal assistant* (or *PA*) is often used instead of *secretary*. The neutral words are more 'politically correct' (not likely to offend anyone):

*Two **fire-fighters** were injured in a blaze at an electronics factory yesterday.*

*My brother's a **nurse** in the local hospital.*

Animal names

Some animal names have male and female forms. Very often, one of the names acts as a neutral term, even if we know the sex of the animal.

male	female	neutral
bull	cow	cow
dog	bitch	dog
drake	duck	duck

There were loads of people out walking with **dogs** today.
In the middle of this park there was a lovely pond with **ducks** swimming on it.

→ Sexist language

Nouns and prepositions233

Many nouns have particular prepositions which normally follow them. Here are some common examples:

nouns	preposition	examples
age, attempt, point	at	18 is the age at which you are allowed to vote. Fisk is making his third attempt at the world record.
need, reason, responsibility	for	What's the reason for your unhappiness? Nobody seems to have responsibility for the budget.
changes, differences, increase	in	Changes in society have meant that young people leave home earlier. There's been a steady increase in the value of the euro.
inquiry, investigation, research	into	The police inquiry into the theft continues. She did some research into the causes of back pain.
cause, example, way	of	This is an example of international collaboration. We need to find another way of doing things.
approach, reaction, response	to	My reaction to it all was to try to forget it. Her response to the criticism was very strong.

Typical errors

These are some of the most typical errors with nouns. A good learner's dictionary will tell you which prepositions to use after nouns.

address	Go to our website to get the address of your nearest branch. Not: ... the address to your nearest branch.
advertisement	I saw an advertisement for a teaching job in Malawi which looked interesting. Not: ... an advertisement of a teaching job ...
awareness	There is a growing awareness of the impact of climate change among the young. Not: ... a growing awareness about the impact of climate change ...
change	Changes in our diet have meant that more and more people suffer heart disease. (changes that happen) Not: Changes of our diet ... The director of studies must be informed of any changes to the timetable. (changes that people purposely make) Not: ... of any changes in the timetable. (This means changes that happen, not those that people purposely make.)
congratulations	Congratulations on your new job! Not: Congratulations for your new job!
course	I'd like to do a course in computer programming if I could find a good one. Not: ... a course of computer programming ...
exhibition	We went to see an exhibition of Viking jewellery. Not: ... an exhibition about Viking jewellery.
experience	Do you have any previous experience of working with children? (usually followed by the -ing form of a verb) Not: ... previous experience in working with children? She has ten years' experience in television and radio. (usually followed by a noun) Not: ... ten years' experience on television and radio.
increase	There has been an increase of 200,000 in the city's population in the last
decrease	ten years.
growth	(Of is used before numbers and quantities after increase/decrease/growth; in is used before the thing affected by the change.) Not: ... an increase of the city's population ... (Compare change in, above.)
information	Can you give us some information on/about bus tours, please? Not: ... some information of bus tours ...?
interest	He seems to have less interest in everything these days. Not: ... less interest to everything these days.

invitation	<i>The invitation to the reception at the embassy arrived the next day.</i> Not: The invitation of the reception ...
knowledge	<i>For this job you need some knowledge of Portuguese.</i> Not: ... some knowledge in Portuguese. <i>He has an amazing knowledge of European history.</i> Not: ... an amazing knowledge about European history.
lesson	<i>I need some lessons in how to set up a website.</i> Not: I need some lessons of how to ...
member	<i>Can anyone become a member of your book club?</i> Not: ... a member in your book club?
method	<i>Questionnaires are not necessarily the best method of collecting sociological data.</i> Not: ... the best method to collect ...
need	<i>We understand the need for change but we should move slowly.</i> Not: ... the need of change ... (Of is used with need in the expression in need of. The village is in need of a community centre where people, especially young people, can go in the evenings.)
newcomer	<i>I was a newcomer to windsurfing so I was very nervous.</i> Not: I was a newcomer of windsurfing ...
place	<i>I'd love to show you some of the nice places in my hometown.</i> Not: ... the nice places of my hometown.
possibility	<i>The possibility of making contact with other intelligent beings in the universe is very small.</i> Not: The possibility to make contact ...
problem	<i>The problem of finding a good babysitter is one that many parents have faced.</i> Not: The problem to find ...
reason	<i>I've never understood the reason for all these different forms we have to fill in.</i> Not: ... the reason of all ...
risk	<i>We all know the risks of getting a virus if we don't protect our computer.</i> Not: ... the risks for getting a virus ...
translation	<i>She did a translation into English of some ancient Chinese poems.</i> Not: ... a translation in English ...
visit	<i>The visit to the temple was the high point of the holiday.</i> Not: The visit in the temple ...

Noun phrases

234

A noun phrase consists of a noun or pronoun, which is called the head, and any dependent words before or after the head. Dependent words give specific information about the head.

Examples of noun phrases:

dependent word(s)	head	dependent word(s)
	<i>love</i>	
	<i>him</i>	
<i>the</i>	<i>moon</i>	
<i>a gold</i>	<i>ring</i>	
<i>the red</i>	<i>one</i>	
<i>good</i>	<i>food</i>	
<i>my own personal</i>	<i>website</i>	
<i>that</i>	<i>house</i>	<i>there</i>
<i>the longest</i>	<i>river</i>	<i>in the world</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>feeling</i>	<i>of isolation</i>
<i>the tall, blonde</i>	<i>woman</i>	<i>we met at Joanna's house</i>

Noun phrases can refer to a particular example of something or to a whole class of people or things.

↔ Compare

particular example	whole class
<i>my mother</i>	<i>women</i>
<i>the red star in the southern sky</i>	<i>the stars</i>
<i>New York</i>	<i>a big city</i>

→ Noun phrases: complements 235c; Noun phrases: determiners 235a; Noun phrases: premodifiers 235b; Noun phrases: postmodifiers 235d

Noun phrases: dependent words

235

In a noun phrase, dependent words before the head are either determiners (e.g. *the*, *my*, *some*) or premodifiers (e.g. adjectives). Dependent words after the head are either complements or postmodifiers.

Noun phrases: determiners (*a, the, my, his, some, this, etc.*)**235a**

Determiners come first in a noun phrase (e.g. ***the*** big black car). They include:

articles: *a/an, the*

demonstratives: *this, that, these, those*

possessive determiners: *my, your, his, her, etc.*

quantifiers: *some, any, all, enough, no, every, etc.*

numerals: *one, two, three, etc.*

interrogative words: *which, what, whose*

Determiners show the type of reference the noun phrase makes. The reference may be definite (*the*), indefinite (*a/an*), demonstrative (*this, that, these, those*), possessive (*my, our, their, etc.*). Determiners can also indicate number or quantity (e.g. *seven, all, some, no*). (Determiners are in bold; heads are underlined.):

This room is ***the*** guest bedroom.

Your sister rang while you were at ***the*** shop.

Every time I see him he's wearing ***no*** shoes.

Which box do you want?

→Determiners 98**Noun phrases: premodifiers (*big, good, red*)****235b**

Premodifiers consist of single adjectives, adjective phrases, single nouns and noun phrases which are used before the head in a noun phrase.

Adjective premodifiers

Adjectives describe the qualities or features of a noun. Common adjectives include *nice, big, bad, happy, black, beautiful, new*. (Adjectives and adjective phrases are in bold; heads are underlined.):

a ***nice*** day

a ***very*** ***happy*** life

my ***new*** armchair

that ***big, black*** umbrella

→Adjectives 8; Adjective phrases 11**Nouns acting as premodifiers**

Nouns can act as premodifiers in noun phrases. They specify particular aspects or features of the noun, such as type, material, etc. (Premodifier nouns are in bold; heads are underlined.):

a ***university*** education

a ***fur*** coat

a ***recent*** ***government*** report

two ***18th-century*** ***solid*** ***silver*** cups

the ***post-war*** economy

Nouns which act as premodifiers are singular, even when the head is plural:

Four ***metal*** cylinders were attached to the machine.

Not: Four metals cylinders were attached to the machine.

You can get really good, cheap ***leather*** jackets in Marrakesh.

Noun phrase modifiers indicating time or measurements are singular in form even when their meaning is plural. Hyphens are normally used in the modifying expression:

an **eight-hour flight** a **three-day tour** of Amsterdam a **two-litre bottle**
 Not: an eight-hours flight

Noun phrases: complements **235c**

Complements come immediately after the head in a noun phrase. They are prepositional phrases or clauses which are necessary to complete the meaning of the noun. Without the complement, we wouldn't understand what the noun was referring to.

pre-head	head	complement	type
a	rise	in inflation	prepositional phrase
a	feeling	of fear and loneliness	prepositional phrase
the	idea	that schools should control their own finances	clause
the	fact	that the planet is getting warmer	clause

A rise in inflation is likely in the coming months.
The idea that schools should control their own finances is not a new one.
The fact that the planet is getting warmer is no longer disputed.

→ Prepositional phrases 276; Relative clauses 307

Noun phrases: postmodifiers **235d**

Postmodifiers come after the head in a noun phrase. They consist of adverb phrases, prepositional phrases and clauses. Postmodifiers give extra or specific information about the noun (e.g. place, possession, identifying features). Unlike complements, they are not necessary to complete the meaning.

pre-head	head	postmodifier	type
an old	cottage	nearby	adverb phrase
a tall	man	with grey hair	prepositional phrase
that antique	table	she bought last year	clause
the	parcel	on my desk that Philip left for you	prepositional phrase (on my desk) + clause (that Philip left for you)
the	woman	in the black dress talking to Marcus	prepositional phrase (in the black dress) + clause (talking to Marcus)

Postmodifiers usually come after any complement in the noun phrase.

pre-head	head	complement	postmodifier
<i>the</i>	<i>claim</i>	<i>that he was a car thief</i>	<i>which appeared in several newspapers</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>feeling</i>	<i>of hope</i>	<i>that everyone shared</i>

→Prepositional phrases 276

Noun phrases: complements or postmodifiers?

235e

Complements are necessary to complete the meaning of a noun. Postmodifiers are not necessary; they give extra information about the noun which helps to identify it or locate it in some way. (The complement and the postmodifier are underlined below.)

↔ **Compare**

complement	postmodifier
<i>We all felt a <u>sense of despair</u>.</i>	<i>The tall <u>woman</u> <u>in the red skirt</u> talking to Paula is a colleague of mine.</i>
The head <i>sense</i> needs more information to complete its meaning. If we only said <i>We all felt a sense</i> , the meaning would not be complete; we need the complement.	The postmodifiers <i>in the red skirt</i> and <i>talking to Paula</i> help us to identify the woman but they are not necessary. The meaning (<i>The tall woman is a colleague of mine.</i>) would be complete without them.

Noun phrases: order

236

Before the head of a noun phrase, determiners come first, then adjectives, then nouns acting as modifiers. The spoken stress is normally on the head.

determiner	adjectives	nouns as modifiers	head
<i>a</i>	<i>heavy</i>	<i>iron</i>	<i>gate</i>
<i>your</i>	<i>dark green, woollen</i>		<i>sweater</i>
<i>my two</i>	<i>favourite</i>	<i>cowboy</i>	<i>films</i>

→Noun phrases 234

Noun phrases: uses

237

Subjects and objects

We most typically use noun phrases as the subjects (s) and objects (o) of clauses (io = indirect object; do = direct object):

[s] [do]

*My father wants to buy **a new car**.*

[s] [io] [do]

*The agency gave **him** **a few numbers** to ring.*

→Subjects 333; Objects 241

Prepositional phrases

Noun phrases (underlined) are also used as part of prepositional phrases (in bold). They act as the complement of the preposition:

*My parents gave me a mountain bike **for my birthday**.*

*The coffee cups go **in the top cupboard**; the plates can just go **on the worktop**.*

Adjuncts

Noun phrases also occur as adjuncts (ad) in some time expressions:

[s] [o] [ad]

*I saw **George last week** at the planning meeting.*

These include expressions such as *next year, this Thursday, most days, some years, one day, some day, the Monday before last, the day after tomorrow*.

→Adjuncts 15; Noun phrases 234

Noun phrases: noun phrases and verbs

238

Agreement

Noun phrases can show person (first, second or third) and number (singular or plural). The person and number of the noun phrase which is the subject of a clause decides the person and number of the verb. This is called agreement.

noun phrase subject	verb		person and number
<i>I</i>	hope	<i>you enjoy Prague.</i>	first person singular
<i>We</i>	were	<i>awake all night.</i>	first person plural
<i>You</i>	need	<i>computer skills.</i>	second person singular or plural
<i>Our dog</i>	loves	<i>cats.</i>	third person singular
<i>Most students</i>	get	<i>part-time jobs.</i>	third person plural

Where there is more than one subject joined by *and*, the verb is plural:

*Gerry and his brother **are** coming to stay next week.*

→Noun phrases 234; Subject-verb agreement 334

Noun phrases: two noun phrases together 239

We can put two noun phrases (NP) together to refer to the same person or thing. This is called apposition:

[NP1] [NP2]
*I report to **Frank Stein, Vice-president of marketing**, with whom I meet weekly.*

[NP1] [NP2]
***John Tebbitt, a newcomer to marathons**, ran a very good race.*

Punctuation

Noun phrases in apposition are normally separated by commas in writing (see the examples above). Where the second noun phrase identifies the first, commas are not necessary:

[NP1] [NP2] [NP1] [NP2]
***My brother Roger** lives in New Zealand but **my brother Kevin** never left home.*
 (Roger and Kevin identify which brothers the speaker or writer is referring to.)

→ **Apposition 37; Noun phrases 234**

Number 240

When we use the word *number*, we refer to specific numbers:

*Here's the phone **number** of the firm where she works.*

*She plays in the local hockey team and wears the **number** six.*

We also use the phrases *a number of*, *numbers of* or *the number of* with a plural verb when we mean 'many' or 'several':

*There are **a number of** things we need to discuss.*

***A significant number of** people are ill with flu so the performance had to be cancelled.*

*Large **numbers of** bees have died because of the cold summer.*

*I couldn't believe **the number of** cars that were parked outside the hall.*

Numbers: first, second, third 240a

Numbers such as *first*, *second*, *third* are ordinal numbers. We use them to put things in an order. We most commonly use ordinal numbers as determiners. When we use ordinal numbers as determiners (before nouns), we commonly use other determiners such as articles (*a/an, the*) and possessives (*my, your*) in front of them:

*This was the **fifth** science exam that he had failed.*

*It's her **twenty-first** birthday and she's spending it with friends in Malaysia.*

We use the ordinal numbers to refer to dates. We usually write them in abbreviated form and often in superscript (above the line). We usually say *the* and *of* when we speak, but we often omit them in writing:

*My birthday is **3rd** January.* (usually spoken as 'the third of January')

*The museum was opened on **25th** June 2008.*

*What are you doing on the **2nd** of May? Do you want to join us at the theatre?*

We also use ordinal numbers as nouns:

*All three singers in the competition were excellent but I'm voting for the **third**.*

Ordinal numbers are also used as adverbs:

A: *He came **tenth** in the New York marathon.*

B: *That's fantastic! Did he really?*

***First**, let me introduce you to my brother Jack.*

→ **First, firstly or at first? 127; Dates 97**

Numbers: one, two, three

240b

Numbers such as *one, five, eleven, two hundred* are cardinal numbers. We most commonly use cardinal numbers as determiners (before nouns). When we use them in this way, we can use other determiners such as articles (*a/an, the*) and possessives (*my, your*) in front of them. We can use cardinal numbers + *of* before determiners (*one of my friends*):

*She loves animals and has **two** dogs, **three** cats and **one** rabbit.*

*My **two** best friends are Amy and Louise.*

***Three** of his colleagues were sacked yesterday. (sacked = lost their jobs)*

We also use cardinal numbers as nouns:

*The children arrived in **twos** and **threes**.*

Large numbers

We normally say *a hundred, a thousand, a million*. We only say *one hundred, one thousand and one million* when we want to emphasise the number:

*What would you do if you won **a million** euros? (preferred to one million euros)*

*The city is about **a hundred** kilometres from the capital.*

Numbers such as *100, 200, 1,000*, etc. do not take a plural *-s* when we use them as determiners:

*There were about **two hundred** people at the meeting.*

Not: *There were about two hundreds people ...*

However, we use the plural forms *hundreds, thousands, millions* + *of* + noun to refer to large, non-specific numbers:

*It's happened **hundreds of** times.*

***Millions of** people live in poverty.*

We often use commas in writing to separate long numbers of a thousand or more into each thousand part:

The repairs cost £1,250.

A total of \$5,000,000 was spent on the project.

→ **Dates 97**

Objects

241

An object is one of the five major elements of clause structure. The other four are subject, verb, adjunct and complement.

Objects are typically noun phrases (a noun or pronoun and any dependent words before or after it). Objects normally follow the verb in a clause:

*Everyone likes **her**. She knows **everyone**.*

*They didn't take **their mountain bikes** with them.*

A: *Have you seen **the car keys**?*

B: *Yes I had **them** earlier.*

There are direct objects and indirect objects. A direct object (in bold) is the thing or person that is affected by the action of the verb. An indirect object (underlined) is usually a person (or animal) who receives a direct object:

*They gave her **a present** when she left.*

*Can you get me **some butter**?*

Direct objects

241a

A direct object shows who or what the action of the verb affects:

*That computer hasn't got **a mouse**.*

*Nobody writes **letters** these days.*

*Does she play **tennis**?*

Indirect objects

241b

An indirect object is usually a person or an animal. The indirect object (underlined) receives or is affected by the direct object (in bold). An indirect object always needs a direct object with it and always comes before the direct object:

*She gave the dog **its dinner**.*

*Do I owe you **some money**?*

We can often rephrase such sentences with a prepositional phrase using *to* or *for* + the recipient. In this case, the direct object usually comes first.

↔ Compare

indirect + direct object	direct object + prepositional phrase with <i>to/for</i>
<i>He always gives <u>the class</u> too much homework.</i>	<i>He always gives too much homework <u>to the class</u>.</i>
<i>I never buy <u>her</u> flowers. She's allergic to them.</i>	<i>I never buy flowers <u>for her</u>. She's allergic to them.</i>

Here are some verbs that often take an indirect object + direct object or a prepositional phrase with *to*:

bring lend owe show tell
give offer promise teach write

Here are some verbs that often take an indirect object + direct object or a prepositional phrase with *for*:

buy find get make order save

Verbs and objects

241c

Some verbs (often called transitive verbs) need an object to complete their meaning. Some verbs (often called intransitive verbs) do not take an object. Some verbs need both a direct object and an indirect object. Some verbs can take a *wh*-clause or a *that*-clause as an object.

Some examples of verbs and objects:

verb + object	<i>We really enjoyed the evening. Thanks.</i>
verb + no object	<i>Paula smiled and left.</i>
verb + two objects	<i>They gave us coffee.</i>
verb + <i>wh</i> -clause	<i>I can't believe what he told me.</i>
verb + <i>that</i> -clause	<i>I know (that) you're telling the truth.</i>

Many phrasal verbs (underlined below) take an object:

*We won't give out **your email address** to other companies.*

*They've put **the price of fuel** up again.*

All prepositional verbs (underlined below) take an object after the preposition:

*I don't listen to **the radio** much.*

*It depends on **the weather**.*

No objects with linking verbs

We don't use objects with linking verbs (*appear, be, become, look, seem, etc.*). We use adjective phrases, noun phrases, adverb phrases or prepositional phrases as subject complements (underlined below), to give more information about the subject:

This is Lucy. She's my sister-in-law.

*I **felt** really tired.*

*I **was** in the garden when you rang.*

→ Noun phrases 234; Verbs and objects 241c; Phrasal verbs 363a; Prepositional verbs 363b; Phrasal-prepositional verbs 363d; Linking verbs 364b

Of**242**

Of is a preposition.

Of commonly introduces prepositional phrases which are complements of nouns, creating the pattern: noun + *of* + noun. This pattern is very common, especially to indicate different parts, pieces, amounts and groups:

Lima is the capital of Peru.

Twenty-four-hour TV news makes sure we all know the main events of the day.

Would you like some more pieces of toast?

We also commonly use *of* as a preposition after different adjectives (*afraid of, generous of, proud of*) and verbs (*approve of, dream of, think of*):

I never thought she could take a flight on her own at her age. I feel very proud of her.

Best of luck with the interview tomorrow. We'll be thinking of you.

We use the structure determiner + *of* + noun in expressions of quantity:

Most of the new workers in the country are from Turkey.

Some of my best friends are computer scientists.

Of is optional with *all, both, half* except before the object pronouns *me, you, it, him, her, us, them*:

Both (of) the finance ministers have decided to resign.

All of them will be able to travel on the bus.

Not: *All them will be able to ...*

→ All 27; Determiners 98; Determiners used as pronouns 101; Possessives with *of* 272b

Offers**243**

When we offer, we ask someone if they would like to have something or if they would like us to do something for them. We usually say *yes, please* or *no, thanks* when we reply to offers.

Offers of food or drinks

A: *Would you like some cake?*

B: *Oh yes, please. It looks delicious.*

A: *Can I get you more juice?*

B: *No, thanks.*

In more informal offers, we can use *want* or a noun phrase with a questioning intonation:

Do you want some more salad, Peter?

A: *Want some of my sandwich?*

B: *No, thanks.*

A: *Tea?*

B: *Oh yes, please.*

Offers to do something for someone

A: *Shall I wash the car?*

B: *Oh, that would be great, thanks.*

A: *Would you like me to walk you home?*

B: *No, thanks.*

! We don't use the present simple to offer to do something for someone. We most commonly use 'll:

I'll do the ironing if you want.

Not: *I do the ironing ...*

Jim's doing nothing. He'll walk the dog for you if you like.

Offers to do something in different situations

[A is visiting B's house. B is preparing dinner]

A: *Is there anything I can do?*

B: *Actually yes, you can chop these carrots while I wash the potatoes.*

[in a shop, A is the shop assistant and B is the customer]

A: *Can I help you?*

B: *No, thanks. I'm just looking around.*

[on a telephone helpline]

A: *Hi my name is Inez. How may I help you?*

B: *Well, there's something wrong with my internet connection ...*

[at an information desk]

A: *What can I do for you?*

B: *I'm interested in seeing the city centre. Is there a bus tour, or something like that, that I can take?*

When we are almost certain that a person would like something, we can use *let me*:

Let me get you some more soup.

Let me carry your bag. That's too heavy for you.

→ *Would 393; Can 65*

Okay, OK

244

We use *okay* (also spelt *OK*) in informal language. We use it in different ways, as a discourse marker, adjective or adverb.

Okay as a discourse marker

244a

Agreeing

We use *okay* as a response token to show that we understand, accept, or agree with what someone is saying:

A: *I'll see you at 5 in front of the library.*

B: *OK. See you later.*

A: *Why don't you get a lift with Raviv?*

B: *Oh, **okay**.*

Changing topic or closing a conversation

We often use *okay* to show that we are moving on to a new topic or phase of conversation. This is common in situations where we are giving instructions:

Okay, *let's get into groups of four now.*

[piano teacher to pupil]

OK, *right, let's see. Now, keep that hand ready, so it's there when you want it.*

We also use *okay* to mark the end of a conversation:

*Right, **okay**, take care of yourself. Bye.*

Checking understanding

We often use *okay?* to check understanding. We usually put it in end position:

*I know it's difficult to talk ... just nod or shake your head. **OK?***

*Tie it the opposite way ... just like tying a shoelace really, **okay?***

Okay as an adjective

244b

We often use *okay* as an adjective to say that something is not a problem, it's 'all right':

A: *Thanks for helping me out.*

B: *That's **OK**. No problem.*

A: *Sorry to keep you waiting.*

B: *It's **okay**.*

*'It's **OK**, just tell me what to do,' I said. I think I was a bit afraid, but I was trying to sound calm.*

We often use *okay* to talk about our health:

A: *How are you?*

B: *I'm **okay**, thanks.*

[talking about someone who has been very ill]

*She's going to be **OK**.*

We use *okay* to say that a situation or state is satisfactory, neither very good or very bad:

*'What do you think of my plans?' 'They're **okay**,' Jenny said unenthusiastically.*

Okay as an adverb

244c

Okay is used as an adverb in informal speech, meaning 'all right', 'neither well nor badly':

*Even though I had never slept in a tent, in a sleeping bag or had any experience canoeing, I did **OK**.*

*The Internet was down all morning, but it seems to be working **okay** now.*

→ Discourse markers 104; All right and alright ○

On, onto

245

On and *onto* are prepositions.

We use *on* when we refer to a position on a surface (*on the table, on the ocean, on the moon, on the roof, on the bus*):

*Your keys are **on** the table.*

*The men were standing **on** the roof.*



We use *onto* to talk about direction or movement to a position on a surface, usually with a verb that expresses movement:

*The cat climbed **onto** the roof.*

*She emptied the suitcase full of clothes **onto** the floor.*

We use *on* to describe a position along a road or river or by the sea or by a lake:

*The hotel is **on** the road opposite the beach.*

*They have a fabulous house **on** a lake in Ireland.*

We use *onto* to describe movement towards an end position along a road or river:

*The path leads **onto** the main road.*

We use *on* or *onto* with very little difference in meaning to refer to attachment or movement of something to something else. *Onto* gives a stronger feeling of movement:

*There's a battery pack with the camera that you can clip **onto** a belt.*

*You can save the data **onto** your hard disk.*

*Have you put the pictures **on** your memory stick?*

→ *At, on and in (place)* 50; *At, on and in (time)* 51

Once

246

Once is an adverb or conjunction.

Once as an adverb

246a

We use *once* as an adverb to mean 'one single time':

*I've only met Jane's husband **once**. (one time)*

We say *once a* + singular time expression and *once every* + plural time expression to talk about how often something happens:

*They go for dinner together **once a** month. (one time per month)*

Not: *They go for dinner **once** the month.*

*I see him **once every** two or three weeks.*

We also use *once* to mean 'at a time in the past but not now'. In this meaning, we often use it in mid position (between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb):

*My father **once** worked on an oilrig.* (He no longer works there.)

*The Millers **once** owned a dairy farm.* (They no longer own a dairy farm.)

*She was **once** a schoolteacher but she hated it.*

The phrase *once upon a time* is used at the start of children's stories. We sometimes use it to mean 'long ago':

***Once upon a time** there was a little girl called Little Red Riding Hood ...*

*You used to go to nightclubs **once upon a time!***

Once as a conjunction

246b

We use *once* as a conjunction meaning 'as soon as' or 'after':

***Once** I've picked Megan up, I'll call you.*

*My boss is a nice man **once** you get to know him.*

We don't use *shall* or *will* in the clause with *once*:

***Once** I pass all my exams, I'll be fully qualified.*

Not: *Once I ~~will~~ pass ...*

→ Conjunctions 88

One

247

We commonly use *one* and its plural *ones* as a substitute for a countable noun:

A: *What about a cake?*

B: *All right. Thank you. But I'm trying to slim, so I'll just have a small **one**.*

A: *Can you fetch the DVDs from the shop?*

B: *Which **ones**?*

A: *The **ones** we ordered last week. The musicals.*

We don't use *one* to refer back to uncountable nouns:

A: *Have you got any milk?*

B: *Yes.*

A: *Can I borrow **some**?*

Not: *Can I borrow ~~one~~?*

As a noun substitute, we don't use *ones* immediately after *some*, *any*, *both* and numbers, unless it is premodified:

A: *Are there any mangoes for dessert today?*

B: *Yes, Nuala bought **some** at the supermarket.*

Not: *... bought ~~some ones~~ at ...*

A: *How many pens did you buy?*

B: *I bought four green **ones** and six red **ones**. That should be OK, shouldn't it?*

(The underlined words are premodifiers.)

In informal English, *my*, *his*, *her*, etc. (possessive determiners) can come before *one*. This makes the statement more emphatic:

A: *I couldn't use my laptop today.*

B: *Neither could I. **My one** got stolen.* (more emphatic than ***Mine** got stolen.*)

When *one* refers back to a previous noun and is premodified, a determiner (*a/an*, *the*, *this*, *your*) must be used:

The hotel that we had booked turned out to be a luxury one.

Not: *The hotel that we had booked turned out to be luxury one.*

I liked all your songs, but 'Yesterday' was your best one.

→ **One and one's** ○

Only

248

Only is an adjective or adverb.

Only as an adjective

248a

We use *only* as an adjective to mean that there is just one or very few of something, or that there are no others:

*He was the **only** person in the room.*

*Being healthy is the **only** thing that is important to me.*

Only as an adverb

248b

We use *only* as an adverb to mean that something is limited to some people, things, an amount or an activity:

*This phone is **only** available in Japan.*

***Only** a few hundred houses survived the hurricane without any damage.*

Only can mean 'simply':

*He's **only** joking.*

• In speaking, *only* can be used with *just* for emphasis. It can mean 'very recently' or 'almost not':

*She'd **only just** moved into her new house last July.* (very recently)

*The building had survived the earthquake of two years before, but **only just**.* (It almost didn't survive the earthquake.)

Only: position

248c

As an adjective, we use *only* in front of a noun or *one*, or before another adjective or a number:

*Is that your **only** copy of the book?*

*He was the **only** one who could read in the village.*

Not: *He was the ~~only who could read~~ ...*

*That was the **only** large t-shirt left in that colour.*

*There were **only** four United fans in the room.*

We can use *only* as an adverb in different positions, depending on its focus. If the subject is the focus, we put *only* in front position:

Only Jason knows where the key is kept.

Only a very small bed will fit in this room.

If the focus is on another part of the sentence, we usually put *only* in the normal mid position for adverbs (between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb):

I **only** go home once a month. (between subject and main verb)

She had **only** arrived at midnight the night before. (after the first auxiliary verb)

She's **only** sixteen. (after *be* as a main verb)

If the focus is a whole clause, we can put *only* in front position:

My arm hurts but **only** when I try to raise it.

→ **Not only ... but also** 225; **If only** 170

Opinion

249

We use *opinion* as a noun to mean beliefs or judgements about someone or something. When it refers to the beliefs or judgements of individuals, it is countable:

I've never agreed with Chris's **opinion** on taxation.

A lot of people have strong **opinions** about bullfighting. (referring to their individual opinions)

When it refers to the beliefs or judgements of a group of people, *opinion* is usually uncountable:

The government is worried about public **opinion**.

We use phrases such as *in my opinion*, *in your opinion*, *in Peter's opinion* to show whose opinion we are referring to:

In Maria's opinion, we paid too much.

We often introduce ideas, especially in writing, with the phrase *in my opinion*:

In my opinion, there are too many cars on the road with just one person in them.

Not: ~~On my opinion/To my opinion/According to me/In my point of view~~

! We don't use *in my opinion* and *I think* together:

In my opinion, she's wasting her time.

Not: ~~In my opinion I think she's wasting her time.~~

The phrases *It is my opinion that ...* and *I am of the opinion that ...* are more formal:

It is my opinion that everyone should have free healthcare.

I am of the opinion that the Prime Minister should resign.

→ **According to** 5

Opposite or in front of?

250

Opposite as a preposition means 'in a position facing someone or something but on the other side':

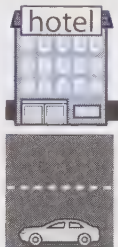
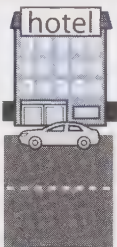
*Jake sat **opposite** Claire in the restaurant.* (Jake and Claire are facing each other on different sides of the table.)

Not: *Jake sat in front of Claire ...*

In front of as a preposition means 'close to the front of something or someone':

*There was a woman **in front of** me in the bus queue who was crying.* (I was standing behind the woman.)

↔ Compare

	
We parked opposite the hotel.	We parked in front of the hotel.

Or

251

Or is a conjunction that connects two or more possibilities or alternatives. It connects words, phrases and clauses which are the same grammatical type:

*Which do you prefer? Leather **or** suede?*

*You can have some freshly baked scones **or** some chocolate cake **or** both.*

We use *or* after the negative form of a verb, instead of *and*.

↔ Compare

I like tea and coffee.	I like both tea and coffee.
I don't like tea or coffee.	I don't like tea and I don't like coffee.

When we connect two or more nouns using *or*, we use a singular verb with singular nouns, and a plural verb with plural countable nouns:

*A banjo **or** a mandolin **is** what we need.* (singular nouns)

*I think more pictures **or** ornaments **are** needed in this room.* (plural nouns)

→ Conjunctions 88

Either ... or

For emphasis, we can use *either ... or*:

*You can pay **either** by cash **or** by credit card. (the same as: You can pay by cash or by credit card.)*

! The negative form of *either ... or* is *neither ... nor*:

***Neither** Joe **nor** Maria will be at the wedding.*

In more formal language we sometimes use *nor* instead of *or*, even when *neither* is not used. It sometimes comes after a pause when someone adds another option:

*No one knew from where they came – **nor** to where they went.*

→ **Conjunctions 88; Neither, neither ... nor and not ... either 220**

Typical errors

- We use *or*, not *and*, after the negative form of a verb:

*There weren't any facilities at all. There were no bathrooms, telephones **or** even pillows.*

Not: *There were no bathrooms, telephones **and** even pillows.*

- We only use *or* to connect alternative possibilities. We use *and* when we mean 'in addition to':

*In this essay, I will discuss both the advantages **and** disadvantages of killing animals for food.*

Not: *I will discuss both the advantages **or** disadvantages ...*

→ **And 33**

Other, others, the other or another?

252

Other

252a

Other means 'additional or extra', or 'alternative', or 'different types of'.

Other as a determiner

We can use *other* with singular uncountable nouns and with plural nouns:

*The embassy website has general information about visas. **Other** travel information can be obtained by calling the freephone number. (additional or extra information)*

*Some music calms people; **other** music has the opposite effect. (different types of music)*

*What **other** books by Charles Dickens have you read, apart from 'Oliver Twist'? (additional or extra books)*

*This one's too big. Do you have it in **other** sizes? (alternative sizes)*

If we use *other* before a singular countable noun, we must use another determiner before it:

*I don't like the red one. I prefer **the other** colour.*

Not: *I prefer **other** colour.*

*Jeremy is at university; **our other** son is still at school.*

*He got 100% in the final examination. **No other** student has ever achieved that.*

There's **one other** thing we need to discuss before we finish.

! Other as a determiner does not have a plural form:

Mandy and Charlotte stayed behind. The **other** girls went home.

Not: The **others** girls ...

→ Determiners 98

Other as a pronoun

We can use *other* as a pronoun. As a pronoun, *other* has a plural form, *others*:

We have to solve this problem, more than any **other**, today.

I'll attach two photos to this email and I'll send **others** tomorrow.

The other

252b

The other as a determiner

The *other* with a singular noun means the second of two things or people, or the opposite of a set of two:

This computer here is new. **The other** computer is about five years old.

A: D'you know the Indian restaurant in Palmer Street?

B: Yes.

A: Well, the gift shop is on **the other** side of the street, directly opposite. (the opposite side)

The *other* with a plural noun means the remaining people or things in a group or set:

Joel and Karen are here, but where are **the other** kids? (the remaining people in a group)

Where are **the other** two dinner plates? I can only find four. (the remaining things in a set – here six plates)

The other as a pronoun

We can use *the other* as a pronoun, especially to refer back to something which has been mentioned already in the sentence:

He had his hat in one hand and a bunch of flowers in **the other**.

She has two kittens, one is black and **the other** is all white.

Another

252c

When we use the indefinite article *an* before *other*, we write it as one word: *another*. *Another* means 'one more' or 'an additional or extra', or 'an alternative or different'.

Another as a determiner

We use *another* with singular nouns:

Would you like **another** cup of coffee?

You've met Linda, but I have **another** sister who you haven't met, called Margaret.

I don't like this place. Is there **another** café around here we could go to? (alternative or different)

Another as a pronoun

We can use *another* as a pronoun:

*The applications are examined by one committee, then passed on to **another**.*

Other, others, the other or another: typical errors**252d**

- When *other* is a determiner, it does not have a plural form:

*These boxes are for books. The **other** boxes are for clothes.*

Not: ~~The others boxes ...~~

- When *other* as a pronoun refers to more than one person or thing, it takes the plural form, *others*:

*Some scientists think we should reduce the number of flights to prevent global warming; **others** disagree.*

Not: ~~... other disagree.~~

- Other* must have a determiner before it when it comes in front of a singular countable noun. If the noun is indefinite (e.g. *a book, a woman, an idea*), we use *another*.

*I've posted the first package. What shall I do with **that other** package?*

Not: ~~What shall I do with other package?~~

*After a month in Bolivia, I was ready to move to **another** country.*

Not: ~~... to move to other country.~~

- We write *another* as one word:

*There is **another** car park a little further down the same street.*

Not: ~~There is an other car park ...~~

- Another* is singular. We don't use it with plural nouns:

***Other** interesting places to visit include the old harbour and the castle.*

Not: ~~Another interesting places to visit ...~~

Ought to**253**

Ought to is a semi-modal verb because it is in some ways like a modal verb and in some ways like a main verb. For example, unlike modal verbs, it is followed by *to*, but like modal verbs, it does not change form for person:

*I **ought to** phone my parents.*

*It **ought to** be easy now.*

Ought to: form**253a****Affirmative**

Ought to comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

*We **ought to** do more exercise.*

Ought to cannot be used with another modal verb:

*Medicine **ought to** be free.*

Not: ~~Medicine ought to can be free. or Medicine can ought to be free.~~

Negative

The negative is formed by adding 'not' after *ought* (*ought not to*). It can be contracted to *oughtn't to*. We don't use *don't*, *doesn't*, *didn't* with *ought to*:

*We **ought not to** have ordered so much food.*

Not: ~~We don't ought to have ordered so much food.~~

*You **oughtn't to** have said that about his mother.*

Not: ~~You didn't ought to have said that about his mother.~~

The negative of *ought to* is not common. We usually use *shouldn't* or *should not* instead:

*You **shouldn't** speak to your father like that.* (preferred to *You oughtn't to speak ...*)

Questions

The subject and *ought to* change position to form questions. We don't use *do*, *does*, *did*:

***Ought she to** call the police?*

Not: ~~Does she ought to call the police?~~

***Ought we to** be more worried about the environment?*

Not: ~~Do we ought to be more worried about the environment?~~

! The question form of *ought to* is not very common. It is very formal. We usually use *should* instead.

Ought to: uses

253b

What is desired or ideal

We use *ought to* when talking about things which are desired or ideal:

*They **ought to** have more parks in the city centre.*

*We **ought to** eat lots of fruit and vegetables every day.*

We use *ought to have* + *-ed* form to talk about things that were desired or ideal in the past but which didn't happen. It can express regret:

*We **ought to have locked** the gate. Then the dog wouldn't have got out.* (The ideal or desired thing was that we locked the gate, but we didn't.)

*I often think that I **ought to have studied** medicine not pharmacy.* (I would be happier now if I had studied medicine.)

What is likely

We can use *ought to* when we talk about what is likely or probable:

*The concert **ought to** only take about two hours so we'll be home by 12 pm.*

*There **ought to** be some good films at the cinema this weekend.*

Ought to or should?

253c

Ought to and *should* are similar in meaning. *Should* is more common than *ought to*. *Ought to* is more formal than *should*:

*There **ought to** be more street lights here.* (means the same as *There **should** be more street lights here.*)

I really **ought to** walk my dog more. He's so fat. (means the same as I really **should** walk my dog more. He's so fat.)



In speaking, we normally use *should* as a tag for clauses with *ought to*:

There **ought to** be a speed limit here, **shouldn't** there? (preferred to *There ought to be a speed limit here, oughtn't there?*)

We **ought not to** have to pay for basic medicines, **should** we? (preferred to *We ought not to have to pay for basic medicines, ought we?*)

→ **Modality: introduction 207; Tags 343**

Out or out of?

254

We use *out* and *out of* to talk about position and direction.

We use *out* as an adverb to mean 'not in a building or an enclosed space':

[the speaker is outside talking to someone inside]

Don't come **out**. It's too cold.

[a phone call]

A: Is Billy there?

B: No he's **out**. (not at home)

Why's the cake **out**? Put it back in the fridge or the chocolate will melt.

We use *out of* as a preposition to talk about movement from within somewhere or something, usually with a verb that expresses movement (e.g. *go*, *come*). It shows where something is or was going:

You go **out of** the building and turn right.

He pulled a letter **out of** his shirt pocket, opened it and handed it to her to read.

When I reached the corner, I jumped **out of** my car and ran across the road.

Out is the opposite of *in*. *Out of* is the opposite of *into*:



We use *out* as a verb particle in phrasal verbs:

Look **out** there's a car coming.

I thought I'd phone and find **out** how you are.

Out of: all gone

We use *out of* to say that something is all gone:

The printer is **out of** ink. We need to get some soon.

[at a restaurant]

I'm afraid, we're **out of** soup.

You will find other meanings of *out* in a good learner's dictionary.

Over**255**

Over is a preposition, adverb, adjective or prefix.

Over as a preposition**255a****Over for movement and position**

We use *over* to talk about movement or position at a higher level than something else:

*A beautiful white bird flew **over** the lake.*

*With an umbrella **over** my head, I was able to protect myself from the midday sun.*

We can also use *over* when talking about movement across a surface:

*A small boat came **over** the lake and approached our cottage.*

*Shall we go **over** the road and see if there's a bank on the other side?*

Over and all over

We can use *over*, and the stronger form *all over*, when something is covering something:

*You can buy a plastic cover to put **over** your computer if you're worried about dust.*

*He had mud **all over** his face.*

Over for periods of time

We can use *over* to refer to extended periods of time:

***Over** a period of three centuries, very little changed in the pattern of life for the poorest people.*

*What are you doing **over** the summer holidays? Are you going away?*

Over with numbers

Over means 'more than' a particular number, or limit:

*There were **over** 100 people at the lecture.*

*If your hand baggage weighs **over** 10 kilos, you must check it in.*

*She couldn't enter the competition. She was **over** the age limit.*

Over as an adverb**255b**

We can use *over* as an adverb to talk about movement above something or someone:

*We were sitting in the garden and a huge flock of geese flew **over**. It was beautiful.*

Over as an adverb can mean 'to someone's house':

*Would you like to come **over** and have dinner one evening? (to the speaker's house)*

Over and over (adverb phrase)

Over and over means 'repeatedly', 'many times'. It often refers to things which people do not want to happen:

[adult to a little child]

*Stop it! I've told you **over and over** not to play with the radio!*

Over as an adjective: *be over*

255c

We can use *be over* to mean 'finished', 'at an end':

*We were so late that, when we got to the cinema, the film was **over**.*

Over as a prefix

255d

We can use *over* as a prefix to mean 'too much'. We connect *over* to the word which comes after it, sometimes with a hyphen after *over*:

*That new restaurant is **overpriced** if you ask me.* (the meals are too expensive)

*I didn't enjoy the play. It was a student production, and everyone seemed to be **overacting**.*

These are the main meanings of *over* but you will find other meanings and phrasal verbs with *over* in a good learner's dictionary.

→ Above 3; Under 353

Over: typical errors

255e

- *Over*, when used with periods of time, refers to the period from start to finish, not to any one moment during that time:

*I arrived **during** the afternoon.*

Not: I ~~arrived over~~ the afternoon.

- *Over* as a prefix meaning 'too much' is connected to the word that comes after it, sometimes with a hyphen; we don't write two separate words:

*The nightclub was **overcrowded**.*

Not: The nightclub was ~~over~~ crowded.

Own

256

Own is a determiner and a pronoun.

Own emphasises that a thing belongs to a particular person, or was done by them. We always use a possessive form before *own*.

Own as a determiner

We can use *own* as a determiner after a possessive determiner (e.g. *my*, *her*, *our*) or after a possessive noun phrase with 's:

*I never sleep well in hotels. I always sleep best in **my own** bed at home.*

*That garden wall is all **Jason's own** work. He spent several weekends building it.*

Own as a pronoun

We can use *own* as a pronoun after a possessive determiner (e.g. *my, his, their*). We often use it in the pattern *noun + of + possessive determiner + own*:

This is my wife's laptop. My own is being repaired.

Did you have a flat of your own when you were a student, or did you share?

Own: very own

We can emphasise *own* by using *very*:

When I was eight, we moved to a bigger house and I got my very own room and didn't have to share with my sister any more.

Own: on my own

On my own, on your own, on our own, etc. mean 'alone' or 'without help from another person'. They are less formal than *alone*. We can emphasise them by using *all*:

She lives on her own in a tiny flat. (alone)

Nobody helped him build his boat. He did it all on his own. (without help from anyone)

Typical error

- We don't use articles (*a/an, the*) before *own*:

As soon as teenagers reach the age of seventeen, they want their own car. They don't want to depend on mum and dad any more.

Not: ... ~~they want the own car.~~ or ... ~~they want an own car.~~

Passive

257

Passive: active and passive

257a

We use the terms *active voice* and *passive voice* to talk about ways of organising the content of a clause:

Cambridge University Press published this book. (active)

This book was published by Cambridge University Press. (passive)

The *active voice* is the typical word order. We put the subject (the topic or the theme) first. The subject is the 'doer' or agent of the verb:

Edward Barnes designed these houses in the 1880s. (active)

In the *passive*, the person or thing that the action was done to becomes the topic or theme. We can leave out the 'doer' or agent, or we can place the 'doer' in a prepositional phrase (*by* + 'doer'):

These houses were designed in the 1880s. (passive without agent)

These houses were designed in the 1880s by Edward Barnes. (passive + by + agent)

We use the *passive* when we want to change the focus of a clause, or if the doer of the verb is not important or not known or if we do not want to say who the doer is.

Passive: forms

257b

Be + -ed

The most common passive structure is *be + -ed* form:

*Five million people **watch** the show every week.* (active present simple of *watch*)

*The show **is watched** by five million people every week.* (passive present simple of *be + -ed* form of *watch*)

The table gives examples of the most common forms in the passive.

tense	be form			examples
present simple	am are is		+ -ed form	<i>Am I invited too?</i> <i>One or two new types of insect are found in Britain each year.</i> <i>It's not made in China.</i>
present continuous	am are is	being		<i>Am I being recorded?</i> <i>We're already being served, thanks.</i> <i>That computer isn't being used any more.</i>
past simple	was were			<i>The story was reported in yesterday's paper.</i> <i>We didn't know what was in the boxes.</i> <i>They weren't labelled.</i>
past continuous	was were	being		<i>Was he being examined?</i> <i>They were being watched carefully.</i>
present perfect simple	have has	been		<i>Haven't they been asked to the wedding?</i> <i>He's been hurt.</i>
past perfect simple	had	been		<i>An important discovery had been made.</i> <i>Had he been injured in the war?</i>
modal simple	can will might	be		<i>Reservations can be accepted up to 24 hours before arrival.</i> <i>I don't think I'll ever be paid.</i> <i>Might we not be allowed to go in?</i>
modal continuous	could may must	be being		<i>She couldn't still be being interviewed.</i> <i>The photocopier may be being repaired.</i> <i>It must be being done now.</i>
modal perfect simple	could must	have been		<i>Do you think we could have been heard?</i> <i>The document must have been written when they sold the house.</i>

Tenses and the passive

We use passive forms of tenses in the same way as we use their active equivalents. For example, we use the present simple in the passive to talk about general or permanent states, or general facts we think are true at the present time:

*Mr Lloyd and Mrs James **teach** Geography.* (present simple active)

*Geography **is taught** by Mr Lloyd and Mrs James.* (present simple passive)

We don't often use perfect continuous forms (*have/has been being* + *-ed* form) in a passive structure. We usually find a way to reword sentences like this.

↔ Compare

<i>The house has been being renovated for almost a year.</i>	not common, we usually avoid this form
<i>They have been renovating the house for almost a year.</i>	preferred form

→ They 290b

Verbs and the passive

We can form passive structures with verbs that are followed by an object (transitive verbs) and some clauses where the verb is followed by a preposition:

*My favourite mug **was broken**.* (Someone broke my favourite mug.)

*Their car **was broken into** and the radio **was taken**.* (Someone broke into their car and took their radio.)

*The holiday **hasn't been paid for** yet.* (No one has paid for the holiday yet.)

We can't make passive forms from verbs which do not have objects (intransitive verbs):

*The parcel **arrived** in the post this morning.*

Not: The parcel ~~was arrived~~ ...

We don't usually use the passive with some verbs that describe a state or situation (state verbs):

*They **were having** lunch.*

Not: Lunch ~~was being had~~.

Some verbs are more common in the passive than the active voice. These include *be born*, *be populated*, *be stranded*, *be taken aback*:

*Where **were** you **born**?*

*Thousands of passengers **have been stranded** at airports all over Europe after heavy snowfalls.*

Verbs with two objects

When verbs have two objects, either object can be the theme or subject of the passive structure, depending on what we want to focus on:

*Her mother **gave** each child a present. (active)*

*A present **was given** to each child (by her mother). (passive)*

*Each child **was given** a present (by her mother). (passive)*

Linking verbs

We don't form passive structures with verbs like *be*, *become*, *seem* where the complement of the verb refers back to the subject (linking verbs):

*After six years of training she **has finally become** a doctor.*

Passives with an agent

257c

We use the preposition *by* to introduce the doer or the agent of the action. We use this structure when the agent is important:

*Mr Ward **has been arrested by the FBI**.*

*The community **was destroyed by a flood** in 1862.*

When the subject of the passive clause is not the real agent of the verb, we use other prepositions in passive structures:

*I'd been decorating the bedroom and I **was covered in paint**. (Paint isn't the real agent; I am the agent; I was painting.)*

When the doer or agent of the action is an instrument, we use *with*:

*The door **was smashed open with a hammer**.*

Passives without an agent

257d

Passive structures without an agent are very common. We use these structures when an agent is not important, or is unknown or obvious:

*All applications **must be received** before 31 July.*

*The data **was analysed** and the results **have just been published**.*

*I walked to work. The car's **being repaired**.*

It and there

We often use an impersonal expression with *it* or *there* when the agent is not important:

*It **was decided** to charge £10 per ticket.*

*It **has been estimated** that in Tanzania one elephant in three is an orphan.*

*There **were** no comments **given** about the proposal and no decisions **made**. (No comments were given ... no decisions were made.)*

→ It 184; There is, there's and there are 347

Passive: uses

257e

Using the passive allows the speaker or writer to make choices about what is important.

We use the passive for different reasons. We sometimes use it to give focus to something. We can also use it because we don't know the identity of the 'doer' or

because it's not important to know who or what did the action. In addition, we use it to be impersonal and create distance.

We often use passives without agents in academic and technical contexts when the process or actions are more significant than who or what did them:

*A sample **was taken and injected** into a tube.*

*In this study, children's eye movements **were recorded** while they listened to a series of messages.*

We often use passive forms of reporting verbs (*believe, think, say, consider, find*) to create distance from personal statements and focus more on impersonal processes:

*Police are looking for a man in his 30s. He **is believed** to be dangerous.*

*In some cultures blowing your nose in public **is considered** impolite.*

When we want to give emphasis to something new, we can begin with something which is already known and put the newsworthy or important item at the end, where it can be stressed and given focus:

A: *That's a lovely chair.*

B: *Yes, it's very old. It was given to me **by my grandmother**.*

*I was made to feel very welcome **by everyone**.*

→ Word order and focus 390

Passive: other forms

257f

Other structures that have passive characteristics are the *get*-passive and *get/have something done*:

*The windows **got broken**. (Someone broke the windows.)*

*He's **getting his hair coloured**. (Someone is colouring his hair.)*

*We **had** our wooden floors **painted**. (Someone painted our wooden floors.)*

We use these structures more commonly in speaking. They are similar to the passive because the agent of the action is not the subject.

→ Get-passive 147; Have something done 157

Passive: typical errors

257g

- We don't form passive structures with intransitive verbs:

*She **died**.*

Not: *She ~~was~~ died.*

- We don't form passive structures with verbs that describe states:

*Those shoes **don't suit** the dress.*

Not: *The dress ~~isn't~~ suited by those shoes.*

- We use the past form of *be* + *born* to talk about someone's birth:

*She **was born** at home.*

Not: *She ~~is~~ born at home.*

Past

258

There are a number of ways of talking about the past:

- We **talked** for hours on the phone. (past simple)
- She **was running** to catch the bus. (past continuous)
- I've **cleaned** the kitchen. (present perfect simple)
- I've **been painting**. (present perfect continuous)
- I'd **paid** by credit card. (past perfect simple)
- I'd **been reading** about the accident in the paper. (past perfect continuous)
- The kids **would play** in the garden in the summer evenings and we **would sit** and talk for hours. (modal verb *would*)
- He **used to play** lots of sport when he was younger. He doesn't seem to do any exercise now. (semi-modal verb *used to*)

Past continuous (*I was working*)

259

Past continuous: form

259a

We use *was/were* + the *-ing* form of the verb.

+	I, she, he, it you, we, they	was were		working.
-	I, she, he, it you, we, they	(full form) was not were not		working.
	I, she, he, it you, we, they	(short form) wasn't weren't		
? +	Was Were	I, she, he, it you, we, they		working?
? -	(full form) Was Were	I, she, he, it you, we, they	not	working?
	(short form) Wasn't Weren't	I, she, he, it you, we, they		

There are a number of spelling rules for when we make the *-ing* form of the verb.

→Spelling 330

Past continuous: uses

259b

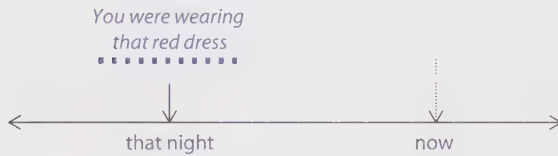
Events happening at a particular time in the past

We generally use the past continuous to talk about actions and states in progress (happening) around a particular time in the past. It can emphasise that the action or state continued for a period of time in the past:

A: *Where was Donna last night?*

B: *I'm not sure. I think she **was visiting** her family.* (action)

*I remember that night. You **were wearing** that red dress.* (state)

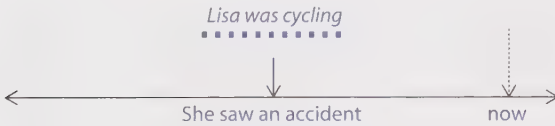


→ Past continuous or past simple? 261

Background events

When one event is more important than another in the past, we can use the past continuous for the background event (the less important event) and the past simple for the main event:

[background event] [main event]
*Lisa **was cycling** to school when **she saw** the accident.*



[background event] [main event]
*What **were you thinking about** when you **won** the race?*

→ Past continuous or past simple? 261

Reasons and contexts for events

We often use the past continuous to give a reason or context for an event:

A: *I can't believe you met Fran and Dave in Portugal.*

B: *It was funny. They **were staying** in the hotel next to ours.* (giving a reason/context for meeting them)

*I didn't make the meeting last week; I **was travelling** to Rome.*

Ongoing and repeated events

We can use the past continuous to talk about repeated background events in the past. It can suggest that the situation was temporary or subject to change:

*She **was feeding** her neighbours' cat every morning while they were on holiday. Then one morning, it was gone.*

*The neighbours **were making** so much noise, night after night. We had to complain eventually.*

! We only use the past continuous for repeated background events. If they are repeated main events, we use the past simple:

*I **phoned** you four times last night. Where were you?*

Not: *I was phoning you four times last night.*

We don't use the past continuous in the same way as *used to* when we talk about things in the past which are no longer true:

*We **used to** go on holiday to Yorkshire every year when I was little.*

Not: *We were going on holiday ...*

→Used to 357

Adverbs such as *always*, *constantly*, *forever* are used with the past continuous when we talk about repeated, unplanned or undesired events:

*We **were always spending** so much time in traffic. That's the main reason why we decided to move to the country and work from home.*

*My boss **was constantly phoning** me in my last job. I hated it.*

*She **was forever losing** her keys.*

The past continuous and definite time

We sometimes use the past continuous to refer to a definite period of past time. This usually emphasises the event continuing over a period of time:

*We **were cooking** all morning because we had 15 people coming for lunch.*

*Lots of us **were working** at the office on Saturday because we had to finish the project by Monday.*

Past simple (*I worked*)**260****Past simple: form****260a**

For regular verbs, we add *-ed* to the base form of the verb (*work-worked*) or *-d* if the verb already ends in *e* (*move-moved*).

+	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	worked.	
-	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(full form) did not	work.
	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(short form) didn't	
? +	Did <i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>		work?
? -	(full form) Did <i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	not	work?
	(short form) Didn't <i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>		

In regular one-syllable verbs with a single vowel followed by a consonant, we double the final consonant when adding *-ed* to make the past simple:

*stop: The bus **stopped** suddenly.*

*plan: Who **planned** this trip?*

→ **Spelling and verb forms 330f; Regular verbs 361b**

Past simple: pronunciation of *-ed***260b**

For regular verbs, there are three possible pronunciations of *-ed* endings.

/d/	/t/	/ɪd/
after all vowel sounds and after voiced consonants (except /d/) /m/ /n/ /ŋ/ /l/ /g/ /dʒ/ /z/ /b/ /v/	after all voiceless consonants (except /t/) /k/ /p/ /f/ /s/ /ʃ/ /tʃ/	after /d/ and /t/
<i>cried, tried, hurried, weighed, smiled, planned, judged, sneezed, lived</i>	<i>picked, hopped, laughed, crossed, pushed, watched</i>	<i>decided, ended, landed, started, visited, waited</i>

→ **Spelling and verb forms 330f**

Past simple: irregular verbs**260c**

Many verbs are irregular. Here are some common ones. Each one has to be learnt. A full list is provided on page 611.

The verb form is the same for all persons (*I, you, she, he, it, we, they*), and we make questions and negatives with irregular verbs in the same ways as for regular verbs.

irregular verb	example in the past simple
<i>be</i>	She was afraid.
<i>begin</i>	The meal began with soup.
<i>come</i>	Everyone came to my house for the weekend.
<i>do</i>	Look what I did !
<i>eat</i>	The birds ate all of the bread.
<i>fly</i>	We flew from New York to Mexico City.
<i>have</i>	She had such a good time.
<i>know</i>	We knew each other well in college.
<i>read</i>	I read that book last year. (/red/)
<i>sing</i>	Her sister sang a beautiful song at the party.
<i>tell</i>	He told me a funny story.
<i>wake</i>	When she woke up, it was already 1 pm!
<i>write</i>	I wrote him an email to explain why I couldn't meet him.

→ Irregular verbs 361c; Verbs 360

Past simple: uses**260d****Definite time in the past**

We use the past simple to talk about definite time in the past (often we specify when something happened, e.g. *yesterday, three weeks ago, last year, when I was young*):

*Did you **watch** that film yesterday?*

*He **left** at the end of November.*

*When they were young, they **hated** meat.*

→ Present simple 279

Single or habitual events or states

We use the past simple to talk about single or regular (habitual) events or states in the past.

Events that happened once	He fell off his bike and his friends took him to a doctor. She ran out and she phoned my brother.
Events that happened more than once	They travelled to Italy every summer and always stayed in small villages on the coast. As children, we played all kinds of games on the street.
States	She looked a bit upset. <i>Did you feel afraid?</i>

When we use the past simple to refer to habitual events, the meaning is similar to *used to*:

*I **did** a lot of travelling when I was younger. (or I **used to do** a lot of travelling when I was younger.)*

→ *Used to or would?* 357b

The past simple with no time reference

Sometimes there is no time expression when the past simple is used. This happens especially when we know the time:

*Leonardo Da Vinci **Painted** the Mona Lisa.* (From our general knowledge, we know that Leonardo Da Vinci painted the Mona Lisa a few hundred years ago.)

↔ *Compare*

<i>Do you know Grace? She was in my class at primary school.</i>	<i>Do you know Grace? She was in my class at primary school in the 70s.</i>
Past simple without a definite time reference: both speakers know when this time was and do not need to say it. They know each other well.	Past simple with a definite time reference: the speaker is not sure if the listener knows when she was at primary school.

Past simple and the order of events

When one past event happens after another, the first one mentioned in the past simple happened first and the second one happened next, and so on. If we change the order of the verbs, this changes the meaning.

↔ *Compare*

[event 1] [event 2] <i>I turned off the light and got into bed.</i>	The first event in the past simple happened first. The second event in the past simple happened second, and so on.
[event 1] [event 2] <i>I got into bed and turned off the light.</i>	

Past continuous or past simple?

261

Past continuous = *I was working*

Past simple = *I worked*

Choice of emphasis

Often there is little difference between the past continuous and the past simple, except that the past continuous suggests that the event(s) were in progress at a time in the past or that they were happening as background or temporary events. Whether we choose to use the past continuous or past simple often depends on how we see the past event(s).

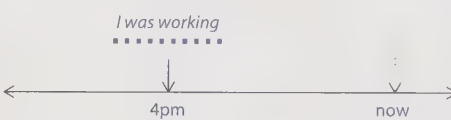
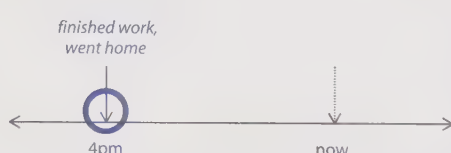
↔ Compare

Doctors were treating patients in temporary beds and they were trying to do their best in a difficult situation.	Past continuous: writer chooses to show the events as ongoing at that time in the past.
Doctors treated patients in temporary beds and they tried to do their best in a difficult situation.	Past simple: writer chooses to show the events as finished.

Events in progress in the past

We use the past continuous to talk about events and temporary states that were in progress around a certain time in the past. We use the past simple to talk about events, states or habits at definite times in the past.

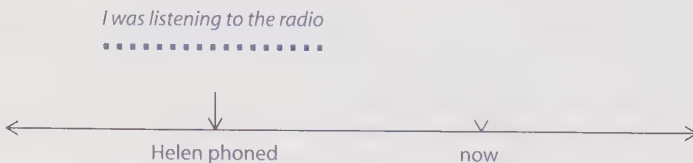
↔ Compare

At 4 pm last Tuesday, I was working in the office. 	The past continuous emphasises the action or event in progress around a time in the past. The event (<i>working</i>) was in progress at 4 pm. The event was not completed at that time.
At 4 pm last Monday, I finished work early and went home. 	The past simple emphasises the event that happened at a definite time in the past. The focus is not on events in progress but rather on the whole events (<i>finished work, went home</i>). The events were completed at that time.

Emphasising main events with the past simple

When one event is more important than the other in the past, we can use the past simple to emphasise the main event. We can use the past continuous for the background event (the less important one):

[background event] [main event]
I was listening to the radio when Helen phoned.



[background event] [main event]
I was sitting in the park and suddenly I saw an old school friend I hadn't seen for 30 years.

→ Past continuous 259; Past simple 260; Future in the past 140; Reported speech 312

Past perfect continuous (*I had been working*) 262

Past perfect continuous: form 262a

We use *had + been + the -ing form of the verb*.

+	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(full form) had	been working.
	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(short form) 'd	
-	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(full form) had not	been working.
	<i>I, she, he, it, you, we, they</i>	(short form) hadn't	
? +	Had I, she, he, it, you, we, they		been working?
? -	(full form) Had I, she, he, it, you, we, they	not	been working?
	(short form) Hadn't I, she, he, it, you, we, they		

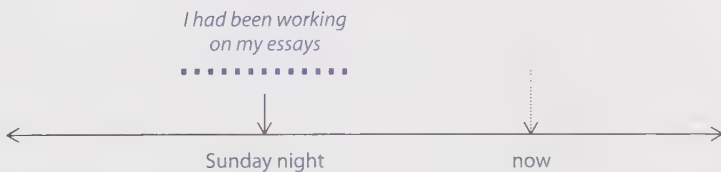
→ Verbs: basic forms 361; Regular verbs 361b; Irregular verbs 361c

Past perfect continuous: uses 262b

Continuing events in the past

We use the past perfect continuous to talk about actions or events which started before a particular time in the past and were still in progress up to that time in the past:

*It was so difficult to get up last Monday for school. I **had been working** on my essays the night before and I was very tired.* (The past perfect continuous focuses on the activity of working on the essays up to a particular time in the past.)



A: *Why did you decide to go travelling for a year?*

B: Well, I'd **been reading** an amazing book about a woman who rode a horse around South America. I was just halfway through the book when I decided I had to go travelling and that was it. I just took a year out of work and went. (The past perfect continuous focuses on the activity of reading the book at the time when she made her decision. She hadn't finished the book when she made her decision.)

We can use the past perfect continuous to talk about events which started before a time in the past and which finished, but where the effects or results were still important at a point in the past:

*It **had been raining** and the ground was still wet.*

→Past perfect simple or past perfect continuous? 264

Past perfect simple (I had worked) 263

Past perfect simple: form 263a

We use *had* + the *-ed* form of the verb.

+	I, she, he, it, you, we, they	(full form) had	worked.
	I, she, he, it, you, we, they	(short form) 'd	
-	I, she, he, it, you, we, they	(full form) had not	worked.
	I, she, he, it, you, we, they	(short form) hadn't	
? +	Had I, she, he, it, you, we, they		worked?
? -	(full form) Had I, she, he, it, you, we, they	not	worked?
	(short form) Hadn't I, she, he, it, you, we, they		

→Verbs: basic forms 361; Regular verbs 361b; Irregular verbs 361c

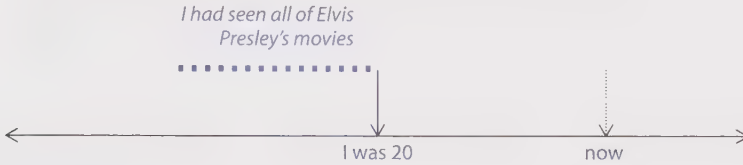
Past perfect simple: uses

263b

Time up to then

The past perfect refers to time up to a point in the past (time up to then), just as the present perfect refers to something that happened in the time up to the moment of speaking (time up to now):

I'd seen all of Elvis Presley's movies by the time I was 20!



↔ Compare

Past perfect:

'time up to then' (2001).

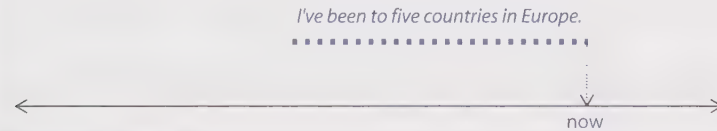
I'd been to five countries in Europe by 2001.



Present perfect:

'time up to now'.

I've been to five countries in Europe.



→ Present perfect simple 284

Reported clauses

We commonly use the past perfect in reported clauses where the reporting verb (underlined> is in the past:

"Mr Hammond drove through a red light."

*The policeman said Mr Hammond **had driven** through a red light.*

*No one told me that the shop **had closed**.*

*I phoned Katie and she said the kids **had had** a day off school so she'd **taken** them ice skating.*

We also use the past perfect when the reporting verb is a verb of perception and is in the past tense:

*My Dad was really angry because he heard I **hadn't come** home until 3 am!*

*I **saw** she'd **bought** the DVD so I asked if I **could** borrow it.*

*The doctor **felt** my mother **had got** worse since last week.*

Talking about changed states

We often use the past perfect to refer to situations which have changed. In speaking, **had** is often stressed:

A: *Are you going anywhere today?*

B: *I **had planned** to go to the beach but look at the rain! (had is stressed; the meaning is 'I have now changed my mind')*

*I'm very happy working as an engineer but I **had wanted** to be an actor when I was younger.*

The past perfect in conditional clauses

We must use the past perfect when we imagine a different past in a clause with **if**:

*I would have helped to paint the house if you'd **asked** me. (You didn't ask me.)*

*Sarah couldn't come with us to the cinema. She would have loved it if she **had been** there. (She wasn't there.)*

! We don't use the past perfect in the main clause of a conditional sentence. It is only used in the conditional clause:

[conditional clause] [main clause]

*If we **had seen** you walking, we **would have stopped** to give you a lift.*

Not: *If we ~~had seen~~ you walking, we ~~had stopped~~ ...*

→ Conditionals 84

Past perfect simple or past perfect continuous? 264

Past perfect simple = *I had worked* Past perfect continuous = *I had been working*

We use the past perfect simple with action verbs to emphasise the completion of an event. We use the past perfect continuous to show that an event or action in the past was still continuing.

↔ Compare

<i>The builders had put up the scaffolding around the house.</i>	Past perfect simple emphasises the completion of the action (the scaffolding is up).
<i>The builders had been putting up the scaffolding when the roof fell in.</i>	Past perfect continuous emphasises a continuing or ongoing action.

We use the past perfect simple to refer to the completion of an activity and the past perfect continuous to focus on the activity and duration of the activity.

↔ Compare

<i>I'd waited an hour for the bus.</i>	Past perfect simple emphasises the completion of the activity (the waiting is over).
<i>I'd been waiting an hour for the bus.</i>	Past perfect continuous focuses on the duration of the activity.

The past perfect simple suggests something more permanent than the past perfect continuous, which can imply that something is temporary.

↔ Compare

<i>She'd always lived with her parents.</i>	We don't know how long.
<i>She'd been living with her parents.</i>	Suggests a temporary situation.

Some verbs are not used very often in the continuous form.

We don't use the continuous form with some verbs of mental process (*know, like, understand, believe*) and verbs of the senses (*hear, smell, taste*):

We'd known for a long time that the company was going to close.

Not: *We'd been knowing ...*

We'd tasted the milk and had decided it was bad, so we threw it away.

Not: *We'd been tasting the milk ...*

We don't use the continuous form with actions that are completed at a single point in time (*start, stop*):

Had they started the game on time?

Not: *Had they been starting the game on time?*

Past perfect simple or past simple? 265

Past perfect simple: *I had seen* Past simple: *I saw*

The past perfect simple is used to sequence events in the past to show which event happened first.

↔ Compare

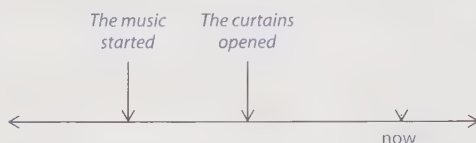
The music started when the curtains opened.

The music started and the curtains opened

now

Past simple + past simple: the music started at the same time as the curtains opened.

The music **had** (already) **started** when the curtains **opened**.



Past perfect simple + past simple: the music started and then the curtains opened.

The past simple often suggests a stronger connection between the time of the two events.

↔ Compare

When she **came** through the door, everyone **shouted**, 'Surprise! Happy Birthday!'.

Past simple + past simple: this sentence shows that as she came through the door, everyone immediately shouted 'Surprise!'.

When she **had read** all the greetings cards, she **made** a short thank-you speech.

Past perfect simple + past simple: this sentence emphasises that she had finished reading the cards before she made her speech.

→ Past perfect simple 263; Past simple 260

Past simple or present perfect?

266

Past simple = *I worked*

Present perfect = *I have worked*

Definite time in the past

266a

We use the past simple to refer to definite time in the past (when we specify the time or how long) and usually with past time expressions such as *yesterday*, *two weeks ago*, *last year*, *in 1995*:

We **met** in January 1975. We **went** to America together in 1978.

Not: We have met in January 1975. We have gone to America together in 1978.

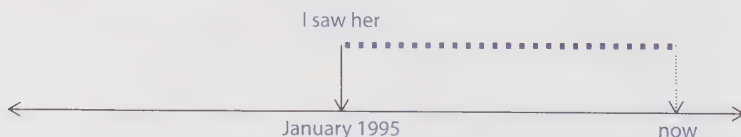
Time up to now

266b

We use the present perfect to talk about time up to now, that is, events that took place in the past but which connect with the present. The present perfect is often used with time expressions which indicate time up to now, for example *today*, *this year*, *in the last six months*:

I **haven't seen** her since January 1995.

Not: I didn't see her since January 1995.



↔ Compare

<i>I haven't seen her for over 20 years.</i>	The last time I saw her was over 20 years ago.
<i>I didn't see her for over 20 years and then I bumped into her last week.</i>	I saw her last week but the last time I saw her before last week was over 20 years ago.

↔ Compare

<i>I finished my homework an hour ago.</i> A horizontal timeline with arrows at both ends. A vertical arrow points down to the timeline at a point labeled '1 hour ago'. Another vertical arrow points down to the timeline further to the right, labeled 'now'. A dotted line connects the two points, with '1 hour' written above it. Above the first point, it says 'I finished my homework'.	Definite time in the past. I finished my homework at a time in the past (one hour ago).
<i>I haven't finished my homework yet.</i> A horizontal timeline with arrows at both ends. A vertical arrow points down to the timeline at a point labeled 'I started my homework'. Another vertical arrow points down to the timeline further to the right, labeled 'now'. A dotted line connects the two points, with 'I'm still doing my homework' written above it.	From a time in the past up to now. I started my homework at a time in the past and it is not finished yet (<i>yet</i> means 'up to now').
<i>We had a good day yesterday.</i>	Definite time in the past. We had a good day in the past (yesterday).
<i>We have had a good day so far.</i>	From a time in the past up to now. The day has been good until now but it hasn't finished yet.
<i>We didn't see Diana last week.</i>	Definite time in the past (last week).
<i>We haven't seen Diana this week.</i>	From the beginning of the week until now.
<i>I didn't have any lunch today.</i>	Today is not finished but it is almost the end of the day and past lunchtime.
<i>I haven't had any lunch today.</i>	It is still today and not too late to have lunch.

→ Present perfect simple 284

Past verb forms referring to the present

267

Being polite or less direct

267a

We sometimes use a past verb form to talk about present time, in order to be more polite or less direct:

*I **thought** you might like to know that Linda has been promoted.*

*We **were hoping** you'd stay for dinner.*

***Would** you **give** these to Richard, please? (more polite/less direct than *Will you give these to Richard, please?*)*

Conditional and hypothetical structures with *if*, *what if*, *wish* and *supposing* often use past forms with a present meaning:

*If James **was** here now, he'd know what to do.*

*What if we **left** now instead of later, would we avoid the rush-hour traffic?*

*I wish I **had** more time. I could stay and help you.*

*Supposing you **were** married. Where would you be living now, here or somewhere else?*

→ Conditionals 84; Conjunctions 88; Politeness: making what we say less direct 271b

Things in the past that are still true

267b

Sometimes we use past verb forms to refer to things which were true or which happened in the past, even when they are still true now:

A: *That woman at the party last night **was** Russian.*

B: *I thought so.*

*He went for an interview for the airforce the other day but he didn't get in because his eyesight **wasn't** good enough.*

It's time ...

We use the expression *it's time ...* to refer to the present moment with a past verb form:

*It's eleven-thirty. **It's time I went to bed.***

Not: *It's time I go to bed.*

→ *It's time* ○

Past: typical errors

268

- We use the past simple, not the past continuous, to talk about past habits:

*I **walked** to school every day when I was young.*

Not: *I was walking to school every day ...*

- We use the past simple, not the past continuous, to emphasise completed events at a specific time in the past:

*I **called** her office at 4 o'clock yesterday afternoon.*

Not: *I was calling her office at 4 o'clock yesterday afternoon.*

- We use the past simple to refer to a definite time in the past, not the present perfect or the past perfect:

*I **woke up** at seven o'clock this morning.*

Not: ~~*I've woken up at seven o'clock this morning.*~~

- We use the present perfect, not the past simple, to refer to time up to now:

*I **haven't paid** my electricity bill yet.*

Not: ~~*I didn't pay my electricity bill yet.*~~

- We use the past simple, not the past continuous, to refer to repeated main events. We only use the past continuous for repeated background events:

*He **cycled** to Claire's house last night.* (main event)

Not: ~~*He was cycling to Claire's house last night.*~~ (We see this as the background event and expect to hear the main event following it.)

- We don't use the past continuous in the same way as *used to* when we refer to things in the past which are no longer true:

*We **used to have** picnics in the park in the summer.*

Not: ~~*We were having picnics in the park in the summer.*~~

- We don't use the past perfect in the main clause of a conditional sentence. It is only used in the conditional clause:

[conditional clause] [main clause]

*If we **had known** you were alone, we **would have visited** you.*

Not: ~~*If we had known you were alone, we had visited you.*~~

Perfect infinitive with *to* (*to have worked*) 269

We form the perfect infinitive with *to have* + the *-ed* form of a verb. We use the perfect infinitive after verbs such as *claim*, *expect*, *hate*, *hope*, *like*, *love*, *prefer*, *pretend*:

*He pretended **to have lost** her number and so had been unable to contact her.* (or *He pretended **that he had lost** her number ...*)

The perfect infinitive often refers to things that might have happened in the past:

*She claims **to have met** a number of famous people, but I don't believe her.* (or *She claims **she has met** ...*)

*I would prefer **to have stayed** at a small, family-run hotel than a big international chain.* (I prefer to stay at small hotels, but I did not.)

The perfect infinitive can refer to something that will be completed at a point in the future:

*We hope **to have finished** the building works by the end of March.*

We can use the perfect infinitive in a clause with a verb that has no subject (a non-finite clause). It can refer to events which did happen in the past or to events that might have happened (but did not happen):

***To have got** the job in the face of such stiff competition was a great achievement.*
(The person did get the job.)

To have won the race would have been fantastic, but even coming second was a great achievement. (The person did not win the race.)

→ Non-finite clauses 69b

Piece words and group words 270

Piece words 270a

Piece words make it possible to talk about a single unit or units of something which is seen as uncountable. Piece words include words such as *piece*, *bit*, *item*, *article*. We normally use them with *of*. We can use them in the singular or the plural.

↔ Compare

uncountable noun	uncountable use	with a piece word
information	We need information about trains to Moscow.	She told me an interesting piece of information .
news	Do you have any news for us?	He told me a bit of news that shocked me.
furniture	We're going to buy new furniture .	Two items of furniture were sold for more than £50,000 at the sale.
clothing	The workers all wore protective clothing .	The police found an article of clothing and some money.

The piece words combine (collocate) with nouns in different ways. Here are the most common combinations. The piece words are arranged from the least formal (*bit*) to the most formal (*article*).

	piece word	common combinations
least formal ↓ most formal	bit of	fun, luck, time, work, paper, information, bread, money, news, gossip
	piece of	paper, software, information, work, writing, furniture, wood, equipment, music, cloth, land
	item of	clothing, equipment, furniture, food, information, interest, business, jewellery, news
	article of	furniture, clothing (article is the least common piece word and is rather formal. It combines mostly with these two nouns).

This is **a new piece of equipment** which helps rescuers find earthquake victims trapped in buildings.

Not: ... a new equipment ...

I had **a bit of luck** the other day – an old friend offered me a job!

Not: I had a luck ...

Three **items of jewellery** were stolen from Miss Hart's dressing-room.

Every **article of clothing** must be marked with the child's name.

There are also more specific piece words which combine with particular nouns:

a **drop** of water, a **drop** of milk, a **slice** of bread, a **loaf** of bread, a **bar** of chocolate, a **bar** of soap, a **pinch** of salt

You will find these and more examples in a good learner's dictionary.

Group words

270b

Group words (sometimes called collective nouns) are nouns which refer to groups of people, animals or things. There are special group words for particular combinations of people, animals and things:

group word	common combinations
<i>bunch</i>	<i>flowers</i> (and types of flowers such as <i>roses</i> , <i>tulips</i>), <i>grapes</i> , <i>cherries</i> (and other similar fruit), <i>keys</i>
<i>crowd</i>	<i>people</i> , <i>onlookers</i> , <i>admirers</i> , <i>protesters</i> , <i>shoppers</i>
<i>flock</i>	<i>sheep</i> , <i>birds</i> (and types of birds such as <i>pigeons</i> , <i>geese</i>)
<i>gang</i>	<i>workers</i> , <i>kids</i> , <i>youths</i> , <i>teenagers</i> , <i>thieves</i> , <i>criminals</i>
<i>group</i>	(can be used with most nouns)
<i>herd</i>	<i>sheep</i> , <i>cattle</i> , <i>cows</i> , <i>goats</i> (and similar animals)
<i>pack</i>	<i>wolves</i> , <i>dogs</i> , <i>hyenas</i> , <i>cards</i> , <i>lies</i>
<i>set</i>	<i>glasses</i> , <i>cups</i> , <i>plates</i> , <i>keys</i> , <i>tools</i> (and other objects which form a group because they share the same features), <i>rules</i> , <i>standards</i>
<i>shoal</i>	<i>fish</i> (and types of fish such as <i>herring</i> , <i>cod</i>)
<i>swarm</i>	<i>bees</i> , <i>flies</i> , <i>ants</i> (and other insects)
<i>team</i>	<i>scientists</i> , <i>researchers</i> , <i>experts</i> , <i>designers</i> , <i>detectives</i>

Group words take a singular verb when they are used in the singular, and a plural verb when they are used in the plural:

A **team of experts** **was** called in to investigate the problem.

There **was** a **flock of about 30 sheep** in the field.

Gangs of youths **were** fighting one another in the streets.

There **were** **swarms of flies** everywhere.

Sometimes, singular group words are followed by a plural verb, but some people may consider this to be incorrect:

*The committee produced **a set of rules** that **were** intended to prevent people from abusing the system. (or ... **a set of rules** that **was** intended ...)*

*I found **a bunch of keys** on the floor. **Are they** yours?*

Politeness

271

Politeness is about keeping good relations with your listener or reader. There are two types of politeness

- showing the listener or reader that you value and respect them.
- changing or softening what you say so as not to be too direct or forceful.

Politeness: showing respect

271a

There are many ways in which we can show that we value and respect our listener or reader. In more formal situations, we are especially careful to use certain polite phrases:

[addressing an audience]

Ladies and gentlemen, please welcome Mr Patrick Murphy ...

[a waiter in a restaurant]

May I take your plate, sir?

[a message in a thank-you card]

Thank you for your wonderful gift.

[asking a stranger for directions]

Excuse me, I'm looking for Cathedral Street.

Not: ~~Where's Cathedral Street?~~

In formal contexts when we don't know people and we want to show respect, we use titles such as *Mr* + family name, *Ms* + family name, *sir*, *madam*, *doctor (Dr)*, *professor (Prof.)*:

[checking out at a hotel reception desk]

A: **Here's your credit card, Mr Watts. Have a safe trip.**

B: **Thank you.**

[at a restaurant]

Shall I take your coat, Madam?

[emailing a professor that you don't know]

Dear **Prof. Kinsella** ...

Not: ~~Hi John ...~~

→ Names and titles: addressing people

Politeness: making what we say less direct

271b

When we speak and write, we usually try not to be too direct. There are a number of ways in which we can do this.

Softening words (hedges)

We can use softening words or hedges to make what we say softer.

↔ Compare

softer	more direct
<i>It's kind of cold in here, isn't it? Could we close the window?</i>	<i>It's cold in here. Let's close the window.</i>
<i>Could you just turn the radio down a little, please?</i>	<i>Turn down the radio. (The imperative is very direct when used in requests.)</i>
<i>Your playing could possibly be improved. [giving someone criticism on their musical performance] You may need to spend more time working a little bit on the rhythm.</i>	<i>You must improve your playing. You need to spend more time working on the rhythm.</i>

→ Requests 316; Hedges 162

Vague language

We use vague language to make times and quantities sound less direct and more approximate:

A: *Are you coming for dinner tomorrow night?*

B: *Absolutely. What time is best for you?*

A: ***Any time around eight** would be perfect.*

*It's **about seven o'clock** so **I think** we should be leaving **soon**. (less direct than *It's seven o'clock so we should be leaving now.*)*

A: *What colour is your dress?*

B: *It's **kind of** green and brown, with **a few** gold buttons on the front.*

→ Vague expressions 359

Modal expressions

We can use certain modal verbs, especially the past forms of the modal verbs *can*, *may*, *shall* and *will* (*could*, *might*, *should* and *would*), to be more polite or less direct. We can also use other modal expressions (*certainly*, *possibility*, *be likely to*, *be supposed to be*). We often do this when we ask for something or ask someone to do something:

***Might** I ask if you are related to Mrs Bowdon? (rather formal and more polite/less direct than *May I ask ... ?*)*

***Would** you follow me, please, sir? (more polite/less direct than *Will you follow me ... ?*)*

***Would** you mind moving your car, please?*

A: ***Could** you take a look at my laptop? *It's taking so long to start up.**

B: *Well I'll **certainly** take a look. Is there a **possibility** that it might have a virus?*

A: *Well, the anti-virus is **supposed to be up** to date.*

*You **are likely** to feel stressed before your exam.* (less direct than *You will feel stressed before your exam.*)

→ **Modality: introduction 207; Modal expressions with be 53d; Please and thank you 6; Requests 316**

Changing tenses and verb forms

Sometimes we use a past verb form when we refer to present time, in order to be more polite or less direct. We often do this with verbs such as *hope*, *think*, *want* and *wonder*. The verb may be in the past simple, or, for extra politeness, in the past continuous:

A: *Where's the key to the back door?*

B: *I **was hoping** you **had** it.* (less direct than *I hope you have it.*)

*I **thought** you might want to rest for a while since it's been a long day.*

*I **wanted** to ask you a question.*

*I **am having** problems with my internet connection and I **was just wondering** if you could tell me how to fix it.* (less direct and forceful than *I have a problem with my internet connection and I wonder if you could tell me how to fix it.*)

! In formal contexts, we sometimes use past forms in questions, invitations and requests in the present so as to sound more polite:

***Did** you **want** another coffee?*

*I **thought** you might like some help.*

*We **were** rather **hoping** that you would stay with us.*

In shops and other service situations, servers often use past verb forms to be polite:

Assistant: *What **was** the name please?*

Customer: *Perry, P-E-R-R-Y.*

Assistant: ***Did** you **need** any help, madam?*

Customer: *No, thanks. I'm just looking.*

→ **Past verb forms referring to the present 267**

If and politeness

In speaking, we often use *if* followed by *will*, *would*, *can* or *could* to introduce a polite request:

***If** we can move on to the next point for discussion.* (more polite than *Can we move on ...*)

***If** I could just say one more thing ...* (more polite than *Listen to me, I want to say something.*)

***If** you will follow me, please.* (more polite than *Follow me, please.*)

We use other expressions with *if* to express politeness: *if you don't mind*, *if it's OK with you*, *if I may say so*, *if it'll help*:

***If you don't mind**, I think I need that cup of tea.*

*I'll stay here, **if it's OK with you**.*

Two-step questions

In speaking, we sometimes ask two questions rather than one so as to be less direct. The first question is an introduction for the listener and the second one asks a more specific question:

A: *Do you like sport? I mean, do you play sport?*

B: *Yeah. I play basketball. I'm on the school team.*

The first question introduces the topic of sport; the second one asks a more specific question about it. The listener answers the second question.

We sometimes use *yes-no* questions one after the other:

A: *Is this your pen?*

B: *Yes, that's mine.*

A: *Do you mind if I borrow it for a minute?*

B: *Not at all.*

This is less direct than asking *Can I borrow this pen?* as a question on its own.

→ Questions: two-step questions 302

Using names

We can make what we say more polite and less direct by using a person's name:

What's the time, John? (less direct than *What's the time?*)

I'm not sure I agree with you, Liam. (less direct than *I'm not sure I agree with you.*)

→ Names and titles: addressing people 9

Politeness: what is impolite?

271c

Being direct is impolite so we need to be careful when using direct forms.

The imperative form

In most contexts, the imperative is very direct and is usually impolite when used outside of family and friends:

[in a café]

Give me a coffee.

Polite form: *Could I have a coffee, please?*

[asking the time]

Tell me the time.

Polite form: *Would you mind telling me the time, please?*

However, it is acceptable to use an imperative in warnings, offers, written requests and when giving directions or instructions:

Mind your step!

Have another coffee.

Turn left once you get past the cinema. Then **take** a right along a narrow road ...

To stop in an emergency, **press** this button.

→ Imperatives as offers and invitations 172h; Imperative clauses 172; Telling the time 350e; Warnings 372

Using titles inappropriately

We use titles before names, for example *Mr Oakley, Dr Morrison*:

- [in a letter or email to Professor Harry Murray]
- Polite form: title + family name: *Dear Prof. Murray*
- Not: ~~Dear Prof. Harry~~

→Names and titles: addressing people

Using very familiar terms of address inappropriately

When people know each other very well, for example, couples or very close friends, parents and their children, they may address each other using terms such as *love, honey, darling, pet*. In certain dialects, you may also hear people use these terms in shops and cafés, for example. It is impolite to use these terms in formal contexts:

- [in an interview]
- ~~Where do you come from, love?~~
- [in a restaurant]
- ~~Mr Kane, pet, your table is ready.~~

→Sexist language

Possession (John's car, a friend of mine) 272

Possessive 's 272a

We use apostrophe s ('s), also called possessive 's, as a determiner to show that something belongs to someone or something:

- Is that Olivia's bag?*
- Britain's coastline is very beautiful.*

We can also use it in complex noun phrases (underlined):

- Greg is her youngest daughter's husband.*

We can use two possessive 's constructions in the same noun phrase:

- We went to **Jake's father's** funeral.*

We also use possessive 's to talk about time and duration:

- Is that **yesterday's** paper?*
- I've only had one **week's** holiday so far this year.*

Rules for using possessive 's

We use 's after a singular noun and ' after a plural noun.

↔ Compare

singular noun + 's	plural noun + '
<i>The girl's bedroom</i> (The bedroom belongs to one girl.)	<i>The girls' bedroom.</i> (The bedroom belongs to more than one girl.)

We use 's with irregular plural nouns (e.g. *children, men, people, women*):

*The **children's** parents decided which university they would go to.*

*They have no respect for other **people's** property.*

The rules for the pronunciation of a noun with 's are the same as the rules for pronunciation of plural forms of nouns.

↔ Compare

noun + 's or '	plural noun	pronunciation
<i>The cat's dinner is in the fridge.</i>	<i>The cats were running around the garden.</i>	/s/
<i>The kids' uncle gave them all some money.</i>	<i>The kids are getting impatient.</i>	/z/
<i>George's brother was there.</i>	<i>There are three Georges in my family.</i>	/ɪz/

When a first or second name ends in -s, we can either add ' or 's. It is more common to use ' than 's. When we speak, we usually pronounce the final part of the word as /ɪz/ or /sɪz/:

Is that James' car? (or Is that James's car?) (both usually pronounced /'dʒeɪmzɪz/)

I love Keats' poetry. (or I love Keats's poetry.) (both usually pronounced /'ki:tsɪz/)

With compound nouns, we add 's to the final noun:

*My **sister-in-law's** friend came with us.*

Not: *My sister's-in-law friend*

We don't usually use the possessive 's with things:

the door handle

Not: *the door's handle*

the shop window

Not: *the shop's window*

the kitchen table

Not: *the kitchen's table*



When we talk about places which are familiar to the speaker and the listener, we sometimes don't use the noun after possessive 's:

*the hairdresser's salon – the **hairdresser's***

*the doctor's surgery – the **doctor's***

*We had to take our cat to the **vet's** twice last month. (the same as: We had to take our cat to the vet's clinic twice last month.)*

*Do you shop in **Marks and Spencer's**?*

*We decided to go to **John's** after the cinema. (the same as: We decided to go to John's house after the cinema.)*

In short answers, we can omit the noun if it is not necessary to repeat it:

A: *Is that your coat?*

B: No, it's **Sandra's**.

We use possessive 's with words such as *one, anyone, someone, anybody, somebody*:

*It's important to know **one's** rights as a tenant.*

*Is this **someone's** coat here?*

When we use *else* with these words, the 's is added to *else*:

*Why didn't you come? **Everyone else's** husband was there.*

! The pronoun *other* has the same forms as nouns. We add 's to the singular form, and we add an apostrophe after the plural -s ending in the plural form:

*They took each **other's** hand and started walking.*

*All of our luggage arrived but the **others'** cases didn't. The airline promise they will be here this evening.*

! We don't use 's with possessive pronouns:

*Is that dog **yours**?*

Not: *Is that dog **your's**?*

*I think that car is **theirs**.*

Not: *I think that car is **theirs'***

We don't use 's with the possessive determiner *its*. *It's* means 'it is':

*The city is proud of **its** parks.*

Not: *The city is proud of **it's** parks.*

Possessives with of

272b

Noun phrase + of + possessive pronoun

We can talk about possession using the pattern: noun phrase + *of* + possessive pronoun:

*A friend **of** mine told me that all of the tickets have already sold out.*

A: *Where's Martin?*

B: *He's gone to pick up a cousin **of** his at the station.*

*Is Linda McGrath a close friend **of** yours?*

! We use a possessive pronoun, not the object form of the pronoun:

*A neighbour **of** mine called late last night.*

Not: *A neighbour **of** me ...*

Noun phrase + of + possessive 's noun phrase

We can also use the noun phrase + *of* pattern before a noun phrase with possessive 's:

*He's a brother **of** Maria's.*

*A friend **of** my sister's has opened a café on Dawson Street.*

*She was a daughter **of** the President's.*

's or of or either?**272c**

There are some general rules about when to use *'s* and when to use *of* but there are many cases where both are possible:

The film's hero or *The hero of the film*
The car's safety record or *The safety record of the car*
The report's conclusion or *The conclusion of the report*

Sometimes when we first mention a noun, we use *of*, and later when we refer to it again, we use *'s*:

The mountains of Pakistan are mostly in the north. At least one hundred of them are above 7,000 metres ... Most of *Pakistan's mountains* are in the spectacular Karakoram range.

When we don't use 's

We don't use *'s* when the noun is not a person, animal, country, organisation, etc., or when the noun phrase is very long:

The name of the ship was 'Wonder Queen'. (preferred to *The ship's name* was 'Wonder Queen'.)

The house of the oldest woman in the village. (preferred to *The oldest woman in the village's house*.)

When we don't use of

When we are talking about things that belong to us, relationships and characteristics of people, animals, countries, categories, groups or organisations made up of people, we usually use *'s*:

The men's dressing room is on the left at the end of the corridor.

Not: ~~The dressing room of the men~~ ...

The cat's paw was badly cut.

Not: ~~The paw of the cat~~ ...

→ Possessive's 272a**Possession: typical errors****272d**

- We don't use *'s* with plural nouns:

It is my responsibility to deal with customers' complaints.

Not: ... to deal with customer's complaints.

- The possessive determiner *its* has no apostrophe:

We bought this car because we liked its colour.

Not: ... because we liked it's colour.

- We don't use *'s* to make nouns plural. When we want to show that something is plural, we add *-s* without an apostrophe:

They had to rebuild the roads after the earthquake.

Not: ~~They had to rebuild the road's~~ ...

→ Possessives with of 272b; Punctuation 293; Apostrophe 36

Prefer**273****Expressing preference****273a**

We use *prefer* to say we like one thing or activity more than another. We can use a prepositional phrase with *to* when we compare two things or actions:

*I **prefer** tea **to** coffee.*

*We **prefer** going by ferry **to** flying.*

We don't use *than* after *prefer*.

*She **prefers** books **to** magazines.*

Not: *She ~~prefers~~ books ~~than~~ magazines.*

We can use a *to*-infinitive or an *-ing* form after *prefer*. A *to*-infinitive is more common.

*She's not keen on coffee. She **prefers** to drink tea. (or *She **prefers** drinking tea **to** coffee.*)*

Would prefer**273b**

We use *would prefer* or *'d prefer*, followed by a *to*-infinitive or a noun, to talk about present and future preferences:

*I'd **prefer** to go by myself.*

*Would you **prefer** a quieter restaurant?*

*She'd **prefer** not to drive at night.*

When we want to say that we would like to do one thing more than another, we can introduce the second thing with *rather than*, followed by an infinitive without *to*:

*I'd **prefer** to go skiing this year **rather than** go on a beach holiday.*

When we are talking about our preferences for the actions of another person, we can use *would prefer* + object pronoun + *to*-infinitive or *would prefer it if* + past simple:

*They'd **prefer** us to come later. (or *They'd **prefer** it if we came later.*)*

*Would you **prefer** me to drive? (or *Would you **prefer** it if I drove?*)*

→ Verb patterns 365; *Hate, like, love and prefer* 3; *Would like* 394

Typical errors

- We use a *to*-infinitive after *prefer*, not an infinitive without *to*:

*I **prefer** to drive.*

Not: *I ~~prefer~~ drive.*

*Whenever I have time I like to read but I **prefer** not to read in the evening.*

Not: *... but I ~~prefer~~ not read in the evening.*

- We make comparisons using *to* or *rather than*, not *just than*:

*A lot of young people **prefer** computer games **to** football. (or *A lot of young people **prefer** computer games **rather than** football.*)*

Not: *A lot of young people ~~prefer~~ computer games ~~than~~ football.*

Prefixes

274

Prefixes are letters which we add to the beginning of a word to make a new word with a different meaning. Prefixes can, for example, create a new word opposite in meaning to the word the prefix is attached to. They can also make a word negative or express relations of time, place or manner. Here are some examples:

base word	prefixed word	type of meaning
<i>possible</i>	<i>impossible</i>	opposite
<i>able</i>	<i>unable</i>	opposite/negation
<i>payment</i>	<i>non-payment</i>	negation
<i>war</i>	<i>pre-war</i>	time (before)
<i>terrestrial</i>	<i>extraterrestrial</i>	place (outside of/beyond)
<i>cook</i>	<i>overcook</i>	manner (too much)

*I'm sorry I was **unable** to attend the meeting.*

***Non-payment** of fees could result in a student being asked to leave the course.*

*Has anyone ever really met an **extraterrestrial** being? (meaning a being from another planet)*

*The meat was **overcooked** and quite tasteless.*

The most common prefixes

prefix	meaning	examples
<i>anti-</i>	against/opposed to	<i>anti-government, anti-racist, anti-war</i>
<i>auto-</i>	self	<i>autobiography, automobile</i>
<i>de-</i>	reverse or change	<i>de-classify, decontaminate, demotivate</i>
<i>dis-</i>	reverse or remove	<i>disagree, displeasure, disqualify</i>
<i>down-</i>	reduce or lower	<i>downgrade, downhearted</i>
<i>extra-</i>	beyond	<i>extraordinary, extraterrestrial</i>
<i>hyper-</i>	extreme	<i>hyperactive, hypertension</i>
<i>il-, im-, in-, ir-</i>	not	<i>illegal, impossible, insecure, irregular</i>
<i>inter-</i>	between	<i>interactive, international</i>
<i>mega-</i>	very big, important	<i>megabyte, mega-deal, megaton</i>
<i>mid-</i>	middle	<i>midday, midnight, mid-October</i>
<i>mis-</i>	incorrectly, badly	<i>misaligned, mislead, misspelt</i>

<i>non-</i>	not	<i>non-payment, non-smoking</i>
<i>over-</i>	too much	<i>overcook, overcharge, overrate</i>
<i>out-</i>	go beyond	<i>outdo, out-perform, outrun</i>
<i>post-</i>	after	<i>post-election, post-war</i>
<i>pre-</i>	before	<i>prehistoric, pre-war</i>
<i>pro-</i>	in favour of	<i>pro-communist, pro-democracy</i>
<i>re-</i>	again	<i>reconsider, redo, rewrite</i>
<i>semi-</i>	half	<i>semicircle, semi-retired</i>
<i>sub-</i>	under, below	<i>submarine, sub-Saharan</i>
<i>super-</i>	above, beyond	<i>super-hero, supermodel</i>
<i>tele-</i>	at a distance	<i>television, telepathic</i>
<i>trans-</i>	across	<i>transatlantic, transfer</i>
<i>ultra-</i>	extremely	<i>ultra-compact, ultrasound</i>
<i>un-</i>	remove, reverse, not	<i>undo, unpack, unhappy</i>
<i>under-</i>	less than, beneath	<i>undercook, underestimate</i>
<i>up-</i>	make or move higher	<i>upgrade, uphill</i>

Writing prefixes: hyphens (*super-hero* or *supermodel*)

There are no absolute rules for when to use a hyphen or when to write a prefixed word as one whole word (see the examples in the table). A good learner's dictionary will tell you how to write a prefixed word.

Prepositions

275

Prepositions: uses

275a

We commonly use prepositions to show a relationship in space or time or a logical relationship between two or more people, places or things. Prepositions are most commonly followed by a noun phrase or pronoun (underlined):

*The last time I saw him he was walking **down** the road.*

*I'll meet you in the cafe **opposite** the cinema.*

*It was difficult to sleep **during** the flight.*

*It was the worst storm **since** the 1980s.*

*Give that **to** me.*

There are over 100 prepositions in English. The most common single-word prepositions are:

<i>about</i>	<i>beside</i>	<i>near</i>	<i>to</i>
<i>above</i>	<i>between</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>towards</i>
<i>across</i>	<i>beyond</i>	<i>off</i>	<i>under</i>
<i>after</i>	<i>by</i>	<i>on</i>	<i>underneath</i>
<i>against</i>	<i>despite</i>	<i>onto</i>	<i>unlike</i>
<i>along</i>	<i>down</i>	<i>opposite</i>	<i>until</i>
<i>among</i>	<i>during</i>	<i>out</i>	<i>up</i>
<i>around</i>	<i>except</i>	<i>outside</i>	<i>upon</i>
<i>as</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>over</i>	<i>via</i>
<i>at</i>	<i>from</i>	<i>past</i>	<i>with</i>
<i>before</i>	<i>in</i>	<i>round</i>	<i>within</i>
<i>behind</i>	<i>inside</i>	<i>since</i>	<i>without</i>
<i>below</i>	<i>into</i>	<i>than</i>	
<i>beneath</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>through</i>	

Although most prepositions are single words, some pairs and groups of words operate like single prepositions:

*They were unable to attend **because of** the bad weather **in** Ireland.*

*Jack'll be playing in the team **in place of** me.*

***In addition to** getting a large fine, both brothers were put in prison for three months.*

*I always get nervous when I have to speak **in front of** an audience.*

*We estimate that there'll be **up to** 10,000 people at the concert.*

The most common prepositions that consist of groups of words are:

<i>ahead of</i>	<i>except for</i>	<i>instead of</i>	<i>owing to</i>
<i>apart from</i>	<i>in addition to</i>	<i>near to</i>	<i>such as</i>
<i>as for</i>	<i>in front of</i>	<i>on account of</i>	<i>thanks to</i>
<i>as well as</i>	<i>in place of</i>	<i>on top of</i>	<i>up to</i>
<i>because of</i>	<i>in spite of</i>	<i>out of</i>	
<i>due to</i>	<i>inside of</i>	<i>outside of</i>	

Prepositions or conjunctions?

Some words which are prepositions also function as conjunctions. When we use a preposition that is followed by a clause, it is functioning as a conjunction; when we use a preposition that is followed by a noun phrase, it stays as a preposition. Among the most common are *after*, *as*, *before*, *since*, *until*:

***After** I'd met him last night, I texted his sister at once. (conjunction)*

***After** the meeting last night, I texted his sister at once. (preposition)*

*We'll just have to wait **until** they decide what to do. (conjunction)*

*Okay, we'll wait here **until** six o'clock. (preposition)*

Prepositions or adverbs?

Several words which are prepositions also belong to the word class of adverbs. These include: *about, across, around, before, beyond, in, inside, near, opposite, outside, past, round, through, under, up, within*:

*There were lots of people waiting for a taxi **outside** the club.* (preposition)

A: *Where's your cat?*

B: *She's **outside**.* (adverb)

*The gallery is **opposite** the Natural History Museum.* (preposition)

A: *Can you tell me where the bus station is?*

B: *It's over **there**, just **opposite**.* (adverb)

Prepositions and abstract meanings

Common prepositions that show relationships of space often have abstract as well as concrete meanings.

↔ Compare

<i>That map you need is behind the filing cabinet.</i> (basic spatial sense or position)	<i>Everyone is behind the government.</i> (<i>behind</i> = gives support)
<i>Beyond the hotel were beautiful mountains.</i> (basic spatial sense or position)	<i>Learning Chinese in a year was beyond them all.</i> (<i>beyond</i> = too difficult for)

Some common prepositions such as *at, in* and *on* can have abstract meanings:

*I think you will both need to discuss the problem **in** private.*

*All three singers were dressed **in** black.*

*You now have the next day **at** leisure and can do whatever you wish.*

*Our dog stays **on** guard all night, even when he's sleeping!*

Prepositions and adjectives

We commonly use prepositions after adjectives. Here are the most common adjective + preposition patterns.

adjectives	preposition	
<i>aware, full</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>They weren't aware of the time.</i>
<i>different, separate</i>	<i>from</i>	<i>Is French very different from Spanish?</i>
<i>due, similar</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>This picture is similar to the one in our living room.</i>
<i>familiar, wrong</i>	<i>with</i>	<i>What's wrong with Isabelle?</i>
<i>good, surprised*</i>	<i>at</i>	<i>We were really surprised at the price of food in restaurants on our holiday.</i>

interested	in	Lots of people are interested in Grand Prix racing but I'm not.
responsible, good	for	Exercise is good for everyone.
worried, excited	about	We're really excited about our trip to Argentina.

*We can also say surprised **by**

Prepositions and nouns

Many nouns have particular prepositions which normally follow them:

*There's been a large **increase in** the price of petrol.*

*Does anyone know the **cause of** the fire?*

→ Nouns and prepositions 233; Nouns and prepositions: typical errors 226

Prepositions and verbs

Many verbs go together with prepositions to make prepositional verbs. These always have an object:

*I just couldn't **do without** my phone.*

*Robert **accused** her **of** stealing his idea.*

Phrasal-prepositional verbs contain a verb, an adverb particle and a preposition (underlined). We cannot separate the particle and the preposition:

*The taxi is due any minute. Can you **listen out** for it?*

*I can't **put up** with this noise any longer.*

→ Prepositional verbs 363b; Phrasal-prepositional verbs 363d; Prepositional phrases 276

Prepositions: position and stranding

275b

Traditional grammatical rules say that we should not have a preposition at the end of a clause or sentence. However, we sometimes do separate a preposition from the words which follow it (its complement). This is called preposition stranding, and it is common in informal styles:

*She was someone **to whom** he could talk.* (formal)

*She was someone **who** he could talk **to**.* (informal)

***Which** room are they having breakfast **in**?* (informal)

***In which** room are they having breakfast?* (formal)

If we leave out words that are clear from the context (ellipsis), we can use *wh*-questions with a *wh*-word + stranded preposition:

A: *The office is moving next year.*

B: *Really, where **to**?*

A: *I'm going to buy some flowers online.*

B: *Who **for**?*

A: *My mother.*

→ Word order and focus 390; Ellipsis 116

Prepositional phrases

276

Prepositions and their complements

276a

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition and the words which follow it (a complement). The complement (underlined below) is most commonly a noun phrase or pronoun, but it can also be, an adverb phrase (usually one of place or time), a verb in the *-ing* form or, less commonly, a prepositional phrase or a *wh*-clause:

*They first met **at** a party.* (preposition + noun phrase)

*She was taken ill **during** the film.* (preposition + noun phrase)

*Would you like to come **with** me please?* (preposition + pronoun)

***From** there, it'll take you about half an hour to our house.* (preposition + adverb)

***Until** quite recently, no one knew about his paintings.* (preposition + adverb phrase)

*She's decided **on** doing a Chinese language course.* (preposition + *-ing* clause)

Not: ... decided ~~on to~~ do ...

*It's a machine **for** making ice-cream.* (preposition + *-ing* clause)

*If you can wait **until** after my meeting with Jack, we can talk then.* (preposition + prepositional phrase)

*We were really surprised **at** what they wrote.* (preposition + *wh*-clause)

We can put an adverb before a preposition to modify it. This applies mainly to prepositions of time or place which are gradable (*above, before, far, deep, down, opposite*):

*They've moved far **into** the country.*

*They left the party just **before** us.*

*You can't miss it. His office is almost **opposite** the coffee machine.*

Prepositional phrases after verbs

276b

Prepositional phrases can be complements of verbs. If we need a special preposition to introduce the complement of the verb, we call such verbs 'prepositional verbs':

*Do these keys **belong** to you?*

*We're not happy but we do **approve** of their decision.*

We sometimes use an adverb particle before the preposition. The verb + adverb particle + preposition structure forms a verb which has a single meaning. We call such verbs 'phrasal prepositional verbs'. Their meaning is often not related to the meaning of the original verb:

*She really **looks up to** her grandfather.* (admires)

*We're all **looking forward to** having a few days' holiday together.* (anticipate with pleasure)

→ Verbs: multi-word verbs 363

Present

277

Present time refers to the time around the moment of writing or speaking (time around now) and to general and permanent time. The two most common ways to refer to present time are the present simple for general facts and regular events, and the present continuous for an event happening now:

- Water **turns** to ice at below 0°.* (present simple for a general fact)
- Does it rain** a lot in Wales?* (present simple asking about a general fact)
- I usually **take** the bus to work.* (present simple for a regular event)
- Take an umbrella with you. **It's raining.*** (present continuous for something happening now)

Present continuous (*I am working*)

278

Present continuous: form

278a

We use *am, are, is* + the *-ing* form of the verb. We use the short form more often than the full form, especially when speaking.

+	I, you, we, they she, he, it	(full form) am are, is	working.
	I, you, we, they she, he, it	(short form) 'm 're 's	
-	I, you, we, they she, he, it	(full form) am not are not is not	working.
	I, you, we, they she, he, it	(short form) 'm not 're not or aren't 's not or isn't	
? +	Am Are, Is	I you, we, they she, he, it	working?

? –	(full form) Am Are Is	<i>I</i> <i>you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	not	working?
	(short form) Aren't Isn't	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>		

Present continuous: **-ing** form spelling278b

For most verbs we add **-ing** to the base form to make the **-ing** form:

<i>be</i> → being	<i>eat</i> → eating	<i>order</i> → ordering
<i>cry</i> → crying	<i>fix</i> → fixing	<i>play</i> → playing
<i>do</i> → doing	<i>go</i> → going	

For other verbs the spelling changes are (note the underlined syllables are stressed):

	verb	-ing form
When the verb ends in -e , we take off the -e and add -ing .	<i>move</i>	moving
	<i>face</i>	facing
	<i>come</i>	coming
When the verb ends in a vowel followed by a single consonant and if the last syllable is stressed, then the consonant is doubled.	<i>commit</i>	committing
	<i>prefer</i>	preferring
	<i>rub</i>	rubbing
	BUT: <i>cover</i> <i>remember</i>	covering remembering
When the verb ends in a vowel + l , we double the consonant.	<i>travel</i>	travelling*
	<i>control</i>	controlling

* American English spelling is *traveling*.

→Regular verbs 361b; Irregular verbs 361c; Spelling 330

Present continuous: uses**278c****Events at the time of speaking**

We use the present continuous to talk about events which are in progress at the moment of speaking:

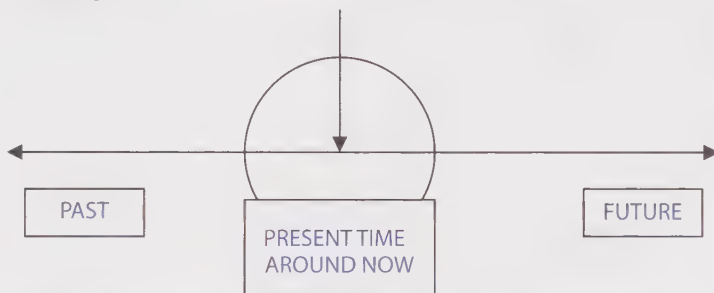
A: *What time's dinner?*

B: *I'm **cooking** now so it'll be ready in about half an hour.*

*She's **pressing** the button but nothing **is happening**.*

Temporary states

We use the present continuous to talk about temporary states which are true around the moment of speaking:



*Her mother's **living** with her at the moment. She's just come out of hospital.*

*Who's **looking** after the children while you're here?*

Repeated temporary events

We use the present continuous to describe actions which are repeated or regular, but which we believe to be temporary:

*I'm **not drinking** much coffee these days. I'm **trying** to cut down.*

*She's **working** a lot in London at the moment. (She doesn't usually work in London.)*

Change

We use the present continuous to talk about a gradual change:

*They're **building** a new stand at the football ground.*

*Maria, 37, **is getting** better and doctors are optimistic she will make a full recovery.*

*Recent evidence suggests that the economic situation **is improving**.*

Regular unplanned events

We often use the present continuous with words like *always*, *constantly*, *continually* and *forever* (adverbs of indefinite frequency) to describe events which are regular but not planned, and often not wanted:

*My wife, she's **always throwing** things out. I like to keep everything.*

*I'm **constantly spilling** things.*

Plans and arrangements

We use the present continuous to refer to the future when we talk about plans and arrangements that have already been made:

*We're **moving** to Cambridge in July.*

*Sarah **isn't taking** Rory to football training later. She hasn't got the car tonight.*

***Aren't** you **playing** tennis on Saturday?*

→Future: present continuous to talk about the future 136

Present simple (I work)

279

Present simple: form

279a

We use the base form of the verb, and add -s for the third person singular.

+	I, you, we, they she, he, it		work. works.
-	I, you, we, they she, he, it	(full form) do not does not	work.
	I, you, we, they she, he, it	(short form) don't doesn't	
? +	Do Does	I, you, we, they she, he, it	work?
? -	(full form) Do Does	I, you, we, they she, he, it	work?
	(short form) Don't Doesn't	I, you, we, they she, he, it	

Present simple: spelling

279b

For most verbs we add -s to the base form to make the *she, he, it* (third person singular) form:

come → *comes*

order → *orders*

travel → *travels*

eat → *eats*

record → *records*

walk → *walks*

move → *moves*

For other verbs, the spelling changes are:

	verb	she, he, it
When the verb ends in <i>-ch</i> , <i>-ss</i> , <i>-sh</i> , <i>-x</i> or <i>-zz</i> , we add <i>-es</i> .	<i>watch</i>	<i>watches</i>
	<i>miss</i>	<i>misses</i>
	<i>wash</i>	<i>washes</i>
	<i>mix</i>	<i>mixes</i>
	<i>buzz</i>	<i>buzzes</i>
When the verb ends in a consonant + <i>-y</i> we change <i>y</i> to <i>i</i> and add <i>-es</i> .	<i>hurry</i>	<i>hurries</i>
	<i>study</i>	<i>studies</i>
	<i>reply</i>	<i>replies</i>
But when the verb ends in a vowel + <i>-y</i> we just add <i>-s</i> .	<i>pay</i>	<i>pays</i>
	<i>enjoy</i>	<i>enjoys</i>
<i>Have</i> , <i>go</i> , <i>do</i> and <i>be</i> are irregular.	<i>have</i>	<i>has</i>
	<i>go</i>	<i>goes</i>
	<i>do</i>	<i>does</i>
	<i>be</i>	<i>is</i>

When the verb ends in *-s* or *-z* we double the *-s* or *-z* and add *-es*, e.g. *quiz*, *quizzes*. These verbs are not common.

→ *Be* 53; *Spelling* 330

Present simple: uses

279c

General truths and facts

We use the present simple to talk about general facts that are always true and permanent about the world:

*Ten times ten **makes** one hundred.* (10 x 10 = 100)

*There **is** always a holiday on the last Monday in August in the UK.*

*Time **passes** very quickly when you get older.*

We use the present simple to talk about general facts that we think are true and permanent at the present time:

*I really **love** my job.*

*Mrs Clare **doesn't teach** me but she **teaches** my sister.*

***Do** you **live** in Glasgow? My cousin **lives** there too.*

*Spiders **don't frighten** me.*

*Martha **does** what she **wants**. No one **tells** her what to do.*

Regular and habitual events

We use the present simple to talk about regular or habitual events. We often use *always*, *often*, *usually*, *sometimes*, *never* and other frequency adverbs for regular and habitual events:

*How **do** you **get** to work? **Do** you **get** the bus?*

*I **read** every night before I **go** to sleep.*

*We **always have** a holiday in the summer. We **never work** in August.*

*We **usually fly** to France when we go. Lorea **doesn't like** the ferry. It **makes** her feel sick.*

Instructions and directions

We use the present simple when we are giving instructions or directions. We often use ordering words, such as *and*, *first* and *then* with this use of the present simple:

[giving directions]

*You **take** the train into the city centre **and then** you **take** a number five bus. You **don't get** off at the museum. You **get** off at the stop after the museum.*

[giving instructions before a test]

*So what you do is ... you **read** the questions **first and then** you **write** down your answers in the box. You **don't write** on the question paper.*

Stories and commentaries

We often use the present simple to describe a series of actions – one action after another. We see this especially in stories, summaries of stories or reviews:

[talking about the series of events in a novel]

*Alex **doesn't ring** back at midnight ... she **waits** till the morning to ring, and they **get** annoyed with Liz when she **goes** on ... they **know** she's **got** plenty of money by their standards ...*

The present simple is often used by sports commentators to give commentaries or report actions as they are happening:

*Mwaruwaui Benjani **fouls** Cahill. Habsi **takes** the free kick, Caicedo **shoots** and **volleys**. O'Brien **blocks**.*

Immediate reactions

We use the present simple, often with verbs of senses and perception, to talk about feelings and reactions at the moment of speaking:

***Do** you **think** that meat is ok to eat? It **doesn't smell** very good.*

*Where **does** it **hurt**?*

[talking about the colour of a dress]

*I **don't like** the colour. I **think** I **look** terrible.*

*It **seems** a bit quiet in here. Where is everyone?*

***Don't** you **believe** me? It's true, honestly.*

***I promise, I swear, I agree* (speech act verbs)**

We use the present simple with speech act verbs (verbs which perform the act that they describe):

*I will pay you back, I **promise**, when I get paid.*

*I **agree** with everything you say.*

We also use the present simple in a similar way in formal statements and in business or legal communications:

*I **attach** the original signed copies for your records.*

*On behalf of the Society, and particularly those involved in medical work, I **write** to thank you for your kind gift of £20,000 ... (more formal than I'm writing to thank you ...)*

Timetables and plans

We use the present simple to talk about events that are part of a future plan or timetable:

*The lesson **starts** at 9.30 tomorrow instead of 10.30.*

*Lunch **is** at 12.30. Don't be late.*

*What time **do** you **land**? (talking about a flight at some time in the future)*

*They **don't start** back to school until next Monday.*

We can also often use *will* in these sentences, with no change in meaning:

*The lesson **will** start at 9.30 tomorrow instead of 10.30.*

→ **Will 384; Future 134; Future: present simple to talk about the future 137**

Present simple after *when, before, etc.*

We use the present simple for future reference in subordinate clauses after words like *when, before, as soon as, if* and *whether*:

*I'll call you when I **get** there.*

Not: ~~I'll call you when I'll get there.~~

*Don't forget to ring before you **go**.*

Not: ~~Don't forget to ring before you'll go.~~

*They hope to move in to the new house as soon as they **get** back from Australia next month.*

Not: ... ~~as soon as they'll get back from Australia next month.~~

→ **Will 384; Future 134; Conditional 84; If 168**

Newspaper headlines

We often see the present simple in news headlines to report past events. It emphasises the drama or immediacy of an event:

*Man **rescues** child from lake*

*Taiwanese envoys **arrive** in China*

Present simple or present continuous?

280

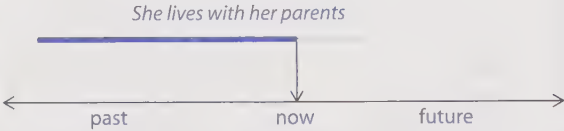
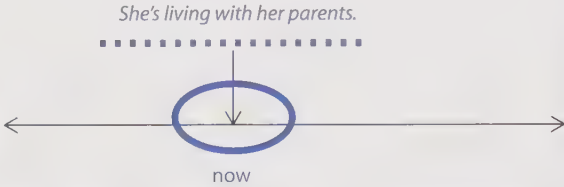
Present simple: *I work*

Present continuous: *I am working*

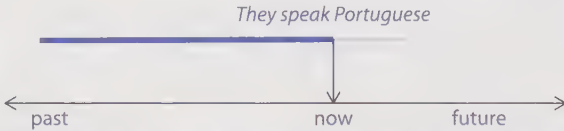
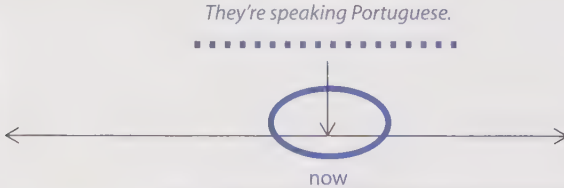
Permanent and temporary

280a

↔ Compare

<i>She lives with her parents.</i>  A horizontal timeline with arrows at both ends, labeled 'past', 'now', and 'future'. A solid blue line starts in the 'past' and extends to the 'now' position, where it ends with a downward arrow.	We use the present simple to talk about permanent facts and general truths. In this example we don't expect the situation to change.
<i>She's living with her parents.</i>  A horizontal timeline with arrows at both ends, labeled 'past', 'now', and 'future'. A dotted blue line is positioned above the timeline, starting from the 'past' and ending at the 'now' position. A solid blue circle is drawn around the 'now' position on the timeline, with a downward arrow pointing to it.	We use the present continuous to talk about something temporary. In this example we do expect the situation to change.

↔ Compare

<i>They speak Portuguese in Brazil.</i>  A horizontal timeline with arrows at both ends, labeled 'past', 'now', and 'future'. A solid blue line starts in the 'past' and extends to the 'now' position, where it ends with a downward arrow.	A general, permanent fact.
A: What language are they speaking? B: They're speaking Portuguese. <i>They're speaking Portuguese.</i>  A horizontal timeline with arrows at both ends, labeled 'past', 'now', and 'future'. A dotted blue line is positioned above the timeline, starting from the 'past' and ending at the 'now' position. A solid blue circle is drawn around the 'now' position on the timeline, with a downward arrow pointing to it.	It's happening now. I can hear it.

↔ Compare

Hani smiles a lot.	A general fact or characteristic about Hani.
What are you smiling about?	An action around now.

Verbs not often used in the present continuous**280b**

Some verbs are normally used in the present simple and not in the present continuous. Here are some of them:

know, suppose, think, understand (mental process verbs)

admire, adore, detest, hate, like, respect (verbs expressing feelings)

smell, taste (verbs describing the senses)

consist, contain, last (verbs describing permanent qualities)

promise, swear (speech act verbs)

*You could ask Greg if he can help. He **knows** a bit about cars.*

Not: ~~He's knowing a bit about cars.~~

*Those batteries don't **last** very long.*

Not: ~~Those batteries aren't lasting very long.~~

*Each chapter **contains** authentic reading texts and a variety of listening and speaking activities.*

Not: ~~Each chapter is containing ...~~

*I **swear** I gave you back the keys.*

Not: ~~I'm swearing I gave you back the keys.~~

Be in the present continuous**280c**

We use *be* in the present continuous to talk about current actions or behaviour rather than about a quality or characteristic.

↔ Compare

<i>I think she's being really really rude.</i>	<i>I think she's rude.</i>
Her behaviour now.	A characteristic of her; she's a rude person.

→ Present simple 279; Present continuous 278

Present verb forms referring to the past**281**

We commonly use the present simple to refer to the past when we want to make events sound as if they are happening now. For example, news headlines are commonly written in the present simple:

*Rebels **attack** government buildings.*

*German Finance minister **resigns**.*

In formal writing the present simple is also used to refer to important events in the past:

*In spring 1984 the government **is** defeated and an election **takes** place. By the end of the year the strikes **end**.*

We also use the present simple when we tell stories or jokes. It makes them sound more immediate:

*It's seven o'clock in the evening and an old woman **walks** slowly out of her garden and towards the bus stop. The soldier **watches** her and after a few minutes **follows** her.*

A man **walks** into a restaurant with a monkey on his shoulder. The monkey **says**, 'I'd like soup please.'

We also use the present simple when we report what people say as part of a story:

*It was only eleven o'clock and my mum **says**, 'You're late again.' And I **say**, 'No, I'm not.' Then my dad **starts** to shout.*

→ Present simple 279; Newspaper headlines O; Commentaries O; Reported speech 312

Present: typical errors

282

- We always use the -s form for third person singular present simple:

*Good health **depends** on having a good diet.*

Not: ~~Good health depend on having a good diet.~~

*The building **has** three rooms.*

Not: ~~The building have three rooms.~~

- We don't use the present simple for actions that are going on at the present time. We use the present continuous:

*Look, she's **winning**!*

Not: ~~Look, she wins!~~

- We use the present simple, not *will*, for future reference after words like *when*, *before*, *as soon as*, *if* and *whether*:

*We'll come and pick you up as soon as you **call**.*

Not: ~~We'll come and pick you up as soon as you'll call.~~

- We don't use the present continuous for facts and permanent situations. We use the present simple:

*Six plus four **makes** ten. (6 + 4 = 10)*

Not: ~~Six plus four is making ten.~~

- We don't use the present continuous with some verbs, e.g. verbs expressing feelings, describing senses, mental process verbs:

*Horrible weather, isn't it? But I **hear** it's going to get better at the weekend.*

Not: ~~I'm hearing it's going to get better.~~

*Some children **hate** playing any sport.*

Not: ~~Some children are hating ...~~

- We don't use the present simple or the present continuous before *since* when we talk about a specific time up to now. We use the present perfect:

*I've **been** here since 4 o'clock.*

Not: ~~I'm here since 4 o'clock.~~

→ Present 277

Present perfect continuous (*I have been working*)**283****Present perfect continuous: form****283a**

We use *have/has + been + the -ing form of the verb*.

+	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(full form) have has	<i>been working.</i>
	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(short form) 've 's	
–	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(full form) have not has not	<i>been working.</i>
	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(short form) haven't hasn't	
? +	Have Has	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	<i>been working?</i>
? –	(full form) Have Has	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	<i>been working?</i>
	(short form) Haven't Hasn't	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	

Present perfect continuous: uses**283b****Recent past activities**

We use the present perfect continuous to talk about a finished activity in the recent past.
Using the present perfect continuous focuses on the activity.

We don't give a specific time. Even though the activity is finished, we can see the result in the present:

*I've just **been cleaning** the car.* (The car is wet and clean.)



*It's **been snowing**.* (The ground is covered in snow.)

*What **have you been buying**?*

One continuing event

We use the present perfect continuous for a single activity that began at a point in the past and is still continuing:

*I've **been reading** your book – it's great.* (I'm still reading it.)

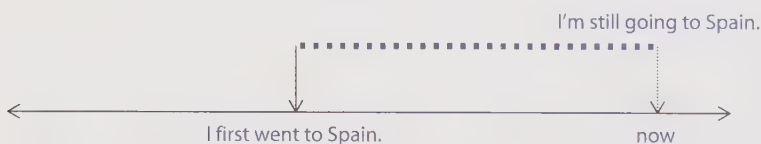
*He's **been living** in the village since 1995.* (He is still living in the village.)

*She **has been writing** her autobiography since 1987.*

Repeated continuing events

We use the present perfect continuous to talk about repeated activities which started at a particular time in the past and are still continuing up until now:

*I've **been going** to Spain on holiday every year since 1987.*



*I **haven't been eating** much lunch lately. I've **been going** to the gym at lunchtimes.*

*She's **been playing** tennis on and off for three years.*

How long ...?

We often use the present perfect continuous to ask and answer questions about the duration of an activity. We use the question *How long ...?* + present perfect continuous:

A: *How long **have you been waiting** for me?*

B: *About ten minutes. Not too long. (I've **been waiting** for about ten minutes.)*

→ For or since? 129; How 164

Present perfect simple (*I have worked*) **284**

Present perfect simple: form **284a**

We use *have/has* + the *-ed* form of the verb.

+	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(full form) have has	worked.
	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(short form) 've 's	
-	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(full form) have not has not	worked.
	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	(short form) haven't hasn't	
? +	Have Has	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	worked?
? -	(full form) Have Has	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	worked?
	(short form) Haven't Hasn't	<i>I, you, we, they</i> <i>she, he, it</i>	

→Verbs: the three basic forms 361a

Present perfect simple: uses **284b**

We use the present perfect simple to refer to events in the past but which connect to the present.

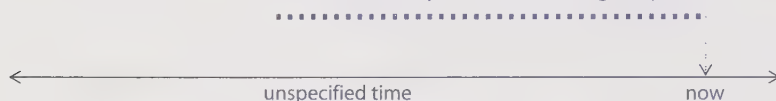
Experiences

We use the present perfect simple to talk about our experiences up to now. The time of the experiences is not important:

[talking about musical theatre productions]

And I've **seen** 'Buddy' and I've **seen** 'Starlight Express' in London. And I want to see 'Phantom of the Opera' next.

I've seen Buddy and I've seen Starlight Express



We're going to Wagamama's for dinner tonight. I've **been** there a couple of times before.

Although we do not give a specific time, we often use general time expressions like *ever*, *never*, *before*, *in my life*, *so far*, *up until now* with this use of the present perfect simple:

We **haven't met before**, have we?

They've **sold 110 so far**. (so far = from a point in the past up until now)

We often use *ever*, *not ... ever* and *never* when we talk about experiences:

It was the worst performance we **have ever seen**.

Have you ever tried to write your name and address with your left hand?

She's **never said** sorry for what she did.

We often use the present perfect simple for a unique experience when we are using a superlative:

I felt **the happiest I have ever felt**. My first Olympic final; the bronze medal; European record of 9.97 seconds.

The dome of the Blue Mosque at Isfahan is **the most beautiful building I have ever seen**.

It was **the best decision I have ever made** in my life.

It's **the worst sports programme I have ever seen** and the first I **have ever turned off**.

We usually use the present perfect simple with *the first time* when we're talking about an immediate, continuing or recent event:

That's **the first time I've seen** you get angry.

Recent completed events

We use the present perfect simple to talk about a finished event or state in the very recent past. We do not give a specific time. We often use words like *just* or *recently* for events taking place a very short time before now:

What's this? What's **just happened**?

The company employs around 400 staff and **has recently opened** an office in the UK.

Niki and John **have just come back** from a week in Spain.

Past events, present results

We use the present perfect simple when a single past action has a connection with the present:

*She's **broken** her arm in two places.* (Her arm is still broken now.)

*Why **haven't** you **dressed** in something warmer?* (You got dressed in the past but the clothes are not warm enough for now.)

*A fire **has broken out** at a disused hotel on the seafront.* (The fire is burning now; it's a recent event too.)

*Your flowers **haven't arrived**.* (Your flowers are not here; they were supposed to arrive in the past.)

Time + *for* and *since*

We use the present perfect simple with *for* and *since* to talk about a present situation that began at a specific point in the past and is still going on in the present. We are looking back from the present to a point in the past.

↔ Compare

<i>That house on the corner has been empty for three years.</i> Not: ... <i>since</i> three years.	<i>For</i> refers to periods of time, e.g. <i>three years, four hours, ages, a long time, months, years.</i>
<i>That house on the corner has been empty since 2006.</i> Not: ... <i>for</i> 2006.	<i>Since</i> refers to a previous point in time, e.g. <i>last Monday, last year, 1987, yesterday.</i>
The house was empty in 2006 and it is still empty now. (speaking in 2011)	



How long ...?

We often use expressions with *for* and *since* to answer the question *How long ...?* + present perfect simple. We use the *How long ...?* question to ask about the duration of a state or activity:

A: ***How long have** you **worked** there?*

B: ***Since** 21 August. So **for** about four months.*

Yet

We use *yet* + the present perfect simple, mainly in questions and negative statements, to refer to things we intend to do in the future but which are not done:

*Don't wash up that cup. I **haven't finished** my coffee **yet**.* (I intend to finish it.)

***Haven't** you **done** your homework **yet**?* (You intend to do it.)

Already

We use *already* + the present perfect simple when we want to emphasise that something is done or achieved, often before the expected time:

- I've **already booked** my flight home.
- A: Will you go and clean your teeth!
- B: I've **already cleaned** them.

→ Already 30

Still

We use *still* + the present perfect simple when we want to emphasise that something we expected to happen continues not to happen:

- She **still hasn't said** sorry to me.
- I feel really tired. I **still haven't recovered** from the jet lag.

→ Still 331; Yet 396; Already 30

Introducing past time events

The present perfect simple is often used in newspaper headlines or TV news programmes to report a recent past event. It is then followed by a series of verbs in the past simple (underlined):

Charlton Heston **has died** aged 84, a spokesman for his family **has said**. Heston died on Saturday at his home in Beverly Hills. His wife Lydia, whom he married in 1944, was at his side. Heston won a best actor Oscar for his starring role in the epic 'Ben Hur'.

We can also use the present perfect simple to introduce an 'open' general point about something. We can then use the past simple (underlined) to give more detailed specific information:

Have you **seen** any Arthur Miller plays? I saw a fantastic production of 'The Crucible'.

American English

In American English the past simple is often used instead of the present perfect simple, often with *already* and *yet*.

↔ Compare

American English	British English
Did you eat (yet)?	Have you eaten (yet)?
Did you finish (already)?	Have you finished (already)?

→ British and American English 62

Present perfect simple or present perfect continuous?

285

Completed or continuing events

285a

We use the present perfect simple with action verbs to emphasise the completion of an event in the recent past. We use the present perfect continuous to talk about ongoing events or activities which started at a time in the past and are still continuing up until now.

↔ Compare

<i>I've written the Politics essay.</i>	Completed event.
<i>I've been writing the Politics essay.</i>	Ongoing activity: I'm still writing it.

↔ Compare

<i>I've thought about buying a laptop.</i> <i>I've thought about buying a new laptop.</i> I'm not thinking about buying a new laptop.	Suggests that I'm not thinking about it any more.
<i>I've been thinking about buying a new laptop for a while but I haven't decided which one to get.</i> <i>I've been thinking about buying a new laptop</i> I'm still thinking about it.	Focuses on the action of thinking over a period of time up to now.

Sometimes we can use either form and the meaning is the same:

I've lived here for 20 years.

I've been living here for 20 years.

! The present perfect continuous form is not normally used with verbs that refer to actions that are completed at a single point in time such as *start*, *stop*, *finish*:

Has the concert started already?

Not: ~~Has the concert been starting already?~~

Mental process and sense verbs

285b

Some verbs are not used very often in the continuous form.

We don't use the continuous form with verbs of mental process (*know*, *like*, *understand*, *believe*):

They haven't known each other for very long.

Not: ~~They haven't been knowing each other for very long.~~

We don't use the continuous form with verbs of the senses (*hear, smell, taste*):

*Have you **heard** the news?*

Not: *Have you been hearing the news?*



In speaking you will sometimes hear these verbs used in the continuous form to refer to events that are ongoing or temporary:

*I've **been hearing** some strange noises coming from outside.*

Present perfect: typical errors

286

- We don't use *since* with periods of time:

*I've **lived** here **for** most of my life.*

Not: ... ~~since most of my life.~~

- We don't use the present simple or the present continuous when we talk about 'time up to now'. We use the present perfect:

*They've **known** each other **since** January.*

Not: ~~They know each other since January.~~

Not: ~~They're knowing each other since January.~~

- We usually use the present perfect simple with *the first time* when we're talking about an immediate, continuing or recent event:

*Was that the first time you've **played** that song?*

Not: ~~Was that the first time you play that song?~~

→ Ever 120; Never or not ... ever? 287

Pronouns

287

We use pronouns in place of nouns and noun phrases:

*The children were in the garden. **They** were getting wet.*

[pointing to a parcel]

A: *What's in **that**?*

B: *I don't know. **It's** for **you**.*

***You** don't need to make **me** a cup of tea. I'll do **it** myself.*

Pronouns can also act as the head of noun phrases, with pre- and postmodifiers and complements:

A: *Did you mean you think she's wrong?*

B: *Yes, I meant **just that**.* (premodified pronoun)

*I made cakes and she ate **them all**.* (postmodified pronoun)

*We're looking for **someone young and energetic**.* (pronoun and complement)

There are different types of pronouns.

Examples	Type of pronoun
<i>I/me, you, we/us, she/her, it, they/them</i>	personal
<i>mine, ours, hers</i>	possessive
<i>ourselves, myself, himself</i>	reflexive
<i>who, whose, which, what</i>	interrogative
<i>this, that, these, those</i>	demonstrative
<i>-body, -one, -thing, one, you, they</i>	indefinite
<i>each other/each other's, one another/one another's</i>	reciprocal
<i>who, whom, whose, which, that</i>	relative

Determiners used as pronouns

Some determiners can also be used as pronouns (i.e. without a noun following and when the meaning is clear without including the noun):

A: *Have you read any poems by Lorca?*

B: *Yes. I've read **a few**.*

→ **Determiners used as pronouns 101**

Pronouns: indefinite (-body, -one, -thing, -where) 288

Somebody, anyone, everything, etc. are indefinite pronouns.

We use *-body, -one, -thing, -where* to refer to people, places and things in a general way. We write them as one single word, apart from *no one*, which can be written as two separate words or with a hyphen (*no-one*).

<i>somebody</i>	<i>someone</i>	<i>something</i>	<i>somewhere</i>
<i>anybody</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>anything</i>	<i>anywhere</i>
<i>nobody</i>	<i>no one</i>	<i>nothing</i>	<i>nowhere</i>
<i>everybody</i>	<i>everyone</i>	<i>everything</i>	<i>everywhere</i>

The differences in their meanings are the same as the differences between *some*, *any*, *every* and *no*. We use them all with a singular verb:

*Is **anyone** helping Claire with the washing up?*

***Everybody** makes mistakes.*

*I'm looking for **somewhere** I can store my bike.*

-body and -one

-body and *-one* mean the same thing. In informal contexts, we use indefinite pronouns ending in *-body* more often than pronouns ending in *-one*. The forms with *-one* are more common in formal writing:

Nobody was interested in the talk. (or *No one* was ...)

Everyone started to clap. (or *Everybody* ...)

Somewhere nice, nothing much

We can add an adjective or adverbial expression to these indefinite pronouns to make them more specific:

A: What did you do at the weekend?

B: *Nothing much*.

Are you thinking of *anyone in particular*?

Is there *something else* I can do to help?

→ *Some* 325; *Any* 34; *Some* and *any* 326; *Else* 117; *Every* 121; *Someone, somebody, something, somewhere* 327; *Anyone, anybody, anything* 0; *Everyone, everybody, everything, everywhere* 122; *No one, nobody, nothing, nowhere* 223

Pronouns: personal (I, me, you, him, it, they, etc.)

289

We use personal pronouns in place of noun phrases. We often use them to refer back to people and things that we have already identified (underlined):

Peter complained to *the chef* about the meal. *She* wasn't very helpful so *he* spoke to the manager. (*she* = the chef, *he* = Peter)

A: Where's *the knife*? I can't find *it*.

B: *It's* in the drawer. (*it* = the knife)

Personal pronouns show person and number. *He, she, him* and *her* show gender. They have different subject and object forms (except *you, it* and *one* which have only one form):

subject	object	number	gender	person
<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>	singular		first
<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	singular or plural		second
<i>he</i>	<i>him</i>	singular	masculine	third
<i>she</i>	<i>her</i>	singular	feminine	third
<i>it</i>	<i>it</i>	singular		third
<i>we</i>	<i>us</i>	plural		first
<i>they</i>	<i>them</i>	plural		third
<i>one</i>	<i>one</i>	generic		third

Subject and object pronouns**289a**

Personal subject pronouns act as the subject of a clause. We use them before a verb to show who is doing the verb. We do not usually leave out the pronoun:

***She** loves playing basketball.*

Not: ... ~~loves playing~~ basketball.

***They** don't finish the lesson until four o'clock.*

***It's** getting late.*

We use personal object pronouns in all other positions, such as after the verb or after a preposition:

*Paula's coming to visit **us** in September. (us = object)*

*Thanks again for everything you did for **me**. (for me = prepositional phrase)*

We also use personal object pronouns as complements of the verb *be*:

*That's **him**. That's the man I was talking about. (him = complement of be)*

We can use some object pronouns (*me, him, her, us* and *them*) as short answers, particularly in informal speaking:

A: *Who ate all the biscuits?*

B: ***Me**.* (or more formally: *I did.*)

I, me**289b**

We use *I* and *me* to refer to the speaker or writer. *I* is the subject form and *me* is the object form:

***I** can't come on Friday. **I'm** working.*

***I** am writing to apply for the position of ...*

*Helen asked **me** to get some milk.*

***It's me**. Can you open the door? **I** haven't got my key. (It is *I*. is not often used. It is very formal.)*

 We sometimes hear *me* used as a subject in informal speaking after another subject + *and*:

*My friends and **me** went on holiday to a little town on the south coast. (or *Me and my friends went on holiday ...*; *My friends and I went ...* is considered to be more correct.)*

We sometimes use *us* to refer to *me* in informal speaking:

*Pass **us** an orange, will you?*

You**289c**

We use *you* to refer to the listener or reader. It is both the subject and the object form. *You* can refer to one person or more than one person. It is usually clear from the context whether *you* is singular or plural:

*Paul, do **you** need any help? (refers to one person, Paul)*

[coach to team]

*The match starts at 10.30. I need **you** to be here at 10.* (refers to a group of people)

We sometimes use *you all* to address everyone in a group:

*What would **you all** like to eat?*

In informal contexts, we also use *you* to refer to people in general, not someone specific:

***You** get a pension if **you're** a man over the age of 65 or a woman over 60.*

He, him; she, her

289d

He, him, she and her are singular third person pronouns. *He* and *him* are the masculine forms. *She* and *her* are the feminine forms:

A: *Have you seen Johnny Roberts recently?*

B: *Yes I saw **him** in town last week. **He's** looking really well.*

***She** didn't like the way he spoke to **her**.*

Traditionally, *he* and *him* were used to refer to both genders in formal writing:

*If anyone has any evidence to oppose this view, let **him** inform the police immediately.*

Nowadays, we often see gender neutral forms (e.g. *he or she, he/she, s/he, (s)he, they and him or her, him/her, them*) when we do not know if the person referred to is male or female:

*The bank manager could help with your problem. **He or she** will probably be able to give you a loan. (or ... **he/she** will probably be able to ... or ... **they** will probably be able to ...)*

*Go to a hairdresser. Ask **him or her** to come up with a style that suits you, your hair, your lifestyle. (or ... ask **him/her** to come up with a style ... or ... ask **them** to come up with a style ...)*

*When you get into the building, go to the person on the desk in the reception area. **They** can tell you where to go. (or **He or she** can tell you where to go.)*

→ One 247; Sexist language ●

It

289e

We use *it* to refer to things:

*My computer isn't working. **It's** crashed again. Can you have a look at **it**?*

We use *it* as an empty pronoun, also known as a 'dummy' subject, where there is no other subject to put in the subject position, particularly when referring to the weather or time:

***It's** so lovely to see you.*

***It's** already ten o'clock.*

***It's** snowing.*

We usually use *it* to refer to countries, vehicles and machines. In some traditional styles, *she* was sometimes used, but this is now considered inappropriate by many people:

*We spent three weeks in Malaysia. **It's** a beautiful country.*

*Three hours after the ship sailed, **it** developed engine trouble. (or, more traditionally: ... she developed engine trouble.)*

→ Subjects 333; *It* 184; Sexist language **O**; Dummy subjects 333b

We, us

289f

We use *we* and *us* to refer to different groups of people, but always including the speaker. *We* and *us* can refer to the speaker + the listener, or the speaker + other people but not the listener, or people in general including the speaker:

We could go and see a film tonight. What do you think? (we = speaker + listener)

*Gerald asked **us** if **we**'d drive to London and get you. (us/we = speaker + others but not listener you)*

*Changing diet, rather than dieting, is a healthier alternative. There are changes **we** should all make. (we = speaker + listener + all other people)*

They, them

289g

We use *they* and *them* to refer to specific groups of people, things and animals:

*The kids are getting on my nerves. **They**'re making so much noise. Can you tell **them** to be quiet? I'm trying to work.*

*A: Have you seen my keys? I never remember where I've left **them**.*

*B: **They**'re by the front door.*

We also use *they* and *them* to refer to institutions or authorities, and groups of people in general:

*I heard **they**'re going to publish a new edition of 'War and Peace'.*

***They**'re opening the new motorway tomorrow.*

→ Pronouns 287; *One* 247

Pronouns: one, you, we, they

290

One, you, we and *they* are generic personal pronouns. We can use *one, you, we* and *they* to refer to 'people in general'.

One, you and we

290a

We can use *one, you* or *we* when we are making generalisations and not referring to any one person in particular. When used like this, *one, you* and *we* can include the speaker or writer:

***One** can use the Internet without understanding cookies. (or **You** can use ... or **We** can use ...)*

***You** usually need a raincoat in Ireland. It rains a lot.*

***We** tend to avoid talking about money.*

One is much more formal than *you* or *we*, and is rare in speaking:

***One** would have thought that agreement could be reached easily on that matter.*

We can use *one's* before a noun as a possessive determiner:

*Conversations with **one's** children are extremely predictable, especially as they hit adolescence.*

They 290b

We can use *they* to talk about a wide group of people, such as an authority or an institution. In such cases, *they* does not refer to specific people:

***They're** chopping down the rainforests.*

***They've** opened a new cinema in the town centre.*

***They** started running yoga classes at the school.*

We use *they* and *them* to refer back to the indefinite pronouns *someone*, *anyone*, *everyone* (underlined below) when we do not know the number or gender. We also use *they* and *them* in question tags:

*If someone comes with a parcel for me, can you ask **them** to take it next door.*

*I believe anyone can do anything if **they** really want to enough, can't **they**?*

→Pronouns: personal 289; Pronouns: possessive 291; Possessive 's 272a; One 247

Pronouns: possessive (my, mine, your, yours, etc.) 291

We use pronouns to refer to possession and 'belonging'. There are two types: possessive pronouns and possessive determiners. We use possessive determiners before a noun. We use possessive pronouns in place of a noun:

*Is that ^[determiner] **your** scarf? It's very similar to ^[pronoun] **mine**. (It's very similar to my scarf.)*

*That's not ^[determiner] **their** house. ^[pronoun] **Theirs** has got a red front door.*

*It was ^[determiner] **his** fault not ^[pronoun] **hers**.*

personal pronoun	possessive determiner	possessive pronoun
<i>I</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>mine</i>
<i>you</i> (singular and plural)	<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>
<i>he</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>his</i>
<i>she</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>hers</i>
<i>it</i>	<i>its</i>	<i>its*</i>
<i>we</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>ours</i>
<i>they</i>	<i>their</i>	<i>theirs</i>
<i>one</i>	<i>one's</i>	<i>one's*</i>

*We avoid using *its* and *one's* as possessive pronouns except when we use them with *own*:

*The house seemed asleep yet, as I have said, it had a life of **its own**.*

*One doesn't like to spend too much time on **one's own**.*

Typical errors

- We don't use 's after possessive pronouns:

*Are those gloves **hers**?*

Not: ~~Are those gloves her's?~~

- 's is not used with the possessive pronoun *its*. *It's* means 'it is':

*The team is proud of **its** ability to perform consistently well.*

Not: ... proud of ~~it's~~ ability ...

- We don't use another determiner with a possessive determiner:

*I'm going to get **my** hair cut this afternoon.*

Not: ... ~~get the my~~ hair cut ...

- We don't use possessive determiners on their own. They are always at the beginning of noun phrases:

*That's not **my** book. It's **yours**. (or It's **your** book.)*

Not: ~~It's your~~.

- We don't use possessive pronouns before nouns:

*Lots of **our** friends were at the party.*

Not: ~~Lots of ours~~ friends ...

→ Possessives: *with of* 272b; Possessive 's 272a; Pronouns: personal 289; *It's or its?* 186; *One* 247

Pronouns: reflexive (*myself, themselves, etc.*) 292

Reflexive pronouns end in *-self* or *-selves*. They refer back to the subject forms of personal pronouns (underlined in the example below):

*We didn't decorate it **ourselves**. Someone else did it for us.*

subject pronoun	reflexive pronoun
<i>I</i>	<i>myself</i>
<i>you</i> (singular)	<i>yourself</i>
<i>he</i>	<i>himself</i>
<i>she</i>	<i>herself</i>
<i>it</i>	<i>itself</i>
<i>one</i>	<i>oneself</i>
<i>we</i>	<i>ourselves</i>
<i>you</i> (plural)	<i>yourselves</i>
<i>they</i>	<i>themselves</i>

Reflexive pronouns for same subject and object**292a**

We often use reflexive pronouns when the subject and the object of the verb refer to the same person or thing:

He cut **himself** on the broken glass.

She made **herself** a cup of tea and sat down in front of the television.

Parents often blame **themselves** for the way their children behave.

We use a reflexive pronoun to make it clear who or what is being referred to.

↔ Compare

Agnes looked at herself in the mirror.	The subject and the object are the same.
Agnes looked at her in the mirror.	The subject and the object are different. Agnes is looking at someone else in the mirror.

Reflexive pronouns for emphasis**292b**

We can use reflexive pronouns for emphasis:

*The director of the company wrote to us **himself** to apologise for the dreadful service.
(or The director of the company **himself** wrote to us to apologise for the dreadful service.)*

We don't use reflexive pronouns on their own as the subject of a clause, but we can use them with a noun or pronoun to emphasise the subject:

*Parents and teachers always pass on to children what **they themselves** have been told, and this has been going on for hundreds, or even thousands of years.*

Reflexive pronouns + by meaning alone**292c**

We often use reflexive pronouns with *by* to mean 'alone' or 'without any help':

*Why don't you go **by yourself**?*

*The children made the entire meal **by themselves**.*

Reflexive pronouns for politeness**292d**

We sometimes use reflexive pronouns instead of personal pronouns for politeness, but not as the subject of a clause:

*The National Trust is a charity depending on the support of people like **yourselves**. (or ... people like you.)*



We don't use reflexive pronouns with verbs of everyday actions unless we want to emphasise something:

*She **washed** and **dressed** and had breakfast in the tiny kitchen.*

Not: *She washed herself and dressed herself ...*

→ Pronouns: personal 289; *Each other, one another* 112

Punctuation

293

The most common punctuation marks in English are: capital letters and full stops, question marks, commas, colons and semi-colons, exclamation marks and quotation marks.

In speaking, we use pauses and the pitch of the voice to make what we say clear. Punctuation plays a similar role in writing, making it easier to read.

Punctuation consists of both rules and conventions. There are rules of punctuation that have to be followed; but there are also punctuation conventions that give writers greater choice.

Punctuation: capital letters (B, D) and full stops (.)

293a

We use capital letters to mark the beginning of a sentence and we use full stops to mark the end of a sentence:

We went to France last summer. We were really surprised that it was so easy to travel on the motorways.

The Football World Cup takes place every four years. The next World Cup will be held in South Africa. In 2006 it was held in Germany.

We also use capital letters at the beginning of proper nouns. Proper nouns include personal names (including titles before names), nationalities and languages, days of the week and months of the year, public holidays as well as geographical places:

Dr David James is the consultant at Leeds City Hospital.

They are planning a long holiday in New Zealand.

Can she speak Japanese?

The next meeting of the group will take place on Thursday.

What plans do you have for Chinese New Year?

We use capital letters for the titles of books, magazines and newspapers, plays and music:

'Oliver' is a musical based on the novel 'Oliver Twist' by Charles Dickens.

The Straits Times is a daily English language newspaper in Singapore.

They are performing Beethoven's Sixth Symphony.

In addition to closing sentences, we also use full stops in initials for personal names:

G. W. Dwyer

David A. Johnston, Accountant

Full stops are also used after abbreviations, although this practice is becoming less common:

Arr. (arrival)

etc. (etcetera)

Dr. (doctor)

Prof. (professor)

→ Noun phrases 234

Punctuation: question marks (?) and exclamation marks (!)**293b**

We use question marks to make clear that what is said is a question. When we use a question mark, we do not use a full stop:

Why do they make so many mistakes?

A: So you're Harry's cousin?

B: Yes. That's right.

We use exclamation marks to indicate an exclamative clause or expression in informal writing. When we want to emphasise something in informal writing, we sometimes use more than one exclamation mark:

Listen!

Oh no!!! Please don't ask me to phone her. She'll talk for hours!!!

→Exclamative clauses 71d**Punctuation: commas (,)****293c**

We use commas to separate a list of similar words or phrases:

It's important to write in clear, simple, accurate words.

They were more friendly, more talkative, more open than last time we met them.

We do not normally use a comma before *and* at the end of a list of single words:

They travelled through Bulgaria, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Poland.

American English does use a comma in lists before *and*:

We took bread, cheese, and fruit with us.

We use commas to separate words or phrases that mark where the voice would pause slightly:

I can't tell you now. However, all will be revealed tomorrow at midday.

We had, in fact, lost all of our money.

James, our guide, will accompany you on the boat across to the island.

Separating clauses with commas

When main clauses are separated by *and*, *or*, *but*, we don't normally use a comma if the clauses have the same subject. However, we sometimes use commas if the clauses have different subjects:

They were very friendly and invited us to their villa in Portugal. (same subject)

Footballers these days earn more money but they are fitter and play many more matches. (same subject)

It was an expensive hotel in the centre of Stockholm, but we decided it was worth the money. (different subjects)

When a subordinate clause comes before the main clause, we commonly use a comma to separate the clauses. However, we do not always do this in short sentences:

If you get lost in the city centre, please don't hesitate to text us or phone us.

If you get lost just phone us.

When we use subordinate or non-finite comment clauses to give further details or more information, we commonly use commas to separate the clauses:

You do need to wear a darker jacket, if I may say so.

To be honest, I thought they were very very rude.

Commas and relative clauses

We use commas to mark non-defining clauses. Such clauses normally add extra, non-essential information about the noun or noun phrase:

The ambulance, which arrived after just five minutes, took three people to the hospital immediately.

Hong Kong, where the first ASEAN meeting was held, is a very different city now.

The same is true for non-finite clauses:

The storm, lasting as it did for several days, caused serious damage to villages near the coast.

! We don't use commas to mark defining clauses:

Barcelona was the Spanish city that was selected for the Olympic Games.

Not: ... the Spanish-city, that was selected ...

→Clauses 68

Commas and speech forms

We commonly separate tags and *yes-no* responses with commas:

They are going to the party, aren't they?

No, thank you. I've already eaten too much.

We also usually separate vocatives, discourse markers and interjections with commas:

*Open the door for them, **Kayleigh**, can you. Thanks.* (vocative)

***Well**, what do you think we should do about it?* (discourse marker)

***Wow**, that sounds really exciting.* (interjection)

We use commas to show that direct speech is following or has just occurred:

He said in his opening speech, 'Now is the time to plan for the future.' (or *He said in his opening speech: 'Now is the time to plan for the future.'*)

When the direct speech is first, we use a comma before the closing of the quotation marks:

'We don't want to go on holiday to the same place every year,' he said impatiently.

→Reported speech 312

Punctuation: colons (:) and semi-colons (;)

293d

We use colons to introduce lists:

There are three main reasons for the success of the government: economic, social and political.

We also use colons to indicate a subtitle or to indicate a subdivision of a topic:

Life in Provence: A Personal View

We often use colons to introduce direct speech:

Then he said: 'I really cannot help you in any way.'

We commonly use a colon between sentences when the second sentence explains or justifies the first sentence:

Try to keep your flat clean and tidy: it will sell more easily.

We use semi-colons instead of full stops to separate two main clauses. In such cases, the clauses are related in meaning but are separated grammatically:

Spanish is spoken throughout South America; in Brazil the main language is Portuguese.

Semi-colons are not commonly used in contemporary English. Full stops and commas are more common.

Punctuation: quotation marks ('...' or "...')

293e

Quotation marks in English are '...' or "...". In direct speech, we enclose what is said within a pair of single or double quotation marks, although single quotation marks are becoming more common. Direct speech begins with a capital letter and can be preceded by a comma or a colon:

She said, "Where can we find a nice Indian restaurant?" (or *She said: 'Where can we find a nice Indian restaurant?'*)

We can put the reporting clause in three different positions. Note the position of commas and full stops here:

The fitness trainer said, 'Don't try to do too much when you begin.' (quotation mark after comma introducing speech and after full stop)

'Don't try to do too much when you begin,' the fitness trainer said. (comma before closing quotation mark)

'Don't try to do too much,' the fitness trainer said, 'when you begin.' (commas separating the reporting clause)

When we use direct speech inside direct speech, we use either single quotation marks inside double quotation marks, or double quotation marks inside single quotation marks:

"It was getting really cold," he said, "and they were saying 'When can we go back home?'"

Jaya said, "They were getting really excited and were shouting 'Come on!'"

We commonly use question marks inside the quotation marks unless the question is part of the reporting clause:

'Why don't they know who is responsible?' they asked.

So did they really say 'We will win every match for the next three weeks'?

We also use single quotation marks to draw attention to a word. We can use quotation marks in this way when we want to question the exact meaning of the word:

I am very disappointed by his 'apology'. I don't think he meant it at all.

NEW 'WAR' OVER NORTH SEA FISHING PLANS

We sometimes use quotation marks to refer to the titles of books, newspapers, magazines, films, songs, poems, videos, CDs, etc:

There's a special report all about it in 'The Daily Mail'.

We can use italics instead of quotation marks for these citations:

There's a special report all about it in The Daily Mail.

Articles or chapters within books, or titles of short stories, are normally punctuated by single quotation marks:

The longest chapter in the book is the last one called 'The Future of Africa'.

Punctuation: dashes (–) and other punctuation marks

293f

Dashes are more common in informal writing. They can be used in similar ways to commas or semi-colons. Both single and multiple dashes may be used:

Our teacher – who often gets cross when we're late – wasn't cross at all. No one could believe it!

Just wanted to thank you for a lovely evening – we really enjoyed it.

Brackets have a similar function to dashes. They often add extra, non-essential information:

Thriplow (pronounced 'Triplow') is a small village in the eastern part of England.

We use brackets around dates and page numbers in academic writing:

Heaton (1978) gives a convincing explanation of how hurricanes are formed (pages 27–32).

We often use forward slashes in internet addresses and to indicate *and/or* in academic references:

You can find the figures you need on www.bbc.co.uk/finance

Binks (1995/1997) has already researched this aspect of Roman history.

Punctuation: numerals and punctuation

293g

In British English the date is usually given in the order day, month, year.

We use full stops in dates. Forward slashes or dashes are also commonly used:

Date of birth: 1.8.1985 (or 1/8/1985 or 1–8–1985)

In American English the day and the month are in a different order so that 8 January 1985 is written as follows:

1–8–1985 (or 1/8/1985 or 1.8.1985)

We don't usually punctuate weights and measures and references to numbers:

4kg (4 kilograms) 10m (10 metres) 5m dollars (5 million dollars)

Commas are used in numbers to indicate units of thousands and millions:

7,980 (seven thousand, nine hundred and eighty)

11,487,562 (eleven million, four hundred and eighty-seven thousand, five hundred and sixty-two)

We use full stops, not commas, to indicate decimal points:

6.5 (six point five)

Not: 6,5

We can punctuate times with full stops or colons:

The shop opens at 9.30. (or 9:30)

Saying email and internet addresses **293h**

 When we speak email and web addresses, we say each word separately. To avoid confusion, we sometimes spell out each letter of a word:

Hannah.reeves@lit.com = Hannah dot reeves at l-i-t dot com

miles_hotel.com/home = miles underscore hotel dot com forward slash home

www.theplace.org = www dot theplace (all one word) dot org

Symbols and typographic conventions **293i**

.	full stop	X.X	decimal point (2.2: two point two)
,	comma	*	asterisk
?	question mark	()	parentheses (or round brackets)
!	exclamation mark	[]	square brackets (or box brackets)
:	colon	{ }	curly brackets
;	semi-colon	°	degrees (40°: forty degrees)
“ ”	double quotation marks	%	per cent
‘ ’	single quotation marks	&	and (also called ‘ampersand’)
’	apostrophe	©	copyright
-	hyphen	<	less than
—	dash	>	greater than
+	plus	@	at
—	minus	✓	tick
×	multiplied by (2 × 2: two multiplied by two)	X	cross
÷	divided by (6 ÷ 2: six divided by two)	X_X	underscore (ann_hobbs: ann underscore hobbs)
=	equals		
/	forward slash	\	back slash

→Punctuation 293; Spelling 330

Put**294**

The irregular verb *put* means 'move something into a particular place'. The past simple form is *put* and the *-ed* form is *put*:

*She took off her coat and **put** it on the chair.*

Not: *She took off her coat and ~~putted~~ ...*

*Where did you **put** my glasses?*

Put must have both an object and an expression of place:

[object] [place]

*Please **put** that box on the table.*

Not: *Please ~~put~~ that box.* or *Please ~~put~~ on the table.*

Questions**295**

A question is anything we write or say which requires a response. In writing, questions are usually followed by a question mark:

A: ***Where do you live?***

B: *Near the station, number 41 Station Road, to be exact.*

A: ***Would anyone like to go for lunch now?***

B: *Yeah, me for sure.*

C: *Me too.*

Typical question clauses are called interrogatives and the normal word order is auxiliary/modal verb (AUX/MOD) + subject (s) + main verb (v) + x, where x is any other element present (e.g. object/predicate complement):

[AUX] [s] [v] [x]

Do you like my new hairstyle?

[MOD] [s] [v] [x]

Must you make that noise?

Questions can be affirmative or negative:

Are you ready yet? Aren't you ready yet?

Why did you leave? Why didn't you leave?

In speaking, questions usually have a particular type of intonation that tells the listener that they are questions.

→ **Intonation 180; Questions: statement questions 301; Tags 343; Imperative tags 343d; Question tags 343c; Statement tags 343e; Universal tags 343f**

Questions that don't need an answer (rhetorical questions)

In speaking and writing, we sometimes ask questions which do not require a spoken or written response, but they usually require a mental response. The listener or reader thinks about the answer but does not say or write it; the speaker or writer answers the question in their mind. We often use these questions in academic lectures and texts:

*Knowing taxation laws is important. **Why is that?** These laws help us ...*

Why was Freud so influential? This is an interesting question which this essay will explore in detail.

→ Questions: echo and checking questions 299

Questions: yes-no questions (Are you feeling cold?)

296

Questions that need either a *yes* or a *no* answer are called *yes-no* questions:

Do you like vanilla ice cream? (answer: *yes* or *no*)

Have you ever seen a ghost? (answer: *yes* or *no*)

Forming yes-no questions

296a

With an auxiliary verb

We form *yes-no* questions with an auxiliary verb (*be*, *do* or *have*) + subject + main verb or with a modal verb + subject + main verb:

Be: Is she working very hard?

Were they travelling together?

Do: Does that taste okay?

Did you go to the concert?

Have: Have they eaten yet?

Had they visited Rome before?

Modal: Could you help me lift this?

Should I open the window?

Where there is no auxiliary verb *be*, *have* or modal verb already present in the statement, we use the auxiliary *do*, *does*, *did*:

Statement form (no auxiliary)

You usually walk to work.

You liked disco music in the 70s.

Question form

Do you usually walk to work?

Not: *Walk you...?*

Did you like disco music in the 70s?

Not: *Liked you...?*

We don't use an auxiliary verb when we use *be* as a main verb:

Is she your sister?

Not: *Does she be your sister?*



When there is more than one auxiliary verb or a modal verb plus auxiliary verb(s), we only put the first auxiliary or the modal verb before the subject and the others after the subject:

Auxiliary + subject + auxiliary + verb

Is this phone call being recorded?

Not: *Is being this phone-call recorded?* or *Is being-recorded this-phone-call?*

Auxiliary + subject + auxiliary + verb

Has the garden been looked after while you were away?

Not: *Has been the garden looked after while you were away?* or *Has-been-looked after the garden while you were away?*

Modal + subject + auxiliary + auxiliary + verb

Should we have been writing this down?

Not: ~~Should have we been writing this down?~~

We only put auxiliary and modal verbs, not main verbs, before the subject:

Where did you find the keys?

Not: ~~Where did find you the keys?~~

→ Be 53; Have 154

Without an auxiliary verb

When we ask yes-no questions using the main verb *be*, we don't use an auxiliary verb. The word order is: *be* + subject:

Is the weather nice in Turkey in the winter?

Was she angry when you told her about the accident?

When we ask yes-no questions with the main verb *have*, we can also use the word order verb + subject, but it sounds rather formal. We use *have got* and *do* as more neutral or informal alternatives:

Have you an identity card? (formal)

Do you have an identity card? (neutral)

Have you got an identity card? (informal)

! When we ask questions with the main verb *have* in the past to refer to possession, we use *did ... have* rather than *had ... got*:

Did you have your glasses with you when you left the car?

Had you got your glasses with you when you left the car? (less common)

Responding to yes-no questions**296b**

Other ways of saying *yes* and *no* include *yeah*, *yep*, *mm*, *okay*, and *nah*, *nope*. These are informal:

A: *Would you like to play tennis with me later?*

B: **Okay**. (meaning *yes*)

A: *Have you seen Greg?*

B: **Nope**. (meaning *no*)

We can also give more than just a *yes* or *no* answer. We sometimes add more information:

A: *Can I grow potatoes in a pot?*

B: *Yeah. They grow really well in pots.*

A: *Will you be going to Ryan's party?*

B: *No. I'm actually going to be away on Friday night.*

Sometimes we don't use *yes* or *no* as a reply but the answer that we give means *yes* or *no*:

A: *Do you know Tina Gomez?*

B: *We've known each other for years. We went to the same school.* (meaning *yes*)

A: *Do you have the Thrills latest album?*

B: *I'm afraid we've just sold the last one!* (meaning *no*)

We sometimes respond using the auxiliary verb from the question instead of *yes* and *no*:

A: *Hey Tim, did you go fishing today?*

B: *I **did**. I went with the boys.*

A: *Has Jason had breakfast?*

B: *He **hasn't**. He's still in bed.*

Negative yes-no questions

296c

We usually use negative *yes-no* questions to check or confirm something we believe or expect to be the case, or when we consider that something is the best thing to do:

***Isn't** that Pauline's car?* (I'm pretty sure that this is correct. I'm asking for confirmation.)

***Shouldn't** we be leaving?* (I think that we should leave now.)

We form negative *yes-no* questions with *not*. We usually use the contraction *n't*. If we use *not* in its full form, the question sounds very formal:

***Isn't** that the oldest building on this street?*

I When using the full form *not*, the order auxiliary + subject (s) + *not* is more common than auxiliary + *not* + subject:

[AUX] [s] [not]

*Is that **not** the oldest building in this street?* (formal) (preferred to [the very formal] *Is **not** that the oldest building on this street?*)

We can use negative *yes-no* questions to make invitations, offers and complaints stronger:

***Won't** you stay for dinner?* (invitation; stronger than *Will you stay for dinner?*)

***Wouldn't** you like another coffee?* (offer; stronger than *Would you like another coffee?*)

***Can't** the manager do something about the noise?* (complaint; stronger than *Can the manager do something about the noise?*)

→Requests 316; Invitations 182; Offers 243; Imperatives as offers and invitations 172h; Invitations 182; Politeness 271; Hedges 162

Intonation and yes-no questions

296d

The intonation of *yes-no* questions is normally either rising [rising arrow] or fall-rising [down up arrow] intonation depending on the meaning. If we do not know the answer, we use rising intonation. If we more or less know the answer and are looking for confirmation, we use fall-rising intonation:

*Are you **warm** enough?*

*Did you once **live** in Ireland?* (I think the answer is *yes*.)

We often use fall-rising intonation with *yes-no* questions when asking a number of questions together:

A: *You're living **in** Bayswater?* [Question 1]

B: *Yeah. That's right.*

A: Are you *renting your* house? [Question 2]

B: Yeah, we are.

A: Is it *expensive*? [Question 3]

B: It's not very expensive for somewhere so near the city centre.

→ Intonation 180

Questions: *wh*-questions

297

Wh-questions begin with *what*, *when*, *where*, *who*, *whom*, *which*, *whose*, *why* and *how*.

We use them to ask for information. The answer cannot be *yes* or *no*:

A: **When** do you finish college?

B: Next year.

A: **Who** is your favourite actor?

B: George Clooney for sure!

Forming *wh*-questions

297a

With an auxiliary verb

We usually form *wh*-questions with *wh*- + an auxiliary verb (*be*, *do* or *have*) + subject + main verb or with *wh*- + a modal verb + subject + main verb:

Be: When **are** you leaving?

Who's **been** paying the bills?

Do: Where **do** they live?

Why **didn't** you call me?

Have: What **has** she done now?

What **have** they decided?

Modal: Who **would** she stay with?

Where **should** I park?

Without an auxiliary verb

! When *what*, *who*, *which* or *whose* is the subject or part of the subject, we do not use the auxiliary. We use the word order subject + verb:

What fell off the wall?

Which horse won?

Who bought this?

Whose phone rang?

↔ Compare

Who owns this bag?	Who is the subject of the sentence and <i>this bag</i> is the object. We use no auxiliary verb.
Who do you love most?	Who is the object of the sentence and <i>you</i> is the subject. We use the auxiliary verb <i>do</i> .

Responding to *wh*-questions

297b

Wh-questions ask for information and we do not expect a *yes-no* answer to a *wh*-question. We expect an answer which gives information:

A: Where's the coffee machine? (We expect an answer about the location of the coffee machine.)

B: It's in the room next to the reception.

A: *How old is your dog?* (We expect an answer about the age of the dog.)
 B: *She's about five. I'm not very sure.*

Adding emphasis to *wh*-questions

297c

We can add emphasis to *wh*-questions in speaking by stressing the auxiliary verb *do*. We usually do this when we have not already received the information that we expected from an earlier question, or to show strong interest.

When the *wh*-word is the object of the sentence, the *do* auxiliary is stressed to make it more emphatic:

A: *How was your weekend in Edinburgh?*
 B: *I didn't go to Edinburgh.*
 A: Really. Where **did** you go?
 B: *We decided to go to Glasgow instead.*

When the *wh*-word is the subject of the sentence, we can add the auxiliary *do* to make it emphatic. We stress *do*:

A: *Ronald Price lives in that house, doesn't he?*
 B: *No. He moved out.*
 A: So **who does** live there? (non-emphatic question: *So who lives there?*)
 B: *Actually, his son is living there now.*

→ Intonation and *wh*-questions 297f

Negative *wh*-questions

297d

When we ask negative *wh*-questions, we use the auxiliary verb *do* when there is no other auxiliary or modal verb, even when the *wh*-word is the subject of the clause:

Affirmative with no auxiliary	Negative with auxiliary <i>do</i>
<i>Who wants an ice cream?</i>	<i>Who doesn't want an ice cream?</i>
<i>Which door opened?</i>	<i>Which door didn't open?</i>

Adding a *wh*-word at the end of a statement to make a question 297e



In speaking, we can sometimes turn *wh*-questions into statement questions:

What's today's date? or *Today's date is what?*

We do this especially when we are checking information that we have already been given or when we want to quickly check a particular detail. These are less formal than full *wh*-questions:

A: *So we're all going to be there at eight?*
 B: *Right, I'm travelling with Larry.*
 A: ***You're travelling with who?*** (more formal: *Who are you travelling with?*)
 B: *With Larry. We're actually going on our bikes.*
 A: *Is your sister here too or just your mother?*
 B: *Just my mother.*
 A: ***And she's here until when?*** (more formal: *And when is she here until?* or even more formal: *Until when is she here?*)

→ Questions: statement questions 301; Questions: echo and checking questions 299

Intonation and *wh*-questions**297f**

The intonation of *wh*-questions is normally falling. The falling intonation is on the most important syllable:

*Where are the keys to the back **door**?*

*Why are the lights **red**?*

When we ask *wh*-questions to check or clarify information that has already been given, we may use rising or fall-rising intonation:

***What** did you say the time was? (I know you've told me before but I've forgotten.)*

***Who** ~~paid~~ for the meal?*

→ Adding emphasis to *wh*-questions 297c**Prepositions and particles with *wh*-questions****297g**

We can use *wh*-words and phrases after prepositions in more formal questions:

***Where** will the money come **from**?*

***From where** will the money come? (formal)*

 In informal styles, especially in speaking, the preposition may be separated and placed at the end of the question clause:

***What** will I talk to her **about**?*

***Who** should we send the invitation **to**? (informal)*

***Whom** should we send the invitation **to**? (formal)*

***To whom** should we send the invitation? (more formal)*

***For what reason** did she leave him? (formal: preposition + *wh*-phrase)*

When we make questions shorter, we usually put the preposition and its complement together:

A: *We're all meeting up tonight.*

B: ***At what** time?*

Not: *What time at?*

→ Questions: short forms 304

When we ask questions using verbs consisting of a main verb + particle, e.g. *get up*, *set out* (phrasal verbs), we do not separate the verb from the particle or preposition:

***When** did you **wake up** this morning?*

Not: *Up-when did you wake?*

→ Verbs: multi-word verbs 363**Questions: alternative questions (*Is it black or grey?*)****298**

An alternative question gives a choice of two or more answers in the question and includes *or*:

[choice 1] [choice 2]

*Would you like **some ice cream or some cake**?*

Forming alternative questions

298a

With an auxiliary verb

We usually form alternative questions with an auxiliary verb (*be, do or have*) + subject + main verb or with a modal verb + subject + main verb:

Are we eating in or out this evening? (answer: *We're eating in.* or *We're eating out.*)

Does she work in the city or in the suburbs? (answer: *She works in the city.* or *She works in the suburbs.*)

Will they buy a house or rent somewhere? (answer: *They'll buy a house.* or *They'll rent somewhere.*)

! When we ask alternative questions using the main verb *be*, we don't use an auxiliary verb. The word order is: *be* + subject:

Is this the front or the back of the dress?

Different types of alternative question

298b

We can also ask alternative questions using *or not?* This is a very direct question and sometimes it can express annoyance or impatience:

[choice 1] [choice 2]

*Are you coming **or not?***

[choice 1] [choice 2]

*Do you want to go to the cinema **or not?***

Alternative questions can be answered as *yes-no* questions, depending on the context:

A: Are there **trains or buses** from the airport to Belgrade?

B: Yes, there are. (There are both trains and buses.)

(or *There's a train./There's a bus.*)

Alternative questions can be *wh*-questions:

*Which do you prefer, **with or without salt?***

*Which is best, to water the plant **every day or just once a week?***

Reduced alternative questions (*tea or coffee?*)

298c

! Sometimes in informal speaking, we make alternative questions shorter by just saying the alternatives:

A: *Would you like a coffee?*

B: *That'd be great.*

A: **Black or white?**

B: *Black, please.*

A: *Are you renting an apartment in London?*

B: *Yeah, very near Paddington Station.*

A: **Sharing or on your own?**

B: *I'm sharing with some old friends.*

Responding to alternative questions**298**

We can answer an alternative question in different ways, but we do not normally answer *yes*:

A: *Would you like mayonnaise or butter on it?*

Possible responses:

B: *Mayonnaise, please.*

Butter, please.

Both, please.

Neither, thanks. (*Neither* means that you don't want mayonnaise or butter.)

No, thanks. (*No* means that you don't want either alternative.)

Not: *Yes.*

Questions: echo and checking questions**299**

 We use echo questions to repeat part of what we have just heard when we don't fully understand or when we want to confirm what we have heard. We use rising or fall-rising intonation:

A: *Did you hear Pete's giving up his job.*

B: *Pete's giving up his job?*

Echo questions are often statements (declaratives) with a *wh*-word at the end:

A: *His name is Thokosani.*

B: *His name is what?*

In speaking we sometimes ask questions of ourselves as we speak. We do this when we are trying to remember specific information or to show that we are not sure or when we want our listener to confirm something:

[trying to remember/showing uncertainty]

There's a great new restaurant on that street, what was it called, Marco's, I think.

[looking for confirmation]

A: *Fiona is coming to stay in June, when is it, the last weekend in June?*

B: *Yeah, I think that's right.*

→ Questions: follow-up questions 300

Question: follow-up questions**300**

 In conversation, we often ask short questions about something that somebody else has just said. There are a number of types.

Reduced *wh*-questions

We often reduce *wh*-questions in conversation because the speaker and the listener know the context. In the following examples, the short form of the question is more correct, because the full form would sound artificial:

A: *I need to go to the shop.*

B: **What for?** (full form: *What are you going to the shop for?*)

A: *We need bread and milk.*

A: *I'm going out tonight.*

B: **Who with?** (full form: *Who are you going out with?*)

A: *Oh, just some friends.*

→ Questions: short forms 304; Questions: *wh*-questions 297

Follow-up questions to show interest or surprise

 We often use follow-up questions when we are listening, to show that we are interested or surprised. They often do not need a response. They are like response tokens such as *really, okay, yeah*. Follow-up questions are sometimes called reply questions.

Follow-up questions are formed using the auxiliary verb or modal verb contained in the statement that the question is responding to. If there is no auxiliary verb or modal verb in the statement, we use *do* in the present and *did* in the past (the verbs in the statements are underlined):

A: *I left school when I was 14.*

B: **Did you?** Really?

A: *It was in the 1950s. Many kids left school early then.*

A: *Carla's decided to move to Spain.*

B: **Has she?** Good for her.

A: *I can't watch horror movies.*

B: **Can't you?**

A: *I just can't. They frighten me too much.*

Questions: statement questions (you're over 18?)

301

We can use statements (declaratives) to ask *yes-no* questions. In writing we know they are questions because they have question marks. In speaking we know they are questions because of the context, and often because of their intonation:

Question form

Is that your father?

Do we pay at the end?

Has she worked in a hotel before?

Statement as question

That's your father?

We pay at the end?

She's worked in a hotel before?

Statement questions can be affirmative or negative:

A: *So you're from London? (rising intonation)*

B: *Yeah, that's right.*

A: *So you're not from London? (rising intonation)*

B: *No, I'm from Manchester originally.*

The intonation of a statement question depends on its meaning. We use statement questions when we think we know the answer to the question and we want to find out if we're right. In these cases we can use falling intonation:

A: *Right, so today is the 8th.*

B: *Yep.* (Yep is an informal way of saying yes.)

↔ Compare

<i>You went to Northbridge High School?</i>	Rising intonation: I think you went to Northbridge High School but I am not sure.
<i>You went to Northbridge High School?</i>	Falling intonation: I am very sure that you went to Northbridge High School.

We can also use statement questions to express surprise. When we express surprise, we use rising intonation (indicated in the examples below with ↗):

A: *I've made a coffee cake.*

B: *That's a coffee cake?*

A: *Friday is Kyle's last day at work.*

B: *Kyle's leaving?*

Questions: two-step questions

302

In speaking, we sometimes ask two questions together. The first question is just an introduction for the listener. We use these especially when we don't want to be too direct:

[1] *What do you think about this building?* [2] *I mean, do you like it?*

(The first question introduces the topic of the building, the second one asks a more specific question about it. The listener answers the second question.)

[1] *Do you miss home?* [2] *Like, do you miss your mother's cooking?*

(The first question introduces the topic of missing home, the second one asks a more specific question about it. The listener answers the second question.)

Two-step yes-no questions

302a

We sometimes use yes-no questions one after the other. The first question is an introduction to the topic and the speaker usually knows the answer. The second question is more specific.

↔ Compare

A: <i>Are you driving to college tomorrow?</i>	A: <i>Could I have a lift with you if you are driving to college?</i>
B: <i>Yeah. I'm hoping to leave at 8 am.</i>	B: <i>Yeah sure. I'm hoping to leave at 8 am.</i>
A: <i>Could I have a lift with you?</i>	

The first question is introductory. A knows that B usually drives to college. The second question is more specific. By asking the question in two stages, the speaker is being less direct with the listener.

A asks B for a lift to college all in one question. This is correct too, but it is slightly more direct.

Pre-questions in two-step questions

302b

Sometimes we ask if we can ask a question. This is very polite:

A: *Do you mind if I ask you a personal question?*

B: *Sure.*

A: *Do you like Janie?*

B: *Well, most of the time, I do.*

In formal contexts, such as interviews, we commonly use these polite pre-questions before we ask the main question:

May I ask you a question about your last job? Why did you leave it?

We can add *just* and *please* to make them even more polite:

Polite

Can I ask a question?

May I ask a question?

Could I ask a question?

More polite

*Can I **just** ask a question, **please**?*

*May I **just** ask a question, **please**?*

*Could I **just** ask a question, **please**?*

→ Politeness 271

Two-step questions that suggest the answer

302c

We also use two-step questions to first ask a question and then suggest an answer with a rising or fall-rising intonation. The speaker is quite sure of the answer and wants the listener to confirm it:

*Where are you from, Helen? **Manchester**?*

A: *When's our flight? **Around eight**?*

B: *Yeah, 8.10 am.*

→ Intonation and yes-no questions 296d

Questions: interrogative pronouns (*what, who*) 303

We use interrogative pronouns to ask questions. They are: *who, which, whom, what* and *whose*. These are also known as *wh*-words. Questions using these are called *wh*-questions:

***Who** called last night?*

***Which** keys are yours?*

***Whom** do I ask for at the desk?*

***What** did you do when the electricity failed?*

***Whose** watch is this?*

Interrogative pronouns: uses

303a

We use *who* and *whom* on their own:

Who paid?

Whom did you speak to?

We can use *whose*, *which* and *what* either on their own (as pronouns) or with a noun head (underlined):

As pronouns

Whose are these books?

Which did you buy?

What is the number on the door?

With a noun head

Whose books are these?

Which sweater did you buy?

What number is your house?

We can use *who*, *whose*, *which* and *what* both as subject and object:

Who is the best footballer in the world? (*who* as subject)

Who did you meet? (*who* as object)

What happened next? (*what* as subject)

What did you buy? (*what* as object)

Who or whom?

We use *whom* as an object in formal styles. When we use a preposition before *whom*, it is even more formal. We don't normally use it in speaking:

Whom did you give the book to? (formal)

To whom did you give the book? (very formal) Or, less formally: **Who** did you give the book to?

What or which?

We use *what* when we ask about specific information from a general range of possible answers:

What's the tallest building in the world?

What did you say? I couldn't hear you.

What's your address?

We use *which* when we ask for specific information from a restricted range of possible answers:

[looking at a list of addresses]

A: **Which** is your address?

B: *This one here.*

Which hand do you write with?

[looking at a photograph of three women]

Which one is your sister?

Which airport do we leave from, Heathrow or Gatwick?

→ Questions: *wh*-questions 297

Questions: short forms

304

In informal situations, especially in speaking, we can reduce questions rather than using complete clauses. Short questions can be clauses, phrases or even single words:

Full form	Short form
<i>Are you hungry?</i>	<i>You hungry? or Hungry?</i>
<i>Is this your pen?</i>	<i>This your pen?</i>

When we shorten questions, the auxiliary verb and the subject are both often omitted (ellipsis):

- A: *Got the key?* (full form: *Have you got the key?*)
B: *Yeah.*
- A: *Working tonight?* (full form: *Are you working tonight?*)
B: *No, thankfully.*

! We cannot omit the auxiliary verb or the subject if the subject is *I*:

- Have I met you before?*
Not: *Met you before?*
- Am I really the one for this job?*
Not: *I really the one for this job?*

When we know a lot about the context, we often shorten questions:

- A: *Are you looking forward to the party?* (full form)
B: *Not really.*
- A: *Why aren't you?* (full form: *Why aren't you looking forward to the party?*)
B: *I'm not a great fan of parties.*

When we know a lot about the context, it would be unusual and often too formal to use the full form of the question.

↔ Compare

A: <i>Want to go for lunch now?</i> B: <i>Yeah, great.</i> A: <i>The Diner?</i> B: <i>That's perfect.</i>	A and B know each other well and they often go to lunch at The Diner.
A: <i>Do you want to go for lunch now?</i> B: <i>Yeah, great.</i> A: <i>Do you want to go to The Diner?</i> B: <i>That's perfect.</i>	The full forms of the questions are correct but the full form of the second question sounds more formal than the short form.

→ Ellipsis 116

Questions: typical errors

305

- In *wh*-questions, the word order changes from subject + (auxiliary/modal) + main verb to *wh*-word + auxiliary/modal verb + subject + main verb:

What was she eating?

Not: ~~What she was eating?~~

- In *yes-no* questions, the word order changes from subject + (auxiliary verb) + main verb to auxiliary verb + subject + main verb:

Were you talking to Johnny?

Did you tell Rosa about what happened?

- If there is no auxiliary verb in the affirmative, we use *do* before the subject:

***Do** you agree?*

Not: ~~Are you agree?~~

*What **does** art mean?*

Not: ~~What art means?~~ or ~~What means art?~~

- We can only use auxiliary and modal verbs, not main verbs, before the subject:

*Where **was** the painting bought?*

Not: ~~Where was bought the painting?~~

*How **is** the fish cooked?*

Not: ~~How is cooked the fish?~~

- We use *what*, not *which*, to ask about specific information from a general range of possible answers:

***What's** the name of the man who owns your company?*

Not: ~~Which is the name of the man who owns your company?~~

→ Questions: *yes-no* questions 296; Questions: *wh*-questions 297; Questions: interrogative pronouns 303

Quite

306

Quite is a degree adverb. It has two meanings depending on the word that follows it: 'a little, moderately but not very' and 'very, totally or completely':

*He had been **quite** good at drawing when he was at school.* (OK, moderately good but not outstanding)

*They were **quite** excited about moving to a new place.* (a little excited)

*Her life is **quite** different since she moved.* (completely different)

*I remembered the house **quite** clearly now that I was walking towards it.* (completely clearly)

Quite + gradable adjectives and adverbs

306a

When we use *quite* with a gradable adjective or adverb, it usually means 'a little, moderately but not very'. It has a similar meaning to 'rather' or 'fairly':

*That shirt makes you look **quite** smart.* (+ adjective)

*She comes to visit you **quite** often, doesn't she?* (+ frequency adverb)

*He walked **quite** fast until they were out of sight.* (+ adverb)

Quite + non-gradable adjectives and adverbs**306b**

When we use *quite* with a non-gradable adjective or adverb (an extreme adjective or adverb has a maximum and/or minimum, for example *right – wrong*), it usually means ‘very’, ‘totally’ or ‘completely’:

*The scenery was **quite** incredible.*

*Helen had said the food was awful here. She was **quite** right.*

*Steve Jobs, the chairman of Pixar, is **quite** obviously fond of computers.*

 In speaking we give this use of *quite* as much stress as the adjective or adverb.

Quite + nouns**306c**

We can use *quite* + *a/an* before a noun to give it more emphasis or importance:

*There was **quite a** crowd at the party.*

*It makes **quite a** difference when the wind isn't blowing.*

When we use *quite* + *a/an* + adjective + noun it means the same as ‘a little or a lot but not completely’:

*It's **quite a** big company. Around 200 staff.*

*It's **quite a** good book. (It's rather good but not excellent.)*

Quite a bit, quite a few, quite a lot**306d**

We often use *quite* with *a bit*, *a few* and *a lot* to refer to large amounts and quantities:

*You should ask Mez for some advice. He knows **quite a bit** about gardening.*

A: We bought **quite a lot** of new furniture, didn't we?

B: Yeah, **quite a bit**.

*There were **quite a few** of us at the meeting.*

We also use *quite a bit* and *quite a lot* to mean ‘often’:

*Do you come here **quite a bit**?*

*I used to go sailing **quite a lot**.*

→Determiners 98

Quite + a lot/a bit + comparatives

We often use *quite a lot* and *quite a bit* with a comparative adjective or adverb to mean ‘much’:

*We went to Italy when I was **quite a bit** younger.*

*The new truck is **quite a lot** heavier than the old model.*

Quite + verbs**306e**

 In informal speaking, we often use *quite* with *like*, *enjoy*, *understand* and *agree* to talk about our opinions or preferences. Depending on the context, it can mean ‘a bit’, ‘a lot’ or ‘totally’. We usually put it in the normal mid position for adverbs

(between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb):

*I **quite like** tennis but I can never play proper games because I can't serve.* (I like tennis a bit.)

*I **quite enjoy** sitting here and watching people go by.* (I like it a lot.)

*I **quite agree**. You're absolutely right.* (I agree completely.)

*I can **quite understand** that the news would have upset her.* (I totally understand.)

Not quite meaning 'not completely'

306f

We often use *not quite* to mean 'not completely'. We can use it with adjectives, adverbs, nouns, non-finite clauses, prepositional phrases and *wh*-clauses:

*The door was **not quite** closed.* (+ adjective)

*The news was **not quite** as bad as I had expected.* (+ comparative phrase)

*It's **not quite** half past nine.* (+ time phrase)

*She hesitated, **not quite** knowing what to do.* (+ non-finite clause)

*That's **not quite** what I meant.* (+ *wh*-clause)

We can also use *not quite* as a short response:

A: Are you ready?

B: No, **not quite**.

We can use *not quite* with verbs:

*I'm slightly concerned and **don't quite** understand why he didn't come.*

*I **haven't quite** got the money to get my laptop yet.*

→ Quiet or quite ○; Rather ○

Relative clauses

307

Relative clauses give us more information about someone or something. We can use relative clauses to combine clauses without repeating information.

↔ Compare

<i>The couple posted a Christmas present to their daughter, who lives in South Africa.</i>	<i>The couple posted a Christmas present to their daughter. Their daughter lives in South Africa.</i>
Using a relative clause means that there is no need to repeat 'their daughter'.	

We can use relative clauses to give focus to something or someone.

↔ Compare

<i>This is the book which we're reading at the moment.</i>	<i>We're reading this book at the moment.</i>
<i>She's the woman who I was talking about.</i>	<i>I was talking about the woman.</i>

Types of relative clause

307a

There are two types of relative clause: one type refers to a noun or noun phrase (these are defining and non-defining relative clauses) and the other type refers to a whole sentence or clause, especially in speaking.

Defining and non-defining relative clauses

Defining and non-defining relative clauses define or describe the noun (or noun phrase) that comes before them (In the examples, the relative clause is in **bold**, and the person or thing that is referred to is underlined.):

*He's going to show you the rooms **that are available**.* (*that are available* defines the rooms; it tells us which rooms)

*Dodgington, 22, **who boxed in two Olympics**, will be managed by his close friend Colin McFarllan.* (*who boxed in two Olympics* describes Dodgington; it is extra information about him)

→Relative clauses: defining and non-defining 308; Punctuation 293

Relative clauses referring to a whole sentence

The other type of relative clause refers to a whole sentence or stretch of language (they are sometimes called sentential relative clauses). This type of relative clause is always introduced with *which*. In writing we usually put a comma before *which*:

*But I think Sean was a bit upset about that, **which is understandable**.* (*which is understandable* refers to the whole clause before it [underlined]: that Sean was upset about something)

*She goes to Canada and stays with her daughter, and then her daughter comes here the next year. Every other year they change places you know. **Which is nice**.* (*Which is nice* refers to the whole stretch of text before it [underlined]. This is common in speaking but not in writing.)

→Relative clauses referring to a whole sentence 309

Relative clauses: defining and non-defining

308

Defining relative clauses

308a

We use defining relative clauses to give essential information about someone or something – information that we need in order to understand what or who is being referred to. A defining relative clause usually comes immediately after the noun it describes.

We usually use a relative pronoun (e.g. *who*, *that*, *which*, *whose* and *whom*) to introduce a defining relative clause (In the examples, the relative clause is in **bold**, and the person or thing being referred to is underlined.):

*They're the people **who want to buy our house**.*

*Here are some cells **which have been affected**.*

*They should give the money to somebody **who they think needs the treatment most**.*

[talking about an actress]

*She's now playing a woman **whose son was killed in the First World War**.*

 In defining relative clauses we often use *that* instead of *who*, *whom* or *which*. This is very common in informal speaking:

*They're the people **that** want to buy our house.*

*Here are some cells **that** have been affected.*

→Relative pronouns 311

Subject or object

The relative pronoun can define the subject or the object of the verb:

*They're the people **who/that** bought our house.* (The people bought our house. *The people* is the subject.)

*They're the people **who/that** she met at Jon's party.* (She met the people. *The people* is the object.)

*Here are some cells **which/that** show abnormality.* (Some cells show abnormality. *Some cells* is the subject.)

*Here are some cells **which/that** the researcher has identified.* (The researcher has identified some cells. *Some cells* is the object.)

No relative pronoun

We often leave out the relative pronoun when it is the object of the verb:

*They're the people **she** met at Jon's party.*

*Here are some cells **the** researcher has identified.*

→No relative pronoun 311f

Punctuation

 In writing, we don't use commas in defining relative clauses:

*This is a man **who** takes his responsibilities seriously.*

Not: *This is a man, **who** takes his responsibilities seriously.*

Nouns and pronouns in relative clauses

When the relative pronoun is the subject of the relative clause, we don't use another personal pronoun or noun in the relative clause because the subject (underlined) is the same:

*She's the lady **who** lent me her phone.* (*who* is the subject of the relative clause, so we don't need the personal pronoun *she*)

Not: *She's the lady ~~who she~~ lent me her phone.*

*There are now only two schools in the area **that** actually teach Latin.* (*that* is the subject of the relative clause, so we don't need the personal pronoun *they*)

Not: *There are now only two ~~schools in the area~~ that they actually teach Latin.*

When the relative pronoun is the object of the relative clause, we don't use another personal pronoun or noun in the relative clause because the object (underlined) is the same:

*We had a lovely meal at the place **which** Phil recommended.* (*which* is the object of the relative clause, so we don't need the personal pronoun *it*)

Not: *We had a lovely meal at the place which Phil recommended it.*

Non-defining relative clauses

308b

We use non-defining relative clauses to give extra information about the person or thing. It is not necessary information. We don't need it to understand who or what is being referred to.

We always use a relative pronoun (*who*, *which*, *whose* or *whom*) to introduce a non-defining relative clause (In the examples, the relative clause is in **bold**, and the person or thing being referred to is underlined.)

*Clare, **who I work with**, is doing the London marathon this year.*

Not: *Clare, I work with, is doing the London marathon this year.*

*Doctors use the testing kit for regular screening for lung and stomach cancers, **which account for 70% of cancers treated in the western world**.*

*Alice, **who has worked in Brussels and London ever since leaving Edinburgh**, will be starting a teaching course in the autumn.*

! We don't use *that* to introduce a non-defining relative clause:

*Allen, **who scored three goals in the first game**, was the only player to perform well.*

Not: *Allen, that scored three goals in the first game, was the only player to perform well.*

→ Relative pronouns 311

Punctuation

In writing, we use commas around non-defining relative clauses:

*Etheridge, **who is English-born with Irish parents**, replaces Neil Francis, **whose injury forced him to withdraw last week**.*

🗣️ In speaking, we often pause at the beginning and end of the clause:

*Unlike American firms – **which typically supply all three big American car makers** – Japanese ones traditionally work exclusively with one maker.* (formal)

*And this woman – **who I'd never met before** – came up and spoke to me.* (informal)

Defining or non-defining relative clauses?

308c

Sometimes defining and non-defining relative clauses can look very similar but have different meanings.

↔ Compare

defining	non-defining
<i>His brother, who works at the supermarket, is a friend of mine.</i> He has only one brother, and that brother works at the supermarket.	<i>His brother who works at the supermarket is a friend of mine.</i> He has more than one brother. The one I'm talking about works at the supermarket.
<i>It's hoped that we will raise £10,000 for local charities, which help the homeless.</i> The money is intended for local charities. All these local charities help the homeless.	<i>It's hoped that we will raise £10,000 for local charities which help the homeless.</i> The money is intended for local charities. Some of these local charities help the homeless. There are other local charities as well as these.

! The information in a defining relative clause is essential, so we can't leave out the relative clause. The information in a non-defining relative clause is extra information which isn't essential, so we can leave out the relative clause.

↔ Compare

<i>The <u>soldier</u> who had gold stripes on his uniform seemed to be the most important one.</i>	A defining relative clause which we can't leave out; without this information we do not know which soldier the speaker is referring to.
<i>The tour party was weakened when Gordon Hamilton, who played in the World Cup team, withdrew yesterday because of <u>a back injury</u>, which kept him out of the Five Nations Championship.</i>	Non-defining relative clauses which we can leave out: <i>The tour party was weakened when Gordon Hamilton withdrew yesterday because of a back injury.</i>

! We can use *that* instead of *who*, *whom* or *which* in defining relative clauses, but not in non-defining relative clauses:

*I think anyone **who** speaks in public is nervous beforehand.*

*I think anyone **that** speaks in public is nervous beforehand.*

*Her car, **which** was very old, broke down after just five miles.*

Not: *Her car, that was very old, broke down after just five miles.*

→ Relative pronouns 311; Relative clauses: typical errors 310

Relative clauses referring to a whole sentence 309

Some relative clauses refer to a whole clause, a whole sentence, or a longer stretch of language. We always use *which* to introduce these clauses.

We often use these clauses in informal speaking to express an opinion or evaluation (In the examples, the relative clause is in **bold**, and the clause or person that is referred to is underlined.):

*I think the other thing that was really good about it as well was that everybody worked really hard and helped tidy up at the end, **which I hadn't expected at all**.*

 In speaking, a second speaker often uses a *which*-clause like this to evaluate or give an opinion on something the first speaker has said:

[The speakers are talking about trains. Paddington is a train station in London.]

A: *So it leaves Paddington at 8.30 and it'll get me into Gloucester at 10.15.*

B: ***Which is perfect** because I can pick you up on my way home.* (Speaker B is evaluating the fact that the train gets into Gloucester at 10.15.)

Sometimes the same speaker may add a *which*-clause after a response by a listener:

A: *I was already working with them doing a temporary job and I was asked if I would go on a permanent contract.*

B: *Oh right.*

A: ***Which I did.*** (Speaker A was offered a permanent job contract and accepted the offer.)

In speaking we sometimes pause before these clauses:

*She just lives six doors away, [pause] **which is very handy.***

Relative clauses: typical errors 310

- When we use a relative pronoun as a subject in the relative clause, we don't use a personal pronoun or noun:

*That's the school **that** does lots of music and drama.*

Not: *That's the school that it does lots of music and drama.*

- When a relative pronoun is the object of the relative clause, we need a subject (pronoun or noun) in the relative clause:

*They met at the gallery **that Jane** had talked about.*

Not: *They met at the gallery that had talked about.*

- When a relative pronoun is the object of the relative clause, we don't need another object (pronoun or noun) in the relative clause:

*They went to the same restaurant **that Mark** had been to.*

Not: *They went to the same restaurant that Mark had been to it.*

- In writing, we don't use commas in defining relative clauses:

Sally is a committee member who finds it difficult to make decisions.

Not: *Sally is a committee member, who finds it difficult to make decisions.*

Relative pronouns

311

Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses. The most common relative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *that*. The relative pronoun we use depends on what we are referring to and the type of relative clause.

<i>who</i>	people and sometimes pet animals	defining and non-defining
<i>which</i>	animals and things	defining and non-defining; clause referring to a whole sentence
<i>that</i>	people, animals and things; informal	defining only
<i>whose</i>	possessive meaning; for people and animals usually; sometimes for things in formal situations	defining and non-defining
<i>whom</i>	people in formal styles or in writing; often with a preposition; rarely in conversation; used instead of <i>who</i> if <i>who</i> is the object	defining and non-defining
no relative pronoun	when the relative pronoun defines the object of the clause	defining only

(In the examples, the relative pronoun is in brackets to show where it is not essential; the person or thing being referred to is underlined.)

We don't know the person **who** donated this money.

We drove past my old school, **which** is celebrating its 100th anniversary this year.

He went to the school (**that**) my father went to.

The Kingfisher group, **whose** name was changed from Woolworths earlier this year, includes about 720 high street shops. Superdrug, **which** last week announced that it is buying Medicare, is also part of the group.

The parents (**whom/who/that**) we interviewed were all involved in education in some way.

→ **Relative clauses: defining and non-defining 308; Relative clauses referring to a whole sentence 309**

Relative pronouns: *who*

311a

We use *who* in relative clauses to refer to people, and sometimes to pet animals. We use it to introduce defining and non-defining relative clauses:

I think there'd be a lot of children **who'd** love to have a climbing wall in school.
(defining)

That's the dog **who** doesn't like me. (defining; referring to a pet animal)

There's this guy at work, **who's** one of my friends, well he's never been on a train.
(non-defining)

Subjects and objects

Who can act as the subject or the object of the relative clause:

*She's going out with a bloke **who's** in the army.* (*who* refers to a *bloke* and is the subject of *is* in the relative clause; *bloke* is an informal word for a man)

*The woman **who** I saw yesterday was Sheila.* (*who* refers to *the woman* and is the object of *saw* in the relative clause)

Who + prepositions

We can use *who* as the complement of a preposition:

*It was Cath **who** Ian gave the keys to. It wasn't me.* (*who* refers to *Cath* and is the complement of the preposition *to*)

We put the preposition at the end of the relative clause, and not immediately before *who*:

*Of all my friends, she's the one **who** I know I can rely on.*

Not: ... ~~the one on who~~ I know I can rely.

Who with collective groups of people

We often use *who* with collective human nouns (e.g. *committee*, *government*, *group*, *panel*, *police*, *team*):

*Nicola phoned the fire brigade, **who** then alerted the police and social workers.*

We do not use *who* for things:

*There are some very good art books **which** you can get ideas from.*

Not: There are some very good art books ~~who~~ you can get ideas from.

→ Relative pronouns: *whom* 311b

Relative pronouns: *whom*

311b

! We use *whom* in formal styles or in writing to refer to people when the person is the object of the verb. It is much more common in writing than in speaking:

*The response of those managers **whom** I have consulted has been very positive and we are looking forward to meeting together.* (*whom* refers to *those managers* and is the object of *consulted* in the relative clause)

*She was a celebrated actress **whom** he had known and loved, on and off, almost since her first appearance on the stage.*

Whom + prepositions

The most common use of *whom* is with a preposition. We can use *whom* as the complement of a preposition:

*The first book was a terrible historical novel for children which was turned down by every publisher **to whom** it was sent.* (*whom* refers to *every publisher* and is the complement of the preposition *to*)

*Drama in schools is particularly good for pupils **for whom** English is a second language.*

We put the preposition before *whom*.

↔ Compare

more formal	less formal
<i>There was only one person to whom the old man spoke.</i>	<i>There was only one person who the old man spoke to.</i>
<i>She smiled as she remembered the quiet scholar with whom she had shared a love of books.</i>	<i>She smiled as she remembered the quiet scholar who she had shared a love of books with.</i>

→ Relative pronouns: *who* 311a

Relative pronoun: *whose*

311c

We usually use *whose* as a relative pronoun to indicate possession by people and animals. In more formal styles we can also use it for things.

We use *whose* before nouns instead of a possessive expression (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their, x's*) in defining and non-defining clauses:

*He's marrying a girl **whose** family don't seem to like him.* (The family of the girl he's marrying don't seem to like him.)

*There was me and there was Kate, **whose** party it was, and then there were two other people.* (It was Kate's party.)

*It is a rambling Tudor house, **whose** sitting room looks out over a wonderful walled garden.* (The sitting room of the house looks out over ...)

Whose + prepositions

We can use *whose* + noun as the complement of a preposition:

*Kate, **whose** sister I used to shared a house with, has gone to work in Australia.*
(*whose* sister refers to Kate and is the complement of *with*)

We can put the preposition immediately before the relative pronoun (more formal written styles) or at the end of the relative clause (more informal).

↔ Compare

more formal	more informal
<i>Thomas Goldney III, in whose house and garden several generations of Bristol students have now lived, was described in the late 18th century as 'a very curious gentleman'.</i>	<i>Thomas Goldney III, whose house and garden several generations of Bristol students have now lived in, was described in the late 18th century as 'a very curious gentleman'.</i>

Relative pronouns: *which*

311d

We use *which* in relative clauses to refer to animals and to things. We use it to introduce defining and non-defining relative clauses. We always use *which* to introduce relative clauses when they refer to a whole sentence or clause:

- You need to tick the box **which** says yes.* (defining)
- He won't have much time to prepare for the meeting, **which** is this afternoon.* (non-defining)
- She had to get up and walk all the way to the other side of the room, **which** isn't easy with a bad back.* (*which* refers to the whole sentence before it)

We use *which* or *that*, not *what*:

- Another activity **which/that** I have chosen is photography.*
- Not: Another activity ~~what~~ I have chosen is photography.

Subjects and objects

Which can act as the subject or the object of the relative clause:

- The new sports complex, **which** will be built on the site of the old power station, will provide facilities for cricket, soccer, bowls and badminton.* (*which* refers to the new sports complex and is the subject of *will be built* in the relative clause)
- It was the same picture **which** I saw at the National Gallery.* (*which* refers to the same picture and is the object of *saw* in the relative clause)

Which + prepositions

We can use *which* as the complement of a preposition:

- Early in the Autumn Term there is a reception **at which** you can meet current staff and students.* (*which* refers to a reception and is the complement of *at*)
- Close by, in the churchyard, is the famous Rudston stone, **from which** the village takes its name.* (*which* refers to the famous Rudston stone and is the complement of *from*)

We can put the preposition immediately before the relative pronoun (more formal) or at the end of the relative clause (more informal).

↔ Compare

more formal	more informal
<i>The title of the poem indicates that the poet knows himself to be separated from the community in which he grew up.</i>	<i>I've never felt close to <u>the community</u> which I grew up in.</i>

Which referring to a whole sentence

Relative clauses referring to a whole sentence are always introduced by *which*:

- There's going to be a new headteacher in September, **which** is good. It's time for a change.*

[talking about a playschool for young children]

A: *It's lovely and clean there, and there are lots of toys **that** he can play with and he's so happy.*

B: ***Which** is much more important.*

Relative pronouns: **that**

311e

We use *that* instead of *who*, *whom* or *which* in relative clauses to refer to people, animals and things. We use it to introduce defining clauses only. *That* is more informal than *who*, *whom* or *which*:

*We met somebody last night **that** did the speech therapy course two years after you.*
(refers to a person)

*The 8.30 is the train **that** you need to get.* (refers to a thing)

*She blamed herself for everything **that** had happened.*

Subjects and objects

That can act as the subject or the object of the relative clause:

*He finally remembers one lesson **that** his mum had taught him early – Don't take money **that** doesn't belong to you.* (*that* refers to *money* and is the subject of *belong* in the relative clause)

*It's the same cooker **that** my mother has.* (*that* refers to *the same cooker* and is the object of *has* in the relative clause)

That after superlatives

We often use *that* after superlatives:

*The Wimbledon men's final was the best game of tennis **that** I've ever seen.*

That + prepositions

That can refer to the complement of a preposition:

*We've got some tennis balls **that** you can play with.* (*that* refers to *some tennis balls* and is the complement of the preposition *with*)

! Unlike *which*, *whom* and *whose*, we can't use *that* with the preposition immediately before it:

Not: *We've got ~~some tennis balls with that~~ you can play.*

No relative pronoun

311f

In informal styles, we often leave out the relative pronoun. We only do this in defining relative clauses, and when the relative pronoun is the object of the verb. We don't leave out the relative pronoun when it is the subject of the verb nor in non-defining relative clauses:

*German is a language **which** I've found hard to learn.* (or *German is a language I've found hard to learn.*) (defining relative clause: *which* is the object)

*She's the singer **who** I heard on the radio.* (or *She's the singer I heard on the radio.*)
(defining relative clause: *who* is the object)

*There's a hill **which** begins three miles after the start of the race.* (defining relative clause: *which* is the subject)

Not: *There's a hill begins three miles after the start of the race.*

*Sir James, **whose** birthday is on February 26, plans to lay on a big party.* (non-defining relative clause)

No relative pronoun + preposition

In defining relative clauses, we can also leave out the relative pronoun when it is the complement of a preposition. When we do this, we always put the preposition at the end of the relative clause:

*She was at the garden party **which** I was telling you **about**.* (or *She was at the garden party **about** **which** I was telling you.* or *She was at the garden party I was telling you **about**.)* (defining relative clause: *which* is the complement of *about*)

Relative pronouns: *when*, *where* and *why*

311g

In informal language, we often use *where*, *when* or *why* to introduce defining relative clauses instead of *at which*, *on which* or *for which*.

<i>where</i>	places	<i>I know <u>a restaurant</u> where the food is excellent.</i> (... a restaurant at which the food is excellent)
<i>when</i>	times	<i>There isn't <u>a day</u> when I don't feel rushed off my feet.</i> (... a day on which I don't feel rushed ...)
<i>why</i>	reasons	<i>Do you know <u>the reason</u> why the shop is closed today?</i> (... the reason for which the shop is closed ...)

Relative pronouns: typical errors

311h

- We can't use *that* instead of *who*, *whom* or *which* in non-defining relative clauses:
*It gives me a good chance to improve my Italian, **which** has become a little bit rusty.*
Not: *It gives me a good chance to improve my Italian, that has become a little bit rusty.*
- We don't use *what* as a relative pronoun:
*So, he can make himself easily understood in the two languages, **which** helps a lot.*
Not: *So, he can make himself easily understood in the two languages, what helps a lot.*
- We don't use *who* for things:
*She's written some great cookery books **which** have got pictures of delicious-looking recipes.*
Not: *She's written some great cookery books who have got pictures of delicious-looking recipes.*
- Take care to spell *which* correctly: not 'wich'.

→Relative pronouns: *that* 311e

Reported speech

312

Reported speech is how we represent the speech of other people or what we ourselves say. There are two main types of reported speech: direct speech and indirect speech.

Direct speech repeats the exact words the person used, or how we remember their words:

Barbara said, "I didn't realise it was midnight."

In indirect speech, the original speaker's words are changed.

Barbara said she hadn't realised it was midnight.

In this example, *I* becomes *she* and the verb tense reflects the fact that time has passed since the words were spoken: *didn't realise* becomes *hadn't realised*.

Indirect speech focuses more on the content of what someone said rather than their exact words:

"I'm sorry," said Mark. (direct)

Mark apologised. (indirect: report of a speech act)

In a similar way, we can report what people wrote or thought:

'I will love you forever,' he wrote, and then posted the note through Alice's door.
(direct report of what someone wrote)

He wrote that he would love her forever, and then posted the note through Alice's door. (indirect report of what someone wrote)

I need a new direction in life, she thought. (direct report of someone's thoughts)

She thought that she needed a new direction in life. (indirect report of someone's thoughts)

→ Reported speech: direct speech 313; Reported speech: indirect speech 314

Reported speech: reporting and reported clauses

312a

Speech reports consist of two parts: the reporting clause and the reported clause. The reporting clause includes a verb such as *say*, *tell*, *ask*, *reply*, *shout*, usually in the past simple, and the reported clause includes what the original speaker said.

reporting clause	reported clause
<i>William said,</i>	<i>"I need your help."</i>
<i>Then a man shouted,</i>	<i>"Get out of there, fast!"</i>
<i>The postman said</i>	<i>he had a package for us.</i>
<i>Clarissa told me</i>	<i>she's thinking of moving to Canada.</i>

Reported speech: punctuation

312b

Direct speech

In direct speech we usually put a comma between the reporting clause and the reported clause. The words of the original speaker are enclosed in inverted commas, either single

(‘...’) or double (“...”). If the reported clause comes first, we put the comma inside the inverted commas:

“I couldn’t sleep last night,” he said.

Rita said, ‘I don’t need you any more.’

If the direct speech is a question or exclamation, we use a question mark or exclamation mark, not a comma:

‘Is there a reason for this?’ she asked.

“I hate you!” he shouted.

We sometimes use a colon (:) between the reporting clause and the reported clause when the reporting clause is first:

The officer replied: ‘It is not possible to see the General. He’s busy.’

→Punctuation 293

Indirect speech

! In indirect speech it is more common for the reporting clause to come first. When the reporting clause is first, we don’t put a comma between the reporting clause and the reported clause. When the reporting clause comes after the reported clause, we use a comma to separate the two parts:

[reporting clause] [reported clause]

She told me they had left her without any money.

Not: *She told me, they had left her without any money.*

[reported clause] [reporting clause]

Nobody had gone in or out during the previous hour, he informed us.

! We don’t use question marks or exclamation marks in indirect reports of questions and exclamations:

He asked me why I was so upset.

Not: *He asked me why I was so upset?*

→Punctuation 293

Reported speech: reporting verbs

312c

Say and tell

We can use *say* and *tell* to report statements in direct speech, but *say* is more common. We don’t always mention the person being spoken to with *say*, but if we do mention them, we use a prepositional phrase with *to* (*to me*, *to Lorna*):

‘I’ll give you a ring tomorrow,’ she said.

‘Try to stay calm,’ she said to us in a low voice.

Not: *‘Try to stay calm,’ she said us in a low voice.*

With *tell*, we always mention the person being spoken to; we use an indirect object (underlined):

*'Enjoy yourselves,' he **told** them.*

Not: *'Enjoy yourselves,' he told.*

In indirect speech, *say* and *tell* are both common as reporting verbs. We don't use an indirect object with *say*, but we always use an indirect object (underlined) with *tell*:

*He **said** he was moving to New Zealand.*

Not: *He said me he was moving to New Zealand.*

*He **told** me he was moving to New Zealand.*

Not: *He told he was moving to New Zealand.*

We use *say*, but not *tell*, to report questions:

*'Are you going now?' she **said**.*

Not: *'Are you going now?' she told me.*

We use *say*, not *tell*, to report greetings, congratulations and other wishes:

*'Happy birthday!' she **said**.*

Not: *'Happy birthday!' she told me.*

*Everyone **said** good luck to me as I went into the interview.*

Not: *Everyone told me good luck ...*

→ Say or tell? 317

Other reporting verbs

<i>add</i>	<i>comment</i>	<i>explain</i>	<i>offer</i>	<i>state</i>
<i>admit</i>	<i>complain</i>	<i>hint</i>	<i>order</i>	<i>suggest</i>
<i>advise</i>	<i>confess</i>	<i>inform</i>	<i>point out</i>	<i>threaten</i>
<i>agree</i>	<i>confirm</i>	<i>insist</i>	<i>promise</i>	<i>warn</i>
<i>announce</i>	<i>continue</i>	<i>interrupt</i>	<i>protest</i>	<i>wonder</i>
<i>answer</i>	<i>cry (= shout)</i>	<i>maintain</i>	<i>repeat</i>	
<i>ask</i>	<i>demand</i>	<i>note</i>	<i>reply</i>	
<i>claim</i>	<i>enquire</i>	<i>observe</i>	<i>shout</i>	

The reporting verbs in this list are more common in indirect reports, in both speaking and writing:

*Simon **admitted** that he had forgotten to email Andrea.*

*Louis always **maintains** that there is royal blood in his family.*

*The builder **pointed out** that the roof was in very poor condition.*

Most of the verbs in the list are used in direct speech reports in written texts such as novels and newspaper reports. In ordinary conversation, we don't use them in direct speech. The reporting clause usually comes second, but can sometimes come first:

*'Who is that person?' she **asked**.*

*'It was my fault,' he **confessed**.*

*'There is no cause for alarm,' the Minister **insisted**.*

→ Verb patterns: verb + that-clause 366

Reported speech: direct speech**313**

Direct speech is a representation of the actual words someone said. A direct speech report usually has a reporting verb in the past simple. The most common reporting verb is *said*. The reporting clause may come first or second.

reporting clause first	reported clause	reporting clause second
<i>Jimmy said,</i>	<i>'Let me have a look.'</i>	
<i>Then the child asked,</i>	<i>'Are there any toys?'</i>	
	<i>'Hand it over at once!'</i>	<i>he demanded.</i>
	<i>'I believe that too,'</i>	<i>she added.</i>

The reporting clause may sometimes come in the middle of the reported clause, especially in literary styles:

"No," she said, "I've never seen it before."

'Was it,' he asked, 'the first time you had spoken to Mrs Dalton?'

We can use adverbs with the reporting verb to describe the way someone said something. This is more common when the reporting clause comes second:

"I will not accept it!" he said angrily.

'Can I speak to the doctor?' she asked rather nervously.

→ **Reported speech: punctuation 312b; Reported speech: reporting and reported clauses 312a**

Direct speech: inversion of subject and reporting verb**313a**

In narratives, especially novels and short stories, when the reporting clause comes second, we often invert the subject (s) and reporting verb (v):

"Things have always been the same in this village," said the old man.

'Hold on! I'm coming!' cried Maurice.

Direct speech: present simple and continuous reporting verbs**313b****Informal narratives**

In informal conversation, we sometimes use the present simple in the reporting clause. This makes the direct speech more vivid and dramatic:

So then this guy says, "I've got something for you. Come over here." And he picked up a box and he says, "Open that."

We can make the direct speech even more vivid and dramatic by using the present continuous. This is very informal:

And he's looking at me and he's asking, "Who are you?" and I said, "I'm your nephew" and he's mumbling, "I don't know you. I've never seen you before in my life."

In very informal conversation, people sometimes use *says* as a reporting verb for all persons (*I, you, she, he, we, they*):

- ! *She says, 'What's going on here?' and I says, 'Nothing. There's nothing happening – everything's okay.'*
- ! Many speakers consider the above examples to be incorrect. This applies especially to the use of *says* with all persons.

Newspaper headlines

We also use the present simple in newspaper headlines. This makes the reported words more dramatic:

I WON'T RESIGN,' SAYS MINISTER

→Go 148; Like 194; Say or tell? 317

Reported speech: indirect speech 314

Indirect speech focuses more on the content of what someone said rather than their exact words. In indirect speech, the structure of the reported clause depends on whether the speaker is reporting a statement, a question or a command.

	direct	indirect	reported clause
statement	<i>'I'm tired,' I said.</i>	<i>I told them (that) I was tired.</i>	<i>that-clause</i>
question	<i>'Are you ready?' the nurse asked Joel. 'Who are you?' she asked.</i>	<i>The nurse asked Joel if/whether he was ready. She asked me who I was.</i>	<i>if-clause/ whether-clause wh-clause</i>
command	<i>'Leave at once!' they ordered.</i>	<i>They ordered us to leave at once.</i>	<i>to-infinitive clause</i>

Indirect speech: reporting statements 314a

Indirect reports of statements consist of a reporting clause and a *that*-clause. We often omit *that*, especially in informal situations:

- [reporting clause] [reported clause]
*The pilot commented **that** the weather had been extremely bad as the plane came in to land.* (The pilot's words were: *'The weather was extremely bad as the plane came in to land.'*)
- [reporting clause] [reported clause]
I told my wife I didn't want a party on my 50th birthday. (*that-clause* without *that*) (or *I told my wife that I didn't want a party on my 50th birthday.*)

Indirect speech: reporting questions**314b****Reporting yes-no questions and alternative questions**

Indirect reports of *yes-no* questions and questions with *or* consist of a reporting clause and a reported clause introduced by *if* or *whether*. *If* is more common than *whether*. The reported clause is in statement form (subject + verb), not question form:

[s] [v]

She asked **if** I **was** Scottish. (original *yes-no* question: 'Are you Scottish?')

[w] [v]

The waiter asked **whether** we wanted a table near the window. (original *yes-no* question: 'Do you want a table near the window?')

[s] [v]

He asked me **if** I **had** come by train or by bus. (original alternative question: 'Did you come by train or by bus?')

→Questions: yes-no questions 296; Whether 378**Reporting wh-questions**

Indirect reports of *wh*-questions consist of a reporting clause, and a reported clause beginning with a *wh*-word (*who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *why*, *how*). We don't use a question mark:

[reporting clause][reported clause]

He asked me **what** I wanted.

Not: He asked me what I wanted?

The reported clause is in statement form (subject + verb), not question form:

[s] [v]

She wanted to know **who** **we** **had** invited to the party.

Not: ... who had we invited ...

Who, whom and what

In indirect questions with *who*, *whom* and *what*, the *wh*-word may be the subject or the object of the reported clause:

I asked them **who** came to meet them at the airport. (*who* is the subject of *came*; original question: 'Who came to meet you at the airport?')

He wondered **what** the repairs would cost. (*what* is the object of *cost*; original question: 'What will the repairs cost?')

The reported clause is in statement form (subject + verb), not question form:

[s] [v]

She asked us **what** **we** **were** doing. (original question: 'What are you doing?')

Not: She asked us what were we doing?

→Whom 381d**When, where, why and how**

We also use statement word order (subject + verb) with *when*, *where*, *why* and *how*:

[s] [v]

I asked her **when it had happened** (original question: 'When did it happen?').

Not: I asked her ~~when had it happened?~~

[s] [v]

I asked her **where the bus station was**. (original question: 'Where is the bus station?')

Not: I asked her ~~where was the bus station?~~

[s] [v]

The teacher asked them **how they wanted to do the activity**. (original question: 'How do you want to do the activity?')

Not: The teacher asked them ~~how did they want to do the activity?~~

→ Questions: *wh*-questions 297

Indirect speech: reporting commands

314c

Indirect reports of commands consist of a reporting clause, and a reported clause beginning with a *to*-infinitive:

The General ordered the troops **to advance**. (original command: 'Advance!')

The chairperson told him **to sit down and to stop interrupting**. (original command: 'Sit down and stop interrupting!')

We also use a *to*-infinitive clause in indirect reports with other verbs that mean wanting or getting people to do something, for example, *advise*, *encourage*, *warn*:

They advised me **to wait** till the following day. (original statement: 'You should wait till the following day.')

The guard warned us **not to enter** the area. (original statement: 'You must not enter the area.')

→ Verb patterns: verbs followed by *to*-infinitive 365a

Indirect speech: present simple reporting verb

314d

We can use the reporting verb in the present simple in indirect speech if the original words are still true or relevant at the time of reporting, or if the report is of something someone often says or repeats:

Sheila **says** they're closing the motorway tomorrow for repairs.

Henry **tells** me he's thinking of getting married next year.

Rupert **says** dogs shouldn't be allowed on the beach. (Rupert probably often repeats this statement.)

Newspaper headlines

We often use the present simple in newspaper headlines. It makes the reported speech more dramatic:

JUDGE TELLS REPORTER TO LEAVE COURTROOM

PRIME MINISTER SAYS FAMILIES ARE TOP PRIORITY IN TAX REFORM

→ Present simple 279; Reported speech 312; Reported speech: direct speech 313

Indirect speech: past continuous reporting verb 314e

In indirect speech, we can use the past continuous form of the reporting verb (usually *say* or *tell*). This happens mostly in conversation, when the speaker wants to focus on the content of the report, usually because it is interesting news or important information, or because it is a new topic in the conversation:

Rory was telling me the big cinema in James Street is going to close down. Is that true?

Alex was saying that book sales have gone up a lot this year thanks to the Internet.

→ Indirect speech: reporting statements 314a

Backshift 314f

‘Backshift’ refers to the changes we make to the original verbs in indirect speech because time has passed between the moment of speaking and the time of the report.

↔ Compare

direct speech	indirect speech
<i>I said, ‘I’m not very happy at work.’</i>	<i>I told her I was not very happy at work.</i>
<i>They said: ‘We’re going home.’</i>	<i>They told us they were going home.</i>
<i>He said, ‘Jane will be late.’</i>	<i>He said that Jane would be late.</i>
<i>‘I’ve been working,’ she said.</i>	<i>She said she had been working.</i>
<i>‘What happened to make her so angry?’ he asked.</i>	<i>He asked what had happened to make her so angry.</i>

In these examples, the present (*am*) has become the past (*was*), the future (*will*) has become the future-in-the-past (*would*) and the past (*happened*) has become the past perfect (*had happened*). The tenses have ‘shifted’ or ‘moved back’ in time.

Backshift changes

direct		indirect
present simple	→	past simple
present continuous	→	past continuous
present perfect simple	→	past perfect simple
present perfect continuous	→	past perfect continuous
past simple	→	past perfect simple
past continuous	→	past perfect continuous
future (will)	→	future-in-the-past (would)
past perfect	↔	past perfect (no change)

The past perfect does not shift back; it stays the same:

Direct speech

Indirect speech

He asked: '**Had** the girls already **left**?' He asked if the girls **had** already **left**.

Modal verbs

Some, but not all, modal verbs 'shift back' in time and change in indirect speech.

	direct speech	indirect speech	change
will	'We will be there,' he promised.	He promised they would be there.	will becomes would
shall	She said, 'I shall need more money.' ' Shall I open it?' she asked.	She said she would need more money. She asked if she should open it.	shall usually becomes would in reported questions, shall becomes should
can	'I can see you at 2.30,' he added.	He added that he could see me at 2.30.	can becomes could
may	'I may be back later,' she said. 'You may wait in the hallway,' he said.	She said she might be back later. He said we could wait in the hallway.	may (possibility) becomes might may (permission) becomes could
must	She said, 'You must pay by 30th April.' 'It must be awful to live in such a noisy place,' she said.	She said we had to pay by 30th April. She said it must be awful to live in such a noisy place.	must (obligation) usually becomes had to must (speculation) does not change
could	'We could sell it for about 2,000 euros,' he said.	He said they could sell it for about 2,000 euros.	no change
should	'You should go there immediately,' she said.	She said I should go there immediately.	no change
would	'I would buy it if I had the money,' he said.	He said he would buy it if he had the money.	no change
might	'It might snow tonight,' he warned.	He warned that it might snow that night.	no change
need	'You needn't come till six o'clock,' he said.	He said we needn't come till six o'clock.	no change

We can use a perfect form with *have* + *-ed* form after modal verbs, especially where the report looks back to a hypothetical event in the past:

He said the noise **might have been** the postman delivering letters. (original statement: 'The noise might be the postman delivering letters.')

He said he **would have helped** us if we'd needed a volunteer. (original statement: 'I'll help you if you need a volunteer' or 'I'd help you if you needed a volunteer.')

Used to and ought to do not change in indirect speech:

She said she **used to** live in Oxford. (original statement: 'I used to live in Oxford.')

The guard warned us that we **ought to** leave immediately. (original statement: 'You ought to leave immediately.')

No backshift

We don't need to change the tense in indirect speech if what a person said is still true or relevant or has not happened yet. This often happens when someone talks about the future, or when someone uses the present simple, present continuous or present perfect in their original words:

He **told** me his brother **works** for an Italian company. (It is still true that his brother works for an Italian company.)

She **said** she's **getting** married next year. (For the speakers, the time at the moment of speaking is 'this year'.)

He **said** he's **finished** painting the door. (He probably said it just a short time ago.)

She **promised** she'll **help** us. (The promise applies to the future.)

Indirect speech: changes to pronouns 314g

Changes to personal pronouns in indirect reports depend on whether the person reporting the speech and the person(s) who said the original words are the same or different.

direct	indirect	
'I don't want to shock people,' Tom said.	Tom said he didn't want to shock people.	different speakers (<i>I</i> changes to <i>he</i>)
'I'll look after Toby,' I said.	I said I would look after Toby.	same speaker (no change)
' You need to be here at nine o'clock,' George told Beatrice.	George told Beatrice she needed to be there at nine o'clock.	different speakers (<i>you</i> changes to <i>she</i>)
'I hope you will join us tonight,' I said to James.	I told James I hoped he would join us that night.	same speaker (no change to <i>I</i> ; <i>you</i> changes to <i>he</i>)

Indirect speech: changes to adverbs and demonstratives 314h

We often change demonstratives (*this*, *that*) and adverbs of time and place (*now*, *here*, *today*, etc.) because indirect speech happens at a later time than the original speech, and perhaps in a different place.

↔ Compare

direct speech	indirect speech
<i>I said, 'I'll meet you here tomorrow.'</i>	<i>I told her I would meet her there the next/ following day.</i>
<i>She said, 'I do not wish to discuss it at this moment in time.'</i>	<i>She said she did not wish to discuss it at that moment in time.</i>
<i>He said, "I want it now."</i>	<i>He said he wanted it then/at that moment.</i>
<i>'I finished the job three weeks ago,' the boy protested.</i>	<i>The boy protested that he had finished the job three weeks before.</i>

Typical changes to demonstratives, adverbs and adverbial expressions

direct		indirect
<i>this</i>	→	<i>that</i>
<i>these</i>	→	<i>those</i>
<i>now</i>	→	<i>then</i>
<i>yesterday</i>	→	<i>the day before</i>
<i>tomorrow</i>	→	<i>the next/following day</i>
<i>two weeks ago</i>	→	<i>two weeks before</i>
<i>here</i>	→	<i>there</i>

Indirect speech: typical errors 314i

- The word order in indirect reports of *wh*-questions is the same as statement word order (subject + verb), not question word order:

[s][v]
*She always asks me **where I am going**.*
Not: ~~She always asks me where am I going.~~
- We don't use a question mark when reporting *wh*-questions:
*I asked him **what he was doing**.*
Not: ~~I asked him what he was doing?~~

Reported speech: reporting nouns 315

Reporting nouns are nouns such as *comment*, *criticism*, *remark*, *statement*. We can represent indirect speech with reporting nouns as well as with reporting verbs. These are more common in writing than speaking, and are usually quite formal. (Reported speech is underlined.)

His **remark** that we hadn't worked hard enough upset everyone. (original remark: 'You haven't worked hard enough.')

The Prime Minister's **comment** that this was not the right time for an election has made headlines in all today's papers.

Jason's **claim** that he was ignored by everyone is hard to believe.

Her **excuse** that she had been abroad at the time was not accepted by the court.

Common reporting nouns

announcement	complaint	explanation	response
answer	criticism	news	statement
argument	demand	offer	suggestion
claim	denial	promise	threat
comment	excuse	remark	warning

Reporting nouns and reported clauses

The reported clause after a reporting noun is usually a *that*-clause which acts as the complement of the noun. We do not usually omit *that* after reporting nouns:

For years, nobody listened to the warnings **that** global temperatures were rising.

Not: For years, nobody listened to the warnings global temperatures were rising.

We can also use some reporting nouns (for example *claim*, *offer*, *promise*, *suggestion* and *threat*) with a *to*-infinitive:

She made a **promise** to visit him at least once a month.

Nobody took seriously her **threat** to sell the business.

Reporting nouns and adjectives

We often use adjectives with reporting nouns to describe particular qualities of what someone said:

Her **sudden announcement** that she was getting divorced came at 5 pm yesterday.

His **feeble excuse** that he had missed the train convinced nobody.

Requests

316

When we make a request, we ask someone for something, or we ask someone to do something.

Asking for something

316a

There are different ways of asking for something. We usually ask for something in a polite and indirect way, for example, using *can*, *could*, *would you mind if* and *may*:

A: **Can** I have the salt?

B: Of course, here you are.

A: **Could** I ask you the time, please?

B: No problem. It's quarter past four.

A: **Would you mind if I borrowed your pen, please?**

B: Of course, here you are.

A: **May I have the bill, please?** (May is more formal.)

B: Certainly, Madam.

I need is very direct and is usually used for urgent requests:

I need a doctor.

I need the fire extinguisher. Fast!

I want is very direct and can sound impolite. We don't normally use it to make requests unless we want to be very direct:

I want to speak to the manager right now. I am not leaving here until I get my money back.

Asking someone to do something

316b

There are a number of ways of asking someone to do something in a polite and indirect way. We often use *please* to make our requests more polite:

Could you call a taxi for me, please?

Would you ask Rose whether she has signed the card, please?

Would you mind collecting my suit from the dry cleaner's, please?

Do you think you could come in ten minutes early tomorrow, before the presentation?

We sometimes use *can you* and *will you* to make requests but they are more informal:

Mum, ***can you wake me at seven o'clock?***

Will you send me an email tomorrow just to remind me to book a hotel?

We need is often used in work contexts by a boss or manager to ask for something to be done in a polite way:

We need to email the contract to Peter immediately.

We need someone to go to the meeting in Paris on Wednesday. Bill can't go.

When we are not sure if someone will be able to do what we ask, we sometimes use *you wouldn't ...*, *would you?* or *you couldn't ...*, *could you?*:

You wouldn't drop this into the post office for me, would you?

You couldn't stop at a bank machine, could you?

In formal letters and formal emails, we can use the following expressions:

I would be grateful if you could send me more information about the course.

We would be most grateful if you could send someone to meet us at the airport as we do not speak Japanese.

→ **Please and thank you** ○

Say or tell?

317

Say and *tell* are irregular verbs. The past simple of *say* is *said*, the past simple of *tell* is *told*.

*They asked if I was looking for work and I **said** yes.*

*Then he **told** me how he had got the job by lying about his age.*

We use *say* and *tell* in different ways in reported speech. *Say* focuses on the words someone said and *tell* focuses more on the content or message of what someone said:

*'Hello,' she **said**.*

Not: *'Hello,' she ~~told~~.*

*She **told** him they were going on holiday. (The focus is on the information.)*

We use *say* with direct speech. We don't normally use *tell* in this way:

*He **said**, 'I'm not paying £50 for that.'*

→ Reported speech 312

Say and tell with objects

317a

Both *say* and *tell* take a direct object. The object is most commonly the reported clause (the report of what someone said).

reporting clause	reported clause (direct object)
<i>She said</i>	<i>'I don't know what you mean.'</i>
<i>I told her</i>	<i>why it had happened.</i>

Tell normally takes an indirect object (one or more people = *io*) and a direct object (the reported clause = *do*):

[*io*] [*do*]
*The boy told **us** he didn't want any money.*

However, we use *tell* without an indirect object with words such as *the truth*, *a lie*, *a joke*, *a story*:

*You should never **tell a lie**.*

Not: ... ~~say a lie~~.

*Come on Kevin. You're good at **telling jokes**.*

Say does not take an indirect object. Instead, we use a phrase with *to*:

*And then she **said to me**, 'I am your cousin. We've never met before.'*

Not: ~~And then she said me ...~~

Tell + indirect object + to-infinitive

317b

We use *tell* with an indirect object and a *to*-infinitive to report a command or an instruction. We don't normally use *say* in this way:

*They **told us to come** back the next day.*

Not: ~~They said us to come ...~~

*They **told her to wait** till the doctor arrived.*

- But in informal speaking, we sometimes use *say* + *to*-infinitive to report a command or an instruction:

*I asked him if he wanted it today but he **said to leave** it till tomorrow.*

Typical errors

- We don't use an indirect object with *say*:

*'I'm in a hurry,' he **said to me**.*

Not: ... he ~~said me~~.

- We don't use *tell* without an indirect object when we report someone's words:

*Then a loud voice **said**, 'Hello.'*

Not: ... a loud voice ~~told~~, 'Hello.'

*She **said** she would wait for us outside.*

Not: She ~~told~~ she would wait ...

See

318

We use the verb *see* to talk about using our eyes to be aware of what is around us:

*He turned on the light so that he could **see**.*

*Did you **see** that falling star?*

We can use *see* followed by an object and a verb in different constructions:

*We **saw** their car drive past the house yesterday. (see + object + base form)*

Not: We ~~saw their car to drive~~ past ...

*Did you **see** the children playing? (see + object + -ing form)*

*On television, we **saw** Nelson Mandela presented with a special prize. (see + object + -ed form)*

- When we see something as we are speaking, we usually say *can see* rather than the simple (*I see*) or continuous form (*I'm seeing*):

*I **can see** you in the photo. Look, there you are at the very back.*

We use *see* to mean 'understand, know or be aware of something'. We don't usually use this in continuous form:

[one person is explaining how to use a computer software program]

A: ... *All that appears on the screen is what you put in the value.*

B: ***I see.** Right.*

Not: ~~I'm seeing.~~

We can use *you see* when we are explaining something.

*They had no children. They married late, **you see**.*

We also use *see* to mean 'meet or come into contact with someone', or 'visit a place':

*We went to **see** my mother at the weekend.*

***Have you seen** Jerry lately?*

We can use the continuous form of *see* when it refers to an arrangement to meet someone:

***I'm seeing** Harry at ten o'clock tomorrow. What shall I tell him?*

We can also use the continuous form of *see* to mean 'meeting someone as part of a romantic relationship':

*I asked her to go out on a date with me but she told me she **was** already **seeing** someone.*

→ You see ○

Sentences

319

A sentence is a unit of grammar. Typically, in writing, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop.

Sentence structures

319a

There are three types of sentence structures: simple, compound and complex.

Simple sentences

Simple sentences have only one main clause:

We're going on holiday tomorrow. (one main clause)

I'm not keen on musicals.

Compound sentences

Compound sentences have two or more main clauses, joined by a coordinating conjunction:

I phoned her but she wasn't there.

Are you coming or are you staying at home or will you go and see Mum?

Complex sentences

Complex sentences have a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses, introduced by a subordinating conjunction (The main clause is in **bold**; the subordinate clause is underlined.):

***You can call me** if you have any problems.*

***I got up earlier than usual** because I had to get the 6.30 train.*

*Although it hurt when she bent her wrist, **she could still move her fingers**.*

Types of sentence

319b

There are four main types of clause or sentence.

(s = subject; v = verb; AUX = auxiliary verb; x = objects, complements or adjuncts)

Declarative (statements)	[s] [v] [x] <i>I finished the book last night.</i>
Interrogative (questions)	[AUX] [s] [v] [x] <i>Did you study Latin at school?</i>

Imperative (orders, instructions)	[v] [x] <i>Leave it on the chair, thanks.</i>
Exclamative (expressing strong opinion or surprise)	<i>What a gorgeous dress she's wearing!</i>

→ Clauses 68; Questions 295; Imperative clauses 172; Exclamative clauses 71d

Shall

320

Shall: forms

320a

Affirmative form

Shall comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb). We use it mostly with *I* and *we*:

*I shall **post** it to you tomorrow.*

Shall cannot be used with another modal verb:

*I **shall** have to be at the airport by 5 pm.*

Not: ~~I shall must be ...~~ or ~~I must shall be ...~~

Shall can be followed by *have to*, *need to* and *be able to*:

*We **shall have to** tell him what happened.*

*The good news is I **shall be able to** join you at your meeting next week.*

Negative form

The negative form of *shall* is *shan't*. We don't use *don't*, *doesn't*, *didn't* with *shall*:

*I **shan't** be home tomorrow night.*

*We **shan't** know the result of the tests till Tuesday.*

We can use the full form *shall not* in formal contexts or when we want to emphasize something:

[a public notice in a restaurant]

*The management **shall not** be responsible for damage to personal property.*

We don't often use the negative form.

→ Modal verbs 207a

Question form

The subject and *shall* change position to form questions.

! We don't use *do*, *does*, *did*. The question form, with *I* and *we*, is the most common use of *shall*:

***Shall** I come round to the office?*

Not: ~~Do I shall come round to the office?~~

We use *shall* in question tags:

*I'll phone you later, **shall I?***

Shall: uses**320b****Offers, suggestions and advice**

We use *shall I* and *shall we* to make offers and suggestions, and to ask for advice.

offer	<i>Shall I carry your bag?</i>
suggestion	<i>Shall I call again on Thursday?</i>
seeking advice	<i>What shall we do with this?</i>

Predictions and intentions

We use *shall* instead of *will* with *I* and *we* in rather formal contexts to make predictions and to talk about intentions or decisions. It is much less common than *will*.

↔ Compare

formal	less formal
<i>We shall remember this day forever.</i>	<i>We will remember this day forever.</i>

! We use *shall* only with the first person pronouns *I* and *we* to make predictions or express intentions:

*The new business cards **will** be ready at the end of the month.*

Not: ~~The new business cards **shall** be ready at the end of the month.~~

Commands

! In very formal contexts, we use *shall* to give commands:

[public notice]

*This door **shall** be kept closed at all times.*

→ *Will and shall* 384c; *Commands and instructions* 76

Shall: typical error**320c**

- We use *should*, not *shall*, for advice and suggestions:

*In my opinion, we **should** book another hotel.*

Not: ~~In my opinion, we **shall** book another hotel.~~

→ *Should* 321; *Suggestions* 341

Should**321****Should: forms****321a****Affirmative form**

Should comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

*I **should** go home now.*

Should cannot be used with another modal verb:

*It **should** probably be sunny at that time of year.*

Not: ~~It should may be sunny ...~~ or ~~It may should be sunny ...~~

Negative form

The negative form of *should* is *shouldn't*. We don't use *don't*, *doesn't*, *didn't* with *should*:

*There **shouldn't** be many people at the beach today.*

We use the full form *should not* in formal contexts or when we want to emphasise something:

*We **should not** forget those who have given their lives in the defence of freedom.*

→ Modal verbs 208a

Question form

The subject and *should* change position to form questions.

! We don't use *do*, *does*, *did*:

***Should** I turn on the air conditioning?*

Not: ~~Do I should I turn on the air conditioning?~~

***Shouldn't** you be studying now?*

We use *should* and *shouldn't* in question tags:

*I shouldn't have told her that, **should I**?*

*They should be getting back on Sunday, **shouldn't they**?*

Should: uses

321b

What is ideal or desired

We use *should* most commonly to talk about what is the ideal or best thing to do in a situation:

*There **should** be more public hospitals.*

*They **should** reduce the price of petrol. It's so expensive.*

*There **should** be four more candles on the cake.*

We use *should have* + *-ed* form to talk about things that were ideal in the past but which didn't happen. It can express regret:

*Everyone knows that this is a busy restaurant. They **should have made** a reservation.*

*I **should have studied** harder when I was young. I wish I had gone to college.*

Advice and suggestions

We often use *should* to give advice and make suggestions:

*You **should** tell him what you think.*

*We **should** leave it until tomorrow; it's late now.*

→ Suggest O; Suggestions 341

What is likely to happen

We also use *should* to talk about what is likely to happen:

*Shall we start? Luke's delayed but he says he **should** be here in ten minutes.*

*There **should** be a very big crowd at the party. Mary has so many friends.*

Conditional sentences

! We sometimes use *should* in hypothetical conditional clauses with *if* to express possibility. It is formal:

[information leaflet in a hotel room]

*If you **should** wish to use the Internet, there is a code available at the reception desk.*

*If you **should** decide not to go on the trip, you will get a full refund.*

→ If 168; Conditionals 84; If + should 85h

! We can also use *Should you* as an alternative to *If you should* in these situations by changing the order of the subject and the verb. Compare these two sentences with the examples above. They have the same meaning and they are also formal:

***Should you** wish to use the Internet, there is a code available at the reception desk.*

***Should you** decide not to go on the trip, you will get a full refund.*

Thanking

! In speaking, we often say *you shouldn't have* when someone gives us a gift:

A: *I got you something from Texas. A cowboy hat.*

B: *Oh Ken, you **shouldn't have**!*

Surprise or regret

We sometimes use *should* to express surprise or regret about something that happened:

*I'm amazed that he **should** have done something so stupid.*

*I'm sorry that he **should** be so upset by what I said.*

Should and would

321c

We use *should* as a more formal alternative to *would* with *I* and *we* in conditional clauses.

↔ Compare

formal	neutral
<i>I/We should love to meet her again if I/we had a chance.</i>	<i>I/We would love to meet her again if I/we had a chance.</i>

We use *should* as a more formal alternative to *would* when we want to be less direct.

↔ Compare

formal	neutral
<i>I should think that a lot of people will be interested.</i>	<i>I would think that a lot of people will be interested.</i>

Should and ought to

321d

Should and *ought to* have similar meanings and uses. *Ought to* is more formal and less common than *should*:

We **should** clean up the garden.

We **ought to** clean up the garden.

Should is much more common in negatives and questions than *ought to*:

Should we keep a seat for Margaret? (more common than *Ought we to keep a seat ...?*)

He **shouldn't** speak to his parents in that way. (more common than *He oughtn't/ought not to speak ...*)

→ *Ought to* or *should*? 253c

Since

322

We use *since* as a preposition, a conjunction and an adverb to refer to a time, and as a conjunction to introduce a reason.

Since: time

322a

We use *since* to refer back to a previous point in time. We use *since* as a preposition with a date, a time or a noun phrase:



*It was the band's first live performance **since** May 1990. (since + date)*

*I have been happily married for 26 years, **since** the age of 21. (since + noun phrase)*

We also use *since* as a conjunction to introduce a subordinate clause:

*It's so long **since** I saw them. (since + clause)*

*Lenny had slept most of the way **since** leaving Texas. (since + clause)*

*He's been back to the office a few times **since** he retired. (since + clause)*

Since and tenses**322b**

When *since* introduces an action or event at a point of time in the past, we can use the past simple or present perfect after *since* and the present perfect in the main clause:

*They haven't received any junk mail **since** they moved house.*

*They haven't received any junk mail **since** they've moved house.*

We can use the past simple, present perfect or past perfect after *since* with the expression *it + be + time + since*:

*It's been years **since** I rode a bike. (it's = it has)*

*It's been years **since** I've ridden a bike. (it's = it has)*

*It's years **since** I rode a bike. (it's = it is)*

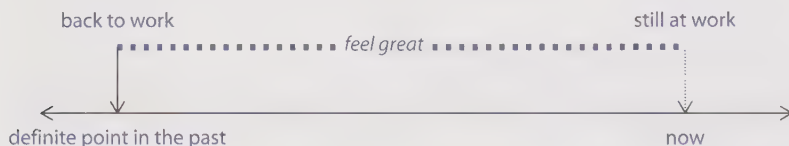
*It's years **since** I've ridden a bike. (it's = it is)*

*It'd been years **since** I'd ridden a bike. (it'd = it had)*

It's been years since ... is more common in American English than *It's years since*

When *since* introduces a state in the past that is still continuing in the present, we use a present perfect form of the verb after *since* and a present perfect form of the verb in the main clause:

***Since** I've been back at work, I've been feeling great.*



→ *For or since?* 131; *Present perfect continuous* 283; *Past perfect continuous* 262

Since + -ing**322c**

We can use *since + -ing* form to refer to time when the subject of the verb is the same in the main clause and the subordinate clause:

***Since leaving** school, he has had three or four temporary jobs. (Since he left school, he has ...)*

***Since moving** from a Chicago suburb to southern California a few months ago, I've learned how to play a new game called Lanesmanship. (Since I moved ..., I've learned ...)*

Since, since then**322d**

We can use *since* or *since then* as an adverb of time when the time reference is understood from the context:

*His father doesn't talk to him. They had an argument a couple of years ago and they haven't spoken **since**. (since they had the argument)*

*They bought the house in 2006 and they've done a lot of work on it **since then**.*
(since 2006)

We use *ever since* as a stronger form of *since* or *since then*:

*When I was young, I had a little collie dog, but one day he bit me really badly. I've hated dogs **ever since**.*

Since: reason

322e

We use *since* as a subordinating conjunction to introduce a subordinate clause. We use it to give a reason for something:

*Sean had no reason to take a taxi **since** his flat was near enough to walk to.*

***Since** her husband hated holidays so much, she decided to go on her own.*

*They couldn't deliver the parcel **since** no one was there to answer the door.*

→ As 39; Because 45a

Since: typical errors

322f

- We don't use *since* with extended periods of time. We use *for*:

*She was waiting **for** four hours.*

Not: ~~She was waiting since four hours.~~

- We use *since*, not *from*, with a clause referring back to a point in time:

*I've been swimming **since** I was three years old.*

*I've been swimming **from** the age of three.*

Not: ~~I've been swimming from I was three years old.~~

- We use *since*, not *once*, to introduce a reason:

*I think I should have my money back **since** I didn't have what was promised in the brochure.*

Not: ~~I think I should have my money back once I didn't have ...~~

- We use *since*, not *ago*, after 'it's a long time' when we refer back to a point in time:

*It's a long time **since** your last letter.*

Not: ~~It's a long time ago your last letter.~~

So

323

So + adjective (so difficult), so + adverb (so slowly)

323a

We often use *so* when we mean 'to such a great extent'. With this meaning, *so* is a degree adverb that modifies adjectives and other adverbs:

*Using that camera is easy. Why is she making it **so** difficult?*

*Why is she **so** untidy?*

*I'm sorry I'm walking **so** slowly. I've hurt my ankle.*

*It doesn't always work out **so** well.*

We also use *so* as an intensifier to mean 'very, very':

*That motorway is **so** dangerous. Everyone drives too fast.*

*That's kind of you. Thanks **so** much for thinking of us.*

We often use *so* with *that*:

*He's **so** lazy **that** he never helps out with the housework.*

*It was **so** dark (**that**) we could hardly see.*

We don't use *so* before an adjective + a noun (attributive adjective). We use *such*:

*She emailed us **such** lovely pictures of her and Enzo.*

Not: ... ~~so lovely pictures~~ ...

We use *such* not *so* to modify noun phrases:

*She is **such** a hard-working colleague.*

Not: ... ~~so a hard-working colleague~~.

*It's taken them **such** a long time to send the travel brochures.*

Not: ... ~~so a long time~~ ...

→ Such 337

So much and so many

323b

We use *so* before *much*, *many*, *little* and *few*:

*There were **so many** people on the beach it was difficult to get into the sea.*

*There are **so few** people who know what it is like in our country for other people from different cultures.*

*You've eaten **so little** and I've eaten **so much**!*

We use *so much*, not *so*, before comparatives:

*I feel **so much** better after I've been for a run in the park.*

Not: I feel ~~so~~ better ...

*My house is **so much** colder than yours.*

So as a substitute form

323c

So substituting for an adjective

In formal contexts we can use *so* instead of an adjective phrase after a verb:

*The bus service was very unreliable when I was young and it remains **so** even today.
(It remains very unreliable ...)*

*She is very anxious. She's been **so** since the accident. (She's been very anxious since the accident.)*

More so, less so

When we are comparing, we use *more so* and *less so* as substitutes:

*The kitchen is very old-fashioned, the living room **more so**. (The living room is more old-fashioned than the kitchen.)*

*My old office was very dark; my new office **less so**. (My new office is less dark than my old office.)*

So as substitute

With some verbs, we often use *so* instead of repeating an object clause, especially in short answers:

A: Will Megan be at the meeting today?

B: I think **so**. (I think Megan will be at the meeting today.)

The next train is going to be half an hour late. They told me **so** when I bought my ticket. (They told me (that) the next train is going to be half an hour late.)

→ **So and not with expect, hope, think, etc.** 324

So with reporting verbs

Especially in speaking, we sometimes use *so* in front position in short responses with reporting verbs such as *believe, say, tell, hear, read*:

She's the most popular singer. **So** everybody says, anyway.

A: Janet got the job.

B: **So** I heard. (I heard that Janet got the job.)

A: The Council has given planning permission for another shopping centre in the city.

B: **So** I read in the paper. (I read that the Council has given planning permission for another shopping centre.)

So am I, so do I, Neither do I

323d

We use *so* with *be* and with modal and auxiliary verbs to mean 'in the same way', 'as well' or 'too'. We use it in order to avoid repeating a verb, especially in short responses with pronoun subjects. When we use *so* in this way, we invert the verb and subject, and we do not repeat the main verb (*so* + verb [= v] + subject [= s]):

[v] [s]

Geoff is a very good long-distance runner and **so** is his wife.

A: What are you doing tonight?

B: I've got loads of exam marking to do and I'm staying at home.

A: **So** am I.

[v] [s]

They all joined the new gym and after three weeks **so** did he. (... and after three weeks he joined the gym too.)

Neither do I

We also use *not ... either, nor* or *neither* when we want to give a negative meaning:

A: I don't think she'll be coming to the party.

B: **Nor/Neither** do I. (or I don't either.)

→ **Neither, neither ... nor and not ... either** 220

So in exclamations

When we make exclamative responses, we can use *so* as a substitute before the subject and verb *be*, or subject and modal or auxiliary verb:

A: *We're out of salt.*

B: *Oh, so we are!*

A: *Look Mum, I can climb all the way to the top.*

B: *So you can!*

So as a conjunction

323e

We use *so* as a subordinating conjunction to introduce clauses of result or decision:

I got here late. It was a long journey, so I'm really tired now.

You are right, of course, so I think we will accept what the bank offers.

It's much cheaper with that airline, isn't it, so I'll get all the tickets for us with them.

So and that-clauses

We use *so* + *that* as a conjunction to introduce clauses of reason and explanation:

They both went on a diet so that they could play more football with their friends.

We also use *so* + adjective or adverb before *that*-clauses. We do not use *very* in this structure:

It was so hot that we didn't leave the air-conditioned room all day.

They drove so fast that they escaped the police car that was chasing them.

Not: *They drove very fast that ...*

→ *So that or in order that?* ○

So as a discourse marker

323f

 *So* is a very common discourse marker in speaking. It usually occurs at the beginning of clauses and we use it when we are summarising what has just been said, or when we are changing topic:

[from a lecture on English literature]

So, we've covered the nineteenth century and we're now going to look at all the experiments in the novel in the early twentieth century.

[discussing whether to eat a pudding or keep it till the following morning]

A: *I'm not having it cold in the morning.*

B: *Oh. So what sort of pudding is it?*

So, what time does the film start?

→ *Discourse markers* 104

So: other uses in speaking

323g

So far means 'up to now':

So far we have kept the news within the family.

We use the expression *is that so?* in responses to express surprise or suspicion:

A: *When I came to the flat all the lights were still on!*

B: *Oh, is that so?*

A: *Yes!*

 We sometimes use *so* in informal speaking to indicate the size or extent of something. We use it in a similar way to *this* and we usually use hand gestures to show the size or extent:

[referring to a valuable diamond in a ring]
*It's about **so** small.* (or *It's about **this** small.*)

We also sometimes use *so* to mean 'like this':

*Hold the racket in your left hand – **so**. That's right.*

In speaking, we also use *so* to intensify words, phrases and clauses. We stress *so* quite strongly. This usage is very common among some younger speakers. It has a meaning similar to *just* or *just like*:

*I'm **so** not interested.*

*That's **so** Jack. He always behaves like that.* (That's just like Jack.)

*That is **so** what I don't want to hear!*

So and not with expect, hope, think, etc. 324

We can use *so* after some verbs instead of repeating an object clause, especially in short answers. The verbs we do this with most are: *appear*, *assume*, *be afraid* (meaning 'regret'), *believe*, *expect*, *guess*, *hope*, *imagine*, *presume*, *reckon*, *seem*, *suppose*, *think*:

*Chris thinks the tickets are too expensive, and Madeline **thinks so** too.*
 (... and Madeline thinks the tickets are expensive.)

A: *Are you working on Saturday?*

B: *I'm **afraid so**. I wish I wasn't!* (I'm afraid I'm working.)

A: *D'you think the weather's going to be fine tomorrow?*

B: *I **hope so**. I want to do some work in the garden.* (I hope the weather's going to be fine.)

We can use *not* after *be afraid*, *guess*, *hope* and *suppose* instead of using a negative object clause:

A: *Can we speak to Mr Brindley, please?*

B: *I'm **afraid not**. He's busy.* (I'm afraid you cannot speak to Mr Brindley.)

A: *It looks as if Louis won't be coming with us after all.*

B: *I **guess not**. It's a pity.*

*She thinks she might lose her job in the New Year, but she **hopes not**.*

With *believe*, *expect* and *think*, we normally use auxiliary *do* + *not* + main verb + *so*:

A: *Did Frances come here this morning?*

B: *I **don't believe so**. Ask Hannah.*

*They asked Wilma if she thought her mother would refuse the invitation. She said she **didn't think so**.*

We can find *believe not*, *expect not* and *think not* in classic literature and in very formal situations, but it is not common in everyday modern English:

[from the novel *Dombey and Son* (1848) by Charles Dickens]

'He is in England, I hope, aunt?' said the child.

'I believe so. Yes; I know he is, indeed.'

'Has he ever been here?'

'I **believe not**. No.'

Are we prepared to change our entire lives for the sake of one person? I **think not**.

Typical errors

- We don't use *so* + object clause together:

A: *Is George coming today?*

B: *I don't think **so**.*

Not: *I don't think **so** he's coming today.*

- We don't say *I think* or *I don't think* without *so* in short answers:

A: *Is next Monday a public holiday?*

B: Yes, **I think so**.

Not: Yes, I think.

Some

325

Some is a determiner and a pronoun.

Some as a determiner

325a

We use *some* before nouns to refer to indefinite quantities. Although the quantity is not important or not defined, using *some* implies a limited quantity:

*Can you get me **some** milk?* (The quantity isn't specified. *Some* suggests a normal amount, not an unlimited amount. Compare: *Can you get me five litres of milk?*)

*I've got **some** questions for you.*

There are elephants in Africa and Asia. (The number is not limited.)

Not: *There are **some** elephants in Africa and Asia.*

Some as a determiner has two forms: a weak form and a strong form. The forms have different meanings.

Weak form *some* /səm/

We use the weak form of *some* in affirmative sentences and in questions (usually expecting the answer 'yes'), when the quantity is indefinite or not important (we use *any* in questions and negative sentences):

*I've got **some** /səm/ water.*

*Have you got **some** water?* (expecting the answer *yes*)

*Have you got **any** water?* (open *yes-no* question)

*I haven't got **any** water.* (negative)

We use the weak form of *some* only with uncountable nouns and plural nouns:

*I'm looking for **some** advice.* (+ uncountable noun)

*Do you need **some** help?* (+ uncountable noun)

*We need to make **some** changes to the programme.* (+ plural noun)

*There are a lot of advantages in doing the course online, but there are **some** disadvantages too.* (+ plural noun)

! We don't use weak form *some* with singular countable nouns:

If you're looking for a book to read, I can recommend 'Animal Farm'.

Not: *If you're looking for some book to read ...*

Strong form *some* /sʌm/

The strong form of *some* is stressed. This form contrasts with *others* or *all* or *enough*:

*Why do **some** people live longer than other people?* (some, not others)

***Some** boys went to the front of the stage to get a better view. The rest of us couldn't see a thing.* (some, not all)

*There were **some** cakes left but not enough for everyone.* (some, but not enough)

*I'm not keen on **some** types of fish. I find plaice a bit tasteless.*

We can use this strong form to refer to someone or something particular but unknown, especially with singular countable nouns:

*There must be **some** way of opening this printer!*

***Some** idiot driver crashed into the back of me.*

Some with numbers

We use the strong form of *some* with numbers. It can suggest an unexpectedly high amount:

***Some** £30 billion was needed to rebuild the hospital.*

***Some** 60% of the course is devoted to design.*

→ *Some* and *any* 326; Determiners and any type of noun 99f; Determiners and uncountable nouns or plural countable nouns 99e

Leaving out *some*

We don't use *some* when we are talking about things or people in general, when we have no idea of number or quantity:

Rats make good pets. (rats in general)

*There were **some** rats in the kitchen.* (a number of rats)

Does your car run on petrol or diesel? (general)

*I need **some** petrol.* (specific petrol for my car)

We don't use *some* for large or unlimited quantities and amounts:

The earthquake victims urgently need tents, blankets and water.

Not: ... *some* tents, *some* blankets and *some* water.

→ *A/an* and *the* 1; Determiners 98

Some as a pronoun**325b**

We use *some* as a pronoun (i.e. without a noun following) when the noun is understood:

*If you need any money, I'll lend you **some**.*

*French mustards are usually flavoured with spices. **Some** have added sugar. **Some** are quite salty.*

→ **Determiners 98; Pronouns 287**

Some of**325c**

! We use *some* with *of* before *the*, demonstratives (*this, that*), pronouns (*you, us*) or possessives (*my, your*). We use *some of* to refer to a part of a whole:

*I wasn't sure about **some of** the answers.*

*It was great to meet **some of** her friends and colleagues.*

Not: ... ~~some~~ her friends ...

[from a TV news programme]

*First a look at **some of** today's main stories in **some** more detail.*

→ **Determiners: position and order 100; More than one determiner 100b**

Some: typical errors**325d**

- We don't use weak form *some* with singular countable nouns:

In the reception area we found a brochure about the history of the house.

Not: ... ~~we found some~~ brochure ...

- We use *some*, not *a* or *an*, before uncountable nouns:

*Do you need **some** overnight accommodation?*

Not: ... ~~an overnight accommodation?~~

- We don't use weak form *some* on its own in negative statements. We use *any*:

A: *Did you get the eggs?*

B: *No, there weren't **any**.*

Not: ~~No, there weren't some.~~

- We don't use *some* to mean *a few* when we are referring to units of time:

*I'm looking for someone to help me for **a few** days.*

Not: ... ~~to help me for some days.~~

→ **Determiners followed by pronouns 99g**

Some and any**326**

We use *some* and *any* in different types of clauses.

+	He's got <i>some</i> homework. Not: He's got <i>any</i> homework.	<i>Some</i> is most common in affirmative clauses.
-	He hasn't got <i>any</i> homework. Not: He hasn't got <i>some</i> homework.	<i>Any</i> is most common in negative clauses.
? +	Has he got <i>any</i> homework? Has he got <i>some</i> homework?	<i>Any</i> is more common in questions but we can use <i>some</i> when we are expecting the answer to be 'yes'.
? -	Hasn't he got <i>any</i> homework? Hasn't he got <i>some</i> homework?	

→ *Some* 325; *Any* 34; **Determiners followed by pronouns** 99g

Someone, somebody, something, somewhere**327**

Someone, somebody, something, somewhere are indefinite pronouns. They function in a similar way to *some*. We use them in affirmative clauses and in questions expecting a particular answer. We can use them to refer to both general and specific people or things. We use them with a singular verb:

*I know **someone** who gives piano lessons.* (a specific person)

***Somebody** has obviously made a mistake.* (general, we don't know who)

*Can you hear **something**?*

*There was no mistaking the smell. Burning. There was a fire **somewhere**.*

We often use the plural pronoun *they* to refer back to (singular) *someone* or *somebody* when we do not know if the person is male or female:

*Never judge **someone** by the way **they** look.* (or *Never judge **someone** by the way **he** or **she** looks.*)

→ *One, you, we, they:* 247; **Sexist language** 9

Someone and somebody

Someone and *somebody* have no difference in meaning. *Somebody* is a little less formal than *someone*. *Someone* is used more in writing than *somebody*. *Somebody* is more common in speaking:

*We can no longer assume that because **someone** can do the job, they can teach the skill.*

***Somebody's** got to say something to her. She can't behave like that.*

Something and anything

We can use both *something* and *anything* in negative questions. They have different meanings:

*Didn't she bring **something** to eat?* (I think she *did* bring something.)

*Didn't she bring **anything** to eat?* (I'm surprised she didn't bring something.)

→ *Anyone, anybody or anything?* 9; *Some* 325; **Pronouns: indefinite** 288

Sort, type and kind

328

Sort, type and kind all generally mean the same thing. They are words we use to refer to a group of people or things which share the same characteristics. We use these words very often when we describe things and we often find them in dictionary definitions:

*Jazz isn't the **sort** of music I can listen to for very long.*

*A fastener is a **type** of metal button which fits together to join clothes, for example a coat might have fasteners.*

*There are many **kinds** of birds coming to feed in my garden at the moment.*

We often use *sort, type and kind* as vague expressions to suggest that we think something is like something else. We do this either because we are not sure, or because we do not want to be too specific and too direct:

[joking about a cheap perfume that someone got as a present]

*And it was, it was really cheap, I mean, it was a **sort** of a rose perfume and I think the whole box only cost him one pound fifty, or something. You could probably run your car off it.*

We sometimes use *some* before *sort, type and kind* as vague expressions:

*Karen has made **some sort** of cake for the party.*

*There was **some type** of hole in the road and we didn't see it.*

*There's **some kind** of strange smell in here.*

We often use *and that kind of thing* or *and that sort of thing* to refer to categories. We usually give an example or two from the category we are referring to first, e.g. *apples and that kind of thing, bookshops and libraries and that sort of thing*:

A: What are you doing tonight?

B: Well, first, I've got lots of marking *and that sort of thing* to do.

A: Are you taking anything to eat?

B: Just a few snacks – crisps *and that kind of thing*.

→ *Kind of and sort of* 188; *Vague expressions* 359; *Hedges* 162

Speak or talk?

329

Speak and talk: uses

329a

The verbs *speak* and *talk* both generally mean 'say words', but there are some small differences in how they are used. *Speak* is more formal than *talk*.

↔ Compare

<i>I need to speak to you.</i>	Formal. It is possible that: – the speaker does not know you very well. – this is in a formal setting, such as work. – what the person has to say is important/serious.
<i>I need to talk to you.</i>	Informal. It is possible that: – the speaker is your friend. – the speaker is someone you don't know very well, but what they have to say is informal.

We usually use *speak* for more formal presentations and lectures, and *talk* for more informal ones:

*Dr Graham Foster will **speak** about the history of the region.*

*Kyle is going to **talk** us through the benefits of the software and then Liz will **talk** about the marketing plan.*

When we refer to languages, we use *speak*:

*How many languages do you **speak**?*

Not: ~~How many languages do you talk?~~

*I wish I could **speak** Italian.*

Not: ... ~~talk~~ Italian.

Speak usually only focuses on the person who is producing the words:

*He **spoke** about the importance of taking exercise and having a good diet.*

Talk focuses on a speaker and at least one listener, and can mean 'have a conversation':

*I hope I can meet you to **talk** about my plans for the company.*

Not: ~~I hope I can meet you to speak about my plans ...~~

↔ Compare

<i>He always looks down when he is speaking.</i>	The focus is on his use of his voice to produce words. <i>Speak</i> focuses only on the person who is producing the words.
<i>I was talking to Maria yesterday.</i>	The focus is on the use of words as part of a conversation with someone else.

We use *speak* on the telephone:

A: *Is Rita there?*

B: *Who's **speaking**?*

A: *My name's Anna. I work with her.*

Not: ~~Who's talking?~~

*Hello, can I **speak** to Laura, please?*

Speak and talk with prepositions 329b

We usually use *to* after *speak* and *talk*. In more formal situations, people sometimes use *with*:

*I need to **speak to** you about this conference next week.*

*I was **talking to** Richard Moss the other day about the golf club.*

*May I **speak with** you for a moment? (rather formal)*

Typical errors

- We don't use *talk* when referring to foreign languages:

*I can **speak** German and Spanish.*

Not: ~~I can talk German and Spanish.~~

- We don't use *speaking* to focus on conversation:

*They can **talk** and get to know each other over dinner.*

Not: *They can ~~speak~~ and get to know each other ...*

Spelling

330

Words in English are not always spelled as they are pronounced. Spelling in English follows some basic rules and the majority of English words (around 75%) follow these rules. You can learn the rules but there are always exceptions to the rules that need to be learned too.

The main basic spelling rules of English relate to: prefixes and suffixes; spelling and plurals; doubling letters; dropping and adding letters; verb forms. This section focuses on British English but also covers some basic differences in spelling between British and American English.

Spelling: prefixes

330a

When there is a prefix, we do not normally add or take away more letters:

dis + obey → disobey

mis + spell → misspell

dis + satisfied → dissatisfied

over + hear → overhear

in + humane → inhumane

super + human → superhuman

in + sane → insane

un + natural → unnatural

inter + national → international

un + sure → unsure

mis + rule → misrule

under + pass → underpass

Prefixes *il-*, *im-*, *ir-*

We commonly change the prefix *in-* to *il-*, *im-* or *ir-* when the first letter of a word is *l*, *m*, *p*, or *r*.

<i>in</i> becomes <i>il-</i> before <i>l</i>	<i>in</i> becomes <i>im-</i> before <i>m</i> or <i>p</i>	<i>in</i> becomes <i>ir-</i> before <i>r</i>
<i>illegible</i>	<i>immoral</i>	<i>irrelevant</i>
<i>illiterate</i>	<i>immature</i>	<i>irresponsible</i>
<i>illogical</i>	<i>impossible</i>	<i>irreplaceable</i>

Spelling and plurals

330b

There are rules for the plurals of regular nouns and the *-s* forms of regular verbs.

The general rule is add *-s*:

bring → brings

day → days

ear → ears

smile → smiles

speak → speaks

town → towns

If the ending is pronounced as 'ch' /tʃ/ or 's' /s/, we add *-es* /ɪz/:

noun plurals

bus → buses

church → churches

kiss → kisses

verb *-s* forms

cross → crosses

fetch → fetches

guess → guesses

If a word ends in an *-e*, we add an *-s*:

base → *bases* *face* → *faces* *judge* → *judges* *lose* → *loses*

If the word ends in a consonant plus *-y*, we change *-y* to *i* and add *-es*:

noun plurals

baby → *babies*

opportunity → *opportunities*

verb -s forms

marry → *marries*

reply → *replies*

We add *-es* to some words ending in *-o*:

noun plurals

tomato → *tomatoes*

cargo → *cargoes*

hero → *heroes*

noun plurals/verb -s forms

echo → *echoes*

embargo → *embargoes*

go → *goes* (*go* [n] = *attempt*)

However, some words ending in *-o* only require *-s*: *videos*, *discos*, *pianos*, *memos*, *photos*.

For some nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe*, we form the plural by changing the *-f* or *-fe* to *-ves*:

loaf → *loaves* *shelf* → *shelves* *thief* → *thieves* *wife* → *wives*

→ Forming the plural of nouns 229b

Spelling: doubling consonants

330c

We often double the final consonant of a word (*b*, *d*, *g*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *r*, *t*) when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added (*-ed*, *-er*, *-est*, *-ing*):

hop + *-ed* → *hopped*

red + *-ish* → *reddish*

rub + *-ed* → *rubbed*

sit + *-ing* → *sitting*

slim + *-ing* → *slimming*

thin + *-er* → *thinner*

travel + *-er* → *traveller*

wet + *-er* → *wetter*

When we add a suffix to a word with more than one syllable, we double the consonant only when the word ends in a stressed syllable (the stressed syllable of the base form is in bold):

admit + *-ing* → *admit**ting***

forget + *-ing* → *forget**ting***

occur + *-ence* → *occurrence*

prefer + *-ed* → *prefer**red***

transmit + *-ed* → *transmitt**ed***

upset + *-ing* → *upset**ting***

Compare, however, *visit* or *enter* where the spoken stress is on the first syllable:

visit → **visiting** **enter** → **entered**

Not: *visitting* Not: *enterred*

Note too that in each case the vowel before the last consonant is a short vowel.

! We don't double the final consonant before a suffix:

- if the word ends in two written consonants, e.g. *export* = *exported*, *find* = *finding*, *insist* = *insisted*, *lift* = *lifted*, *persist* = *persistence*
- if there are two written vowels together in the word, e.g. *meeting*, *rained*, *weaken*, *trainer*, *repeated*.

Irregular forms and exceptions

! Some monosyllabic words ending in -s are irregular. We normally do not double the -s, although some doubled forms will be seen. For example: *busses* and *buses*; *gasses* and *gases*. (*Busses* and *gasses* are not common.)

Some words, several of them ending in *l*, with more than two syllables, have a double consonant even though the last syllable is not stressed; for example, *labelling*, *traveller*, *equalled*, *handicapped*, *programmed*.

In American English the single consonant spelling is usually more common: *labeling*, *traveler*.

Spelling: dropping and adding letters

330d

The final -e

We often drop the final -e when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added to a word:

approve + -al → *approval*

hope + -ing → *hoping*

fame + -ous → *famous*

invite + -ation → *invitation*

hate + -ed → *hated*

note + -able → *notable*

! We keep the -e in *dyeing* (from *dye*) and *singeing* (from *singe*) to differentiate them from similar words e.g. *dying* (from *die*) and *singing* (from *sing*).

When a suffix begins with a consonant (e.g. -less, -ful, -ly, -ment) we do not normally drop the -e:

definitely *excitement* *forceful* *hopeless* *lately* *widely*

Sometimes we do drop the -e:

argue → *argument*

true → *truly*

due → *duly*

whole → *wholly*

Some words have alternative forms with or without an -e: for example, *acknowledgement* or *acknowledgment*, and *judgement* or *judgment*.

The suffix *-ally*

The suffix *-ally* is added to adjectives ending in *-ic* to form adverbs:

basic → *basically*

realistic → *realistically*

tragic → *tragically*

! BUT: *publicly*

Changing *-y* to *-i*

When we add a suffix to a word ending in a consonant + *-y*, we normally change *-y* to *i*:

amplify + *-er* → *amplifier*

happy + *-ly* → *happily*

busy + *-ness* → *business*

hurry + *-s* → *hurries*

day + *-ly* → *daily*

purify + *-cation* → *purification*

easy + *-ly* → *easily*

reply + *-ed* → *replied*

fury + *-ous* → *furious*

spy + *-s* → *spies*

! Some words with one syllable keep the *-y* before a suffix: *dryness*, *shyness*, *slyness*.

We keep *-y* before *-ing*: *studying*, *worrying*.

We keep *-y* before *'s*: *the fly's wings*, *Andy's house*.

We usually keep the *-y* in most words that end in a vowel + *-y*:

buy → *buyer*

destroy → *destroys*

! BUT: *day* → *daily*

Spelling: *ie* or *ei*?

330e

If in doubt about *ie* or *ei*, when the sound of the vowel is as in *brief* /i:/, we spell it *ie*; but after the letter *c*, we spell it *ei*:

<i>ie</i>	<i>ei</i> after <i>c</i>
<i>achieve</i>	<i>ceiling</i>
<i>belief</i>	<i>conceit</i>
<i>diesel</i>	<i>deceive</i>
<i>niece</i>	<i>receipt</i>
<i>relieve</i>	<i>perceive</i>

Words in which *-y* has changed to *i* end in *-ies* even after a *c*:

emergency → *emergencies*

bureaucracy → *bureaucracies*

! In most words that do not have the pronunciation /i:/ as in *brief*, the usual order is *e* before *i*, e.g. *neighbour*, *leisure*, *height*; *friend*, *ancient*, *science* are common exceptions.

Spelling and verb forms**330f****Past and -ed forms**

The past and *-ed* forms are the same in regular verbs. The following are the spelling rules for regular verbs.

We add *-ed* to the base form of the verb:

clean → *cleaned* *echo* → *echoed* *email* → *emailed* *sail* → *sailed*

If the word ends in *-e*, we add *-d* to the base form of the verb:

agree → *agreed* *dine* → *dined* *love* → *loved*

If the word ends in a consonant + *-y*, we change the *-y* to *i* before *-ed*:

apply → *applied* *cry* → *cried*

There are three common exceptions, where we change the *-y* to *i* after a vowel and just *-d* is added:

pay → *paid* *say* → *said*

-ing forms

The general rule is add *-ing* to the base form of the verb:

go → *going* *hurry* → *hurrying* *play* → *playing*

If the word ends in *-e*, we drop the *-e* before *-ing*:

love → *loving* *lose* → *losing* *write* → *writing*

But if the word ends in *-ee*, *-ye*, or *-oe*, we keep the *-e*:

agree → *agreeing* *dye* → *dyeing* (compare: *die/dying*) *see* → *seeing*

If the word ends in *-ie*, we change the *-i* to *-y* and we drop the *-e* before *-ing*:

die → *dying* *lie* → *lying* *tie* → *tying*

Addition of final -e to indicate long vowel**330g**

We use a final silent *-e* to indicate that the stressed vowel is long:

long vowel	short vowel
<i>hate, fate</i>	<i>hat, fat</i>
<i>theme, impede</i>	<i>them, fed</i>
<i>dine, bite</i>	<i>din, bit</i>

! There are some common exceptions:

come	have	none	there
done	live (as a verb)	one	were
give	love	some	where
gone			

British and American English Spelling

330h

Here are some common differences between British and American English spelling. A good learner's dictionary will give information about other spelling differences:

British English American English

analyse	analyze
aeroplane	airplane
centre	center
cheque (bank)	check
colour	color
criticise	criticize
defence	defense
labour	labor
neighbour	neighbor
programme	program
theatre	theater

Still

331

Still is an adverb and an adjective.

Still as an adverb

331a

We use *still* as an adverb to emphasise that something is continuing:

*They have been together for 40 years and they are **still** very much in love.*

*We're **still** waiting for our new couch to be delivered.*

We usually put *still* in the normal mid position for adverbs (between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb):

*She **still** goes to French classes every week.* (between subject and main verb)

*He's **still** studying.* (after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb)

*I'm **still** hungry.* (after main verb *be*)

! In informal speaking, you will often hear *still* used in end position. Many speakers of English may consider this usage too informal:

*I can't find my bag **still**. Has anyone seen it?*

*Have you got their address **still**?*

The opposite of *still* is *no longer*, *not any longer* or *not any more*:

A: Are you *still* teaching in Birmingham?

B: No, I'm *not working there any more* (or *any longer*). (or No, I'm *no longer* working there.)

Not: I'm ~~not still~~ working ...

We sometimes use *still* to show that the continuing situation is not desired or is surprising, especially when *still* is stressed and in a negative clause. Note the position of *still* before the auxiliary or modal verb when we use it in a negative clause:

*She bought a car two months ago and she **still** hasn't taken any driving lessons.* (*still* is stressed)

*I **still** can't find Kay's phone number.* (*still* is stressed) (I've been looking for it for a long time. I wish I could find it.)

We can also use *still* stressed in this way for something that is true in spite of other things:

*We offered £350,000 for the flat but they **still** wanted more.*

*We were near the front of the queue but we **still** didn't get tickets for the concert.*

We can use *still* in front position to mean 'on the other hand' or 'nevertheless':

*I don't really like weddings. **Still**, I'll have to go or they'll be offended.*

*... there was not one air-conditioned room on the tour and there were not enough minibuses for all the passengers. **Still**, I did manage to get into one minibus but it broke down on the way to the hotel.*

→ Already 30; Already, *still* or *yet*? 31; Any more or anymore? 32; Long 197; Yet 396

Still as an adjective

331b

We use *still* as an adjective to say that something is not moving:

*Keep your head **still**.*

*It was a **still**, calm evening.*

Still: typical errors

331c

- We don't use *still* after the main verb:

*Teachers **still** have an important role in the classroom.*

Not: Teachers ~~have still~~ an important role ...

- We don't use *still* before the first auxiliary or modal verb in an affirmative clause:

*The price of petrol is **still** going up.*

Not: ... ~~still is~~ going up.

*I can **still** run 5 km without difficulty.*

Not: I ~~still can~~ run ...

Stop + -ing form or to-infinitive

332

We use the *-ing* form after *stop* to indicate that an action or event is no longer continuing:

*It's **stopped** raining. Let's go for a walk.* (It was raining, but not any more.)

*We've **stopped** using plastic bags in supermarkets. We take our own bag with us now when we go shopping.*

We use the *to*-infinitive after *stop* to indicate that someone stops doing something in order to do something else:

*On the way to Edinburgh, we **stopped to look** at an old castle.* (We were travelling, then we stopped our journey in order to look at the castle.)

*We **stopped to have** something to eat.*

Subjects

333

A subject is one of the five major elements of clause structure. The other four are: verb, object, complement and adjunct. Subjects are essential in declarative, negative and interrogative clauses.

The subject acts as the 'doer' or agent of an action. Subjects are typically noun phrases (e.g. a noun or pronoun and any dependent words before or after it):

***The teacher** told the class to sit down.* (determiner + noun)

*Doesn't **he** eat meat?* (pronoun)

***Spring** is like a breath of fresh air after a winter indoors.* (noun)

***Callum** is so good at sport.* (proper noun)

***They** don't open the shop on Sundays.* (pronoun)

***Surfing** is becoming more and more popular.* (*-ing* form as a noun)

***Examples of the work of the four artists** will be in an exhibition at the Tate Gallery from Nov 4–29.* (noun + prepositional phrase)

Subject position

333a

In statements (declarative clauses), the subject comes before the verb:

[*eating out* means eating in a restaurant]

***They** love eating out.*

***Some people** prefer to go on holiday to the same place every year.*

***The course fee** doesn't include materials.*

In questions (interrogative clauses), the subject comes after the auxiliary or modal verb and before the main verb:

Has **Shona** been to the house before? (auxiliary + subject + verb + other elements)

Do **you** want a cup of tea? (auxiliary + subject + verb + other elements)

In exclamations, the subject comes after *How* or *What* and before the verb:

What a fantastic cook **she** is!

How easily **he'd** tricked her!

Dummy subjects

333b

The subject is an essential part of a clause. Sometimes we need to use a 'dummy' subject where there is no other subject to put in the subject position. We use *it* or *there* as subjects:

It's not raining, is it?

It's strange the way the weather changes so quickly.

There are lots of things to do here in the city centre.

No subject

333c


In very informal speaking we can leave out the pronoun in declarative clauses (statements), particularly *I* with verbs like *hope* and *know*:

Hope you have a great time. (I hope you have ...)

A: *Do we have to do the second exercise as well?*

B: *Don't think so.* (I don't think so.)

→Ellipsis 116

In imperative clauses (orders, instructions, requests) we don't include the subject:

Close the door after you.

Turn left at the end of the road.

→Imperatives 172a

Subjects: typical errors

333d

- We don't omit the subject in declarative and interrogative clauses:

A: *Do **you** know Susie?*

B: *Yes, **I** do. **She's** really nice.*

Not: ~~Is really nice.~~

***It's** strange that we don't see them any more.*

Not: ~~Is strange that ...~~

*Are **there** two phone boxes at the end of this road?*

Not: ~~Are two phone boxes at the end of this road?~~

→Ellipsis 116; Noun phrases 234; Sentences 319; Subject-verb agreement 334; Clauses 68; Dummy subjects 109

Subject-verb agreement

334

The person and number of the subject of the clause determine the person and number of the verb of the clause. This is called subject-verb agreement or concord:

*He **hates** being in hospital.* (third person singular subject + *hates*)

Not: He ~~hate~~ ~~being~~ ...

*We often **go** to Edinburgh.*

Not: We ~~often~~ ~~goes~~ ...

*Are you **ready**?*

Not: Is ~~you~~ ~~ready~~?

*They **don't** do enough art at school.*

Not: They ~~doesn't~~ ~~do~~ ...

Some nouns, describing groups of people, can take a singular or plural verb:

*The audience **was** silent, waiting.* (or *The audience **were** silent ...*)

*The government **does not** encourage investment in industry.* (or *The government **do not** encourage ...*)

→ Noun phrases 234; Verbs 360

Subject complements

335

A subject complement gives us more information about the subject. It usually comes after linking verbs and sense verbs (including *be*, *seem*, *smell*, *taste*), and after change of state verbs (including *go*, *get*, *become*).

Subject complements: parts of speech

335a

Subject complements can be adjective phrases, noun phrases, adverb phrases or prepositional phrases:

*That rice tastes **quite sweet**.* (subject + adjective phrase)

*It seems **a long time** since this morning.* (subject + noun phrase)

A: Where are you?

B: *I'm **upstairs**.* (subject + adverb phrase)

*It still smells **of paint** in here.* (subject + prepositional phrase)

Subject complements are not the same as objects.

↔ Compare

<i>He married a famous writer.</i>	<i>a famous writer</i> is a different person = the object
<i>He became a famous writer.</i>	<i>become</i> is a linking verb; <i>a famous writer</i> describes the subject = the same person as <i>he</i>

Complements and adjuncts are different. A complement is necessary in order to complete the meaning. An adjunct is not necessary, and adds extra information.

→ Complements 82; Complements and adjuncts 82b

Pronouns as subject complements**335b**

When we use a pronoun as a subject complement after *be*, we usually use an object pronoun (e.g. *me, him, us*):

*The dog barked before we even came to the door. He knew it was **us**.*

Not: He knew it was *we*.

*You know the girl I was telling you about? Well, that's **her** over there.*

Not: Well, that's *she* over there.

In some formal contexts we use the subject pronoun (e.g. *I, he, they, we*):

*I can't exactly remember whether it was **he** who asked me to go with **them**. (less formal: ... whether it was **him** who ...)*

→ Complements 82; Linking verbs 364b; Objects 241

Substitution**336****Substitution: purpose****336a**

In speaking and in writing, we try to avoid repeating words, phrases or clauses. We use substitute forms to do this:

A: *Pam always brings us back chocolates when she travels.*

B: *Oh, nice.*

A: *She brought some Belgian **ones** from her last trip, which were delicious.*

B: *Lucky you!*

(A uses *ones* to avoid repeating *chocolates*.)

[A has a problem with her computer]

A: *Do you think I should phone Barry and ask him to come and look at it.*

B: *Yes, **do**.* (B uses *do* to avoid repeating *phone Barry and ask him to come and look at it*.)

We can use substitution to refer backwards or forwards. Forward substitution is far less common than backward substitution (The noun being referred to is underlined in the examples.):

*If you need **them**, there are nails in the toolbox* (forward substitution).

*A large saucepan is what we need for making jam, but I don't have **one*** (backward substitution).

Substitution: what forms can we use?**336b**

We can use many different words and phrases in substitution, including words such as *both, either, some* (indefinite quantifying pronouns), *do* and *so*, and expressions such as *the same* and *thus*.

Indefinite quantifying pronouns

The following words and phrases are commonly used as substitutes:

(a) little	each	less	one(s)
another	either	many	other(s)
all	enough	much	several
any	few	neither	some
both	half	none	

A: *There's this card with a clown on it and this one with a monkey. Which do you think Mark would prefer?*

B: *I think he'd like **either**.*

A: *Does she have a lot of friends at work?*

B: *No, not **one**.*

Substituting with do

We use *do*, *do so*, *do it*, *do the same* to substitute for a verb and whatever accompanies it (complement):

A: *We always have toast and coffee in the morning.*

B: *We **do** too. I can't function without breakfast. (Do substitutes for have toast and coffee in the morning.)*

→ **Do as a substitute verb 105f**

Substituting with so

We can use *so* as a substitute in a number of ways: for an adjective (*it remains so*), an object clause (*I think so*), with reporting verbs (*so I heard*) and in exclamations (*so he is!*).

→ **So 323; So as a substitute form 323c; So am I, so do I, Neither do I 323d**

Substitution for nouns

336c

One, some, ones

We mostly use *one* and *some/ones* to substitute for countable nouns:

*She tried to get a ticket but she couldn't get **one**. (She couldn't get a ticket.)*

A: *Is there a bookshop around here?*

B: *There are two second-hand **ones** at the end of the street on the right.*

Where there is nothing before or after *ones*, *some* or *any* are used as a plural substitute:

A: *Have either of you got any one pound coins for this machine?*

B: *Let me see, I've definitely got **some**.*

C: *I'm afraid I don't have **any**.*

Not: *Let me see, I've definitely got ones.*

Not: *I'm afraid I don't have ones.*

→ **Any 34; One 247; Some 325; Some and any 326**

Indefinite quantifying pronouns (*little, all, both, neither*)

We can use indefinite quantifying pronouns such as (*a*) *little, all, both, many, much, neither, few* to substitute for noun phrases:

*Hundreds of people went to the village festival and **all** seemed to enjoy themselves very much.*

→ Pronouns 287; Determiners used as pronouns 101

That, those

We can use *that* and *those* as substitutes meaning 'the one(s)' in more formal contexts:

*The water for the factory was **that** from the local reservoir.*

*The books he read were **those** which he found in the old library.*

In formal contexts, especially in academic style, we use *that of/those of*:

*The head has a similar shape and size to **that of** a mammal.*

→ *This, that, these, those* 349

Such 337

Such as a determiner

337a

We can use *such* (as a determiner) before a noun phrase to add emphasis:

*We visited **such** fascinating places on our trip through central Asia.*

*She has **such** lovely hair.*

*She lived in **such** loneliness. (formal)*

We use *such* before the indefinite article, *a/an*:

*We had **such an** awful meal at that restaurant!*

Not: ~~We had a such awful meal ...~~

Such meaning 'of this or that kind'

337b

In more formal situations, we can use *such* to mean 'of this or that kind'. We can use it before *a/an* or after expressions like *the only, the first, the second*:

*You must not destroy people's houses. I could never agree to **such** a plan. (a plan of that kind)*

*A college is offering a degree in pop music composition. It is the only **such** course in the country. (the only course of that kind)*

Such ... that

337c

We can use a *that*-clause after a noun phrase with *such*:

*He is **such** a bad-tempered person **that** no one can work with him for long.*

*It was **such** a long and difficult exam **that** I was completely exhausted at the end.*

→ *So* 323; *Such or so?* 338; *Such as* 339

Such or so?

338

Such is a determiner; *so* is an adverb. They often have the same meaning of 'very' or 'to this degree':

Those are **such** good chocolates.

Those chocolates are **so** good.

We use *such* + noun phrase and *so* + adjective or adverb phrase:

She is **such** a great cook.

Not: She is ~~so great~~ cook.

That was **so** unpleasant. (*so* + adjective)

Not: That was ~~such unpleasant~~.

Why do you drive **so** fast? (*so* + adverb)

Not: Why do you drive ~~such fast~~?

↔ Compare

<i>so</i> + adjective	<i>such</i> + noun phrase
You're so kind.	He's such a kind person
It was so hot we couldn't work.	November was such a cold month.

So but not *such* can also be used in front of *much*, *many*, *little*, *few* to add emphasis:

So much food was wasted every day.

Not: ~~Such much~~ food was wasted ...

In those days there were so few doctors in our area.

Not: ... ~~there were such few~~ doctors ...

→ So 323; Such 337

Typical errors

- We use *such*, not *so*, before a noun, even if there is an adjective before the noun:

They're **such** snobs! They won't speak to anyone else in the village.

Not: They're ~~so snobs~~ ...

Those are **such** cool shoes. Where did you get them?

Not: Those are ~~so cool~~ shoes.

- We use *such*, not *so*, before a noun phrase with the indefinite article *a/an*:

This is **such a** wonderful kitchen!

Not: This is ~~a so wonderful~~ kitchen!

- We use *so*, not *such*, before adjectives:

Thank you. You're **so** kind.

Not: You're ~~such kind~~.

- We use *so*, not *such*, before adverbs:

She always dresses **so** elegantly.

Not: She always dresses ~~such elegantly~~.

Such as

339

We can use *such as* to introduce an example or examples of something we mention. We normally use a comma before *such as* when we present a list of examples. Where there is just one example, we don't need a comma:

*The shop specialises in tropical fruits, **such as** pineapples, mangoes and papayas. (... for example, pineapples, mangoes and papayas.)*

*Countries **such as** Sweden have a long record of welcoming refugees from all over the world.*

Such as is similar to *like* for introducing examples, but it is more formal, and is used more in writing than *like*:

*She has worked in several countries where English is spoken as a first language, **such as** Australia, New Zealand, Canada and so on. (or, less formal, ... **like** Australia, New Zealand, Canada and so on.)*

! We don't use *as* on its own to introduce examples:

*Young kids these days seem to love 1960s rock bands, **such as** the Beatles, the Kinks or the Rolling Stones.*

Not: ... to love 1960s rock bands, as the Beatles ...

! We don't use *such as* when we compare things:

*The group from Dublin all wore green, white or gold t-shirts, **like** the colours of their national flag.*

Not: ... such as the colours of their national flag.

Suffixes

340

A suffix is a letter or group of letters added at the end of a word which makes a new word.

words	suffix	new words
<i>forget, use</i>	<i>-ful</i>	<i>forgetful, useful</i>
<i>state, govern</i>	<i>-ment</i>	<i>statement, government</i>
<i>complicate, create</i>	<i>-ion</i>	<i>complication, creation</i>

The new word is most often a different word class from the original word. In the table above, the suffix *-ful* has changed verbs to adjectives, *-ment*, and *-ion* have changed verbs to nouns. If you see a word ending in *-ment*, for example, it is likely to be a noun (e.g. *commitment, contentment*).

Suffixes: spelling

340a

Often, the suffix causes a spelling change to the original word. In the table above, the *-e* ending of *complicate* and *create* disappears when the *-ion* suffix is added. Other examples of spelling changes include:

beauty, duty + *-ful* → *beautiful, dutiful* (-y changes to i)
heavy, ready + *-ness* → *heaviness, readiness* (-y changes to i)
able, possible + *-ity* → *ability, possibility* (-le changes to il)
permit, omit + *-ion* → *permission, omission* (-t changes to ss)

A good learner’s dictionary will give you information on the correct spelling of words with suffixes.

→ Spelling 330

Common suffixes and examples

340b

Noun suffixes

suffix	examples of nouns
-age	baggage, village, postage
-al	arrival, burial, deferral
-ance/-ence	reliance, defence, insistence
-dom	boredom, freedom, kingdom
-ee	employee, payee, trainee
-er/-or	driver, writer, director
-hood	brotherhood, childhood, neighbourhood
-ism	capitalism, Marxism, socialism (philosophies)
-ist	capitalist, Marxist, socialist (followers of philosophies)
-ity/-ty	brutality, equality, cruelty
-ment	amazement, disappointment, parliament
-ness	happiness, kindness, usefulness
-ry	entry, ministry, robbery
-ship	friendship, membership, workmanship
-sion/-tion/-xion	expression, population, complexion

Adjective suffixes

suffix	examples of adjectives
-able/-ible	drinkable, portable, flexible
-al	brutal, formal, postal
-en	broken, golden, wooden

-ese	<i>Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese</i>
-ful	<i>forgetful, helpful, useful</i>
-i	<i>Iraqi, Pakistani, Yemeni</i>
-ic	<i>classic, Islamic, poetic</i>
-ish	<i>British, childish, Spanish</i>
-ive	<i>active, passive, productive</i>
-ian	<i>Canadian, Malaysian, Peruvian</i>
-less	<i>homeless, hopeless, useless</i>
-ly	<i>daily, monthly, yearly</i>
-ous	<i>cautious, famous, nervous</i>
-y	<i>cloudy, rainy, windy</i>

Verb suffixes

suffix	examples of verbs
-ate	<i>complicate, dominate, irritate</i>
-en	<i>harden, soften, shorten</i>
-ify	<i>beautify, clarify, identify</i>
-ise/-ize	<i>economise, realise, industrialize (-ise is most common in British English; -ize is most common in American English)</i>

Adverb suffixes

suffix	examples of adverbs
-ly	<i>calmly, easily, quickly</i>
-ward(s)	<i>downwards, homeward(s), upwards</i>
-wise	<i>anti-clockwise, clockwise, edgewise</i>

Suggestions

341

If we make a suggestion, it means that we mention a possible course of action to someone. There are a number of expressions which we can use to make suggestions.

How about/what about + -ing?

How about starting a book club?

What about opening your present now?

How about + present simple?

A: **How about** I pick you up at eight o'clock on my way to the airport?

B: Great. I'll see you then.

We often use *how about* and *what about* + noun phrase when we make suggestions about food or drink. These suggestions are invitations:

A: Are you hungry?

B: Yeah, **how about** some lunch?

What about a coffee?

→ **Invitations 182; How 164; What 374; Supposing 86g**

Why not ...? and why don't ...?

We can use *why not* to make a general suggestion. We often find it in advertising:

Why not take a break in the south-west?

Why not treat yourself to a meal at the Icon Restaurant?

We can use *why don't ...?* to make a specific suggestion:

You look really tired. **Why don't** you take some time out and rest?

It's getting late in the evening now. **Why don't** we stop now and work on this tomorrow morning?

→ **Why 383**

Let's ... and let's not ...

We use *let's* (*let us*) to make suggestions about doing something with someone:

Let's call Michael and see if he knows how to fix it.

Let's make a curry tonight.

We use *let's not* to make negative suggestions:

Let's not argue about this.

Let's not spend all night talking about my problems.

→ **Let, let's 193**

Could

We often use phrases with *could* to make suggestions. Some are neutral, some are strong. The negative form, *couldn't*, is stronger than the affirmative form:

Strong

A: I only have three chairs. There will be four of us for dinner.

B: **Couldn't** you use the one in your bedroom?

A: I need to finish this essay by tonight.

B: **Couldn't** you get up early in the morning to finish it?

Neutral

A: I have nothing to wear to the party.

B: **You could** wear your red dress and your black shoes.

- A: We'll need to have at least £300 for the concert tickets, the accommodation and the train.
 B: **We could** cut lawns and wash cars and that kind of thing.
 C: Or **we could** borrow the money from our parents and pay them back.

→ **Could 95**

Can't you ...?

We can use *can't you* to make a strong suggestion. It can sound very direct when it is addressed to someone who is present:

[mother to child]

Can't you finish your homework before going?

[a woman is talking about her husband who wants a new television]

A: I think our television is fine. I don't want it to be replaced really.

B: Mm.

A: And he'll want one of those wide screens.

B: Oh dear. **Can't he** manage with the one you have?

I thought we might/could

We can use phrases with *I thought we might* or *I thought we could* to make weak suggestions, especially when we don't want to sound too forceful:

On Saturday, **I thought we might** go to town and see the Farmers' Market and then **I thought we could** have lunch in a nice little café by the river.

You could always

We can use the phrase *you could always* or *we could always* to make weak suggestions:

A: Oh no! We're out of olive oil.

B: **We could always** use butter. I know it's not as healthy, but it'll taste good.

There's always

We use the phrase *there's always* to make very weak suggestions. It is sometimes used when someone is trying to cheer someone up or trying to be funny:

A: How did it go?

B: We lost four nil. That's it for this year. We're out of the championship now.

A: Don't worry. **There's always** next year.

[friends are chatting about the Beatles; Paul and Ringo are the names of two of its members]

A: I always liked Paul.

B: I once dreamt that I married Ringo.

A: Oh no! That was a nightmare!

C: **There's always** divorce!

We also use *suggest* and *shall* to make suggestions.

→ **Suggest O; Shall 320; How 164**

Suppose, supposing and what if

342

Suggestions

342a

We use *suppose*, *supposing* and *what if* + present verb form to make suggestions about what might happen:

A: *What time shall we meet?*

B: **Suppose** we meet in the offices downstairs at four o'clock?

A: *That's perfect. I'll let the others know.*

Supposing I don't bring my car and you and I travel together. That would save us half the cost of petrol and parking.

A: *The electricity has gone. There must be a power cut.*

B: **What if** we find the candles and put them around the room?

A: *Okay. Good idea. Do you know where they are?*

Possibility

342b

When we are less certain, we use *suppose*, *supposing* and *what if* + past form to talk about future possibility:

Suppose we asked Mary to baby-sit? Do you think she'd do it? (not as certain as *Suppose we ask Mary to baby-sit?*)

Supposing someone else wrote the essay. How would we know? (not as certain as *Supposing someone else writes the essay ...*)

A: **What if** I gave up working full-time. I'd love that.

B: *You're joking surely!!*

When we refer to something that did not happen (something hypothetical), we use the past perfect:

Suppose we hadn't brought our umbrellas. (We did bring our umbrellas.)

Supposing they had closed the road. Would that have been a good idea? (They didn't close the road.)

What if I had accidentally told Maria about the party! That would have ruined the surprise. (I didn't tell Maria about the party.)

! We use *be supposed to* to talk about obligations and arrangements, not suggestions.

You are supposed to put money in the parking meter!

→ *Be supposed to* 54f; Suggestions 341; How 164

Tags

343

Tags: uses

343a

Tags are either questions, statements or imperatives added to a clause to invite a response from the listener:

A: You're a musician, **aren't you**?
B: Well, yes, but I'm just an amateur.
A: She can't swim, **can she**?
B: No. Apparently she never learnt as a child.
Donna plays football, **doesn't she**?
He was your teacher, **was he**?
A: Pass me that CD, **will you**?
B: [passes the CD]
A: Thanks.

Tags: form **343b**

Tags consist of one of the auxiliary verbs *be*, *do* or *have*, or the main verb *be*, or a modal verb, plus a subject, which is most commonly a pronoun:

main clause	<i>be</i> , <i>do</i> , <i>have</i> , modal	subject pronoun
<i>He's working as a tour guide,</i>	<i>isn't</i>	<i>he?</i>
<i>Your mother was Scottish,</i>	<i>wasn't</i>	<i>she?</i>
<i>She plays the piano,</i>	<i>does</i>	<i>she?</i>
<i>The shops don't open till 9.30,</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>they?</i>
<i>They've moved,</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>they?</i>
<i>You could sell it on the Internet,</i>	<i>couldn't</i>	<i>you?</i>
<i>Don't be</i> late tonight,	<i>will</i>	<i>you?</i>

When we use auxiliary *be*, *do* or *have*, a modal verb or main verb *be* in the main clause, this verb is used in the tag:

She was crying, wasn't she?
He does look like his father, doesn't he?
They've waited a long time, haven't they?
You're Danish, aren't you?

If there is no auxiliary or modal verb in the main clause, we use auxiliary *do*, *does*, *did* in the tag:

He plays hockey, does he?
She dances beautifully, doesn't she?
The girls wanted to go home, didn't they?

If the main clause verb is *I am*, then the negative tag form is *aren't I*:

Sorry, I'm late again, aren't I?

If the main clause verb is *used to*, the tag verb is *did*:

A: Martin **used to** live in Oxford, **didn't** he?

B: Yes, *that's right*.

If the main clause verb is *ought to*, the tag verb is most commonly *should* or, far less commonly, *ought*:

We **ought to** leave now, really, **shouldn't** we? Or (far less commonly) We **ought to** leave now, really, **oughtn't** we?

When tags follow imperatives, the tag verb is usually *will*:

A: **Phone** me this evening, **will** you?

B: Yeah, OK. I'll give you a call about 6.30.

Question tags

343c

Question tags turn statements into *yes-no* questions. There are two types.

Type 1

The first type of question tag consists of an affirmative main clause and a negative tag, or a negative main clause and an affirmative tag. Negative tags are most commonly used in the contracted form:

[main clause] [tag]

*She's a translator, **isn't she?*** (affirmative main clause + negative tag)

*He hasn't arrived yet, **has he?*** (negative main clause + affirmative tag)

We can use type 1 question tags when we expect the answer to the question to confirm that what we say in the main clause is true:

A: You work with Barbara, **don't you?** (A thinks it is true that B works with Barbara.)

B: Yes, *that's right*.

A: Sam's not very old, **is he?** (A thinks it is true that Sam is not very old.)

B: No, *he's only 24*.

With type 1 tags, we can use falling intonation (↘) if we are fairly sure of the answer, and rising intonation (↗) if we are not so sure.

↔ Compare

fairly sure		not so sure	
<i>We've met before,</i>	haven't we?	<i>You were at Kim's party,</i>	weren't you?
<i>He's not very happy,</i>	is he?	<i>They're not open today,</i>	are they?

Type 2

The second type of question tag consists of an affirmative main clause and an affirmative tag:

[main clause] [tag]

*You're Joe's cousin, **are you?***

*She got the email, **did she?***

We can use type 2 tags when we do not know if the answer is *yes* or *no*. The intonation is usually a rising tone:

A: Maureen **lives** in Hamden, **does she?** (The speaker wants to know if Maureen lives in Hamden or not.)

B: Yes, *she does*. *She was born there in fact*.

A: You're a graphic designer, **are you?**

B: No, *not actually a designer, but I work with graphics*.

A: Oh, *right*.

Imperative tags

343d

A tag after an imperative clause softens the imperative a little. The tag verb is most commonly *will* but we can also use *would*, *could*, *can* and *won't*:

*Turn the TV down, **will you?***

*Don't shout, **will you?** I can hear you perfectly well.*

*Come here a minute, **can you?***

After the imperative with *let's*, we can use *shall* in the tag:

*Let's have some lunch now, **shall we?***

Statement tags

343e

We can use a statement tag to emphasise or reinforce an affirmative statement. The tag is also affirmative. They typically invite the listener to agree or sympathise in some way, or to offer a parallel comment. Statement tags are very informal:

A: I'm bored with this, I **am**. (stronger than *I'm bored with this*)

B: *Me too*.

A: My Maths teacher was lovely. He **was** a great teacher, he **was**.

B: *Hm, you were lucky. Mine wasn't so good.*

When the main clause has a pronoun subject, a statement tag can have a noun as the subject instead of a pronoun:

A: *She won some money last week, Catherine **did**.*

B: *Really?*

A: *Yeah.*

*He was a great teacher, Mr Mark **was**.*

This construction is similar to a tail construction.

→ Headers and tails 159

Universal tags: *right*, *yeah*

343f

We can use *right* and *yeah* in very informal situations instead of question tags:

A: *So, you're not coming with us tonight, **right?***

B: *No, I'm too busy. Sorry. or (less informally) You're not coming with us tonight, **are you?***

A: *They'll be here about 4.30, **yeah?***

B: *Yeah. **That's** what they said. or (less informally) *They'll be here about 4.30, **won't they/will they?****

That

344

That is a very common word in both writing and speaking. We use it as a determiner, a demonstrative pronoun and a relative pronoun. We also use it as a conjunction to introduce *that*-clauses.

That: determiner and pronoun

344a

We use *that* most commonly to point to a thing or person. We use it with singular nouns. The thing or person is often distant from the speaker and sometimes closer to the listener, or not visible to either the speaker or listener:

*Can you pass me **that** green bowl over there?* (determiner)

[pointing to one of a selection of different paint colours]

*I quite like **that** one.*

***That's** Harold in the white shirt, isn't it?* (pronoun)

We also use *that* to refer back to a whole clause:

A: *We're having a few friends round for dinner. Would you like to come?*

B: ***That** sounds lovely.*

*Why don't you come at around 8? **That'll** give me time to get ready.*

A: *Can you tell Kat to hurry up? We've got to leave at 11.*

B: *I've already told her **that**.*

We use *that* to refer back to something that has already been spoken or written about:

*If he gets **that** job in London, he'll be able to visit us more often.*

That: relative pronoun

344b

We use *that* to introduce defining relative clauses. We can use *that* instead of *who*, *whom* or *which* to refer to people, animals and things. *That* is more informal than *who* or *which*:

*She picked up the hairbrush **that** she had left on the bed.*

*He was the first director of the National Science Foundation, and he funded science research with an annual budget **that** grew to 500 million dollars.*

→ Relative clauses 307

That-clauses

344c

We also use *that* to introduce *that*-clauses after some verbs, adjectives and nouns:

*I admit **that** I was wrong.* (verb + *that*-clause)

*Are you certain **that** the man in the car was Nick?* (adjective + *that*-clause)

*The name of the company illustrates my belief **that** sign language is a fascinating form of communication.* (noun + *that*-clause)

→ *That*-clauses 345

That: other uses**344d****That's + adjective**

We use *that's* + adjective (e.g. *that's lovely*, *that's good*, *that's great*, *that's terrible*, *that's awful*) to respond to something that someone is telling us, to show that we are listening:

A: *They got stuck in traffic on the way to the airport and missed the plane.*

B: *Oh, **that's** awful.*

That as an intensifier

We use *not that* + adjective to mean 'not very' or 'not as ... as you are saying'. We put spoken stress on *that*:

A: *I thought the meal was delicious.*

B: *Mine wasn't **that** nice.* (My meal wasn't as nice as you are saying. My meal wasn't delicious.)

A: *I wouldn't be surprised if Emily became an actress.*

B: *I don't think she's **that** good.*

→ *This, that, these, those* 349; Relative clauses 307; *It, this* and *that* in paragraphs 185;

Verb patterns: verb + *that*-clause 366; *That*-clauses 345

That-clauses**345**

We use *that* to link a verb, adjective or noun with the following clause.

Verb + that-clause**345a**

Verbs commonly followed by *that* include reporting verbs (*say, tell, admit*, etc.) and mental process verbs (*believe, think, know, hope*, etc.):

*They **said that** four million workers stayed at home to protest against the tax.*

*The survey **indicated that** 28 per cent would prefer to buy a house through a building society than through a bank.*

*He **knew that** something bad had happened.*

*Do you **think that** they forgot to pay or that they stole it?*

→ Verb patterns: verb + *that*-clause 366

Adjective + that-clause**345b**

We use *be* + adjective + *that*-clause to express opinions and feelings. Some adjectives commonly used in this way are *sure, certain, right, important, afraid, pleased, sorry, surprised, worried*. We can omit *that* with no change in meaning:

*It's **important** (**that**) we look at the problem in more detail.*

*I'm **sure** (**that**) you'll know a lot of people there.*

*They **were afraid** (**that**) we were going to be late.*

Noun + that-clause**345c**

We use a noun + *that*-clause to express opinions and feelings, often about certainty and possibility. We also use **that** with reporting nouns. Some nouns commonly used in this way are *belief, fact, hope, idea, possibility, suggestion, statement, claim, comment, argument*:

*He is also having intensive treatment in the **hope that** he will be able to train on Friday.*

*Dutch police are investigating the **possibility that** a bomb was planted on the jet.*

→ Verb patterns: verb + *that*-clause 366; *So that* or *in order that*? 6

There, their or they're?**346**

There, their and they're are commonly confused in English, as they sound the same.

There is an adverb which refers to places:

*The shop you need is over **there**.*

We also use *there* to say that something exists:

***There** is a large oak tree outside the hotel.*

Their is a possessive determiner which means 'belonging to them':

***Their** house is very small, isn't it?*

They're is a shortened form of 'they are':

***They're** too young to have a holiday so far away from home.*

There is, there's and there are**347**

We use *there is* and *there are* when we first refer to the existence or presence of someone or something:

***There's** a letter on your desk. Julia brought it from the mail room.*

Not: ~~*It's a letter on your desk.*~~

***There are** three Japanese students in my class.*

There is and *there's* are both singular forms. We use *there's* more commonly in informal speaking:

***There is** a new cafe in the centre of town which sells Indonesian food.*

*She's very determined and **there's** no chance she will change her mind.*

There are is the plural form of *there is* and *there's*:

***There are** two new buildings next to the school. They are both science buildings.*

In speaking and in some informal writing, we use *there's* even when it refers to more than one. This use could be considered incorrect in formal writing or in an examination:

***There's** three other people who are still to come.*

***There's** lots of cars in the car park.*

Thing and stuff

348

Thing

348a

We use the general noun *thing* more commonly in speaking than in writing.

It is most commonly used to refer to physical objects, but we also use *thing* to refer to ideas, actions and events:

*What's that **thing** over there in the car park?*

*She always says that she hasn't a **thing** to wear.*

*Can you put your **things** in the upstairs room? (things here = personal belongings)*

*Anger is a very dangerous **thing** in a young man.*

*So don't rush him. These **things** take time and we certainly don't want to upset him.*

*A holiday? That's just the **thing** for you.*

A: Hi Geoff. How's **things**? (How's things is a common informal greeting.)

B: Fine, thanks. How are you?

We often use *thing* in a similar way to *wh*-cleft constructions (*What we need to do is ...*). It is also often used with *to* and with *that*-clauses (underlined):

*The **thing** we need to know is why they missed the train.*

*The **thing** they said that we shouldn't forget was to take a boat trip on the lake.*

*The best **thing** to do is to phone the doctor at once.*

*The **thing** that worries me most is the cost of the holiday.*

In speaking, we commonly use the phrase *the thing is*. We use it when we want to focus on something, or to indicate that there is a problem:

*The **thing is** ... erm ... we don't have time to visit New York as well as Washington.*

*Yeah, that's OK, but the **thing is**, he still hasn't apologised for being late.*

Thing is an example of vague language. It allows speakers not to sound too direct. We often use *thing* in phrases such as *things like that*, *that kind of thing*:

*They're cooking lots of different Italian and Spanish dishes and **things like that**.*

*When I worked in a newspaper office, there wasn't time for eating lunch or **that kind of thing**, you know.*

We also use *thing* to show both positive (usually affectionate) and negative attitudes, mainly when accompanied by appropriate adjectives:

*Our cat is too old now to leave the house, poor **thing**.*

*You lucky **thing**! I wish I had the chance to visit New Zealand.*

A: You're going to get paint on that dress. Why don't you get changed?

B: It doesn't matter. It's just an old **thing**.

→Cleft sentences 72; Vague expressions 359

Stuff**348b**

Stuff is one of the most common nouns in speaking. It is more informal than *thing*. It is not at all common in writing.

Stuff is an uncountable noun. We use *stuff* in similar ways to *thing*, especially in vague language phrases such as *stuff like that*:

Where can we put our **stuff**? (our belongings) (very similar to, but more informal than, *Where can we put our things?*)

She didn't have much advice to offer. She just told us to learn lots of new English vocabulary and **stuff like that**.

→ Kind of and sort of 188; Sort, type and kind 328; Vague expressions 359; The thing, the one thing, something 391d

This, that, these, those**349**

This, that, these and *those* are demonstratives. We use *this, that, these* and *those* to point to people and things. *This* and *that* are singular. *These* and *those* are plural. We use them as determiners and pronouns.

determiners	pronouns
What's in this box?	Come and look at this .
That water tastes strange.	That's a very good idea.
I might get myself a pair of those shoes.	Can I have one of these ?

This, that, these, those as determiners**349a****Pointing to things**

We use *this* and *that* with singular and uncountable nouns:

Try to repeat **this** exercise every morning and evening. (*this* + singular countable noun)

What does **this** music make you think of? (*this* + singular uncountable noun)

I've never been to **that** part of France. (*that* + singular countable noun)

Can I have some of **that** juice, please? (*that* + singular uncountable noun)

We use *these* and *those* with plural nouns:

You can use any one of **these** computers. (*these* + plural noun)

I need to paint **those** windows. (*those* + plural noun)

Time phrases

We often use *this* with words describing time and dates like *morning, afternoon, evening, week, month, year* to refer to 'the one that's coming' or 'the one we're currently in':

I'll be with you some time **this evening**.

Johan seemed very happy **this afternoon**.

Ian is in Germany all **this week**.

This, that, these, those as pronouns**349b****Referring to things or ideas**

We normally use *this*, *that*, *these* and *those* as pronouns to refer to things or ideas:

*Put the butter, chocolate and sugar in a saucepan. Heat **this** over a low flame until it melts.*

*We're going to eat first and then go to the film. Are you happy with **that**? (Are you happy with the idea of eating first, then going to the film?)*

[talking about the TV]

*Can you turn **that** off if you're not watching it?*

[talking about shoes]

*What colour are **those**? Black or dark blue. I can't see.*

Referring to people

We can use *this* and *that* as pronouns to refer to people when we want to identify ourselves or others, or to ask the identity of other speakers:

*Linda, **this** is my mother, Anne.*

*Is **that** your brother over there?*

We often do this in telephone calls and in answer-phone messages:

*Hello, is **that** Ken Orm? **This** is Jane Bromham here.*

This and these, that and those: uses **349c****Physical closeness and distance**

We use *this* and *these* most commonly to point to things and people that are close to the speaker or writer, or things that are happening now:

*Shall I use **this** knife here?*

[pointing to something]

*Is **this** what you mean?*

*I'll post **these** letters on my way home.*

[pointing to a pile of books]

*Do **these** belong to the Bradshaws?*

We use *that* and *those* most commonly to point to things and people which are not easy to identify in a situation. They are often more distant from the speaker, and sometimes closer to the listener:

*What's in **that** bottle over there?*

*Could you blow out **those** candles near you?*

Sometimes they are not visible to either the speaker or listener:

*Budapest! **That**'s my favourite place!*

Emotional distance

We sometimes use *this*, *these*, *that*, *those* to identify emotional distance. We use *this* and *these* to refer to things that we feel positive about, that we are happy to be associated with, or we approve of:

I love **these** new woollen mobile phone covers **that** you can get.

We use *that* and *those* to create distance:

What are you going to say to **that** sister of yours?

[talking about a restaurant]

I didn't like the decoration. It had **those** awful paintings.

Shared knowledge and new information

We sometimes use *that* instead of *the* to refer to shared knowledge, often when we are telling a story or explaining something:

You know **that** old shop on the corner? Well, they're going to turn it into a restaurant.

We sometimes use *this* instead of *a/an* to refer to something important or recent, or to introduce a new person or thing in a story:

This guy knocked on the door and asked if I wanted new windows.

Then suddenly she pulled out **this** big pile of papers from her briefcase and threw them on the table.

→ *It, this and that* in paragraphs 185; Pronouns 287; Determiners 98

Substitution with *that*, *those*

349d

In formal contexts, we can use *that* and *those* as substitutes meaning 'the one(s)':

The most important information is **that** given at the beginning of the manual. (*that* substitutes for *the information*)

The methods employed are **those** familiar to researchers. (more formal than *The methods employed are the ones familiar to researchers.*)

In formal contexts, especially in academic style, we use *that of/those of* instead of *the one of/the ones of* or *the ... one/the ... ones*. This is preferred to the possessive *X's one/X's ones*:

The proton has a similar mass to **that of** a neutron. (preferred to *The proton has a similar mass to the neutron's.*)

The emotions in the poems are **those of** loss and grief.

Not: ~~The emotions in the poem are loss and grief ones.~~

We normally only use *that* as a substitute for a thing, not for a person or animal:

A: Have you met Mr Kelly?

B: **The one** who works at the town hall, or his brother?

A: **The one** at the town hall.

Not: ~~That who works at the town hall.~~

We can use *those* as a substitute for persons, animals or things:

There are sports facilities for guests. **Those** interested in golf can enjoy our eighteen-hole course.

Time

350

Time is a noun with a number of meanings. In some senses it is countable, and in others it is uncountable. A good learner's dictionary will give you its many meanings and tell you whether it is countable or uncountable.

Time: seconds, minutes, hours, years

350a

We use *time* to refer to what is measured in seconds, minutes, hours and years as a whole. In this sense it is uncountable:

*How much **time** do we have for this project?*

*Children nowadays spend more **time** watching TV than playing.*

Not: ... spend more times ...

In some expressions *time* is countable:

*At a **time** in our history when technology is developing so fast, we can't afford not to invest in Information Technology.*

*I haven't seen Brian for a long **time**.*

Time: talking about clock or calendar time

350b

When we talk about specific clock times, *time* is countable. We do not say *hour*:

*What **time** is it now?*

Not: What hour is it?

*Is this a bad **time** to phone?*

*Is the swimming pool open at that **time**?*

Not: ... at that hour?

We use *in ...'s time* to say when something will happen:

*I'll be finished college **in** three months' **time**.*

*I've ordered a new computer and it'll be here **in** a week's **time**.*

→ *At, on and in (time)* 51; *Telling the time* 350e

On time and in time

350c

We use *on time* to talk about timetabled events. If something is *on time*, it means that it is at the scheduled time. We often use *right on time* or, more informally, *dead on time* or *bang on time*, for emphasis:

*The trains are usually **on time**. (They arrive at the scheduled times, not early or late.)*

A: *It's quarter to two. We'd better get back for the meeting.*

B: *Don't worry. These meetings never start **on time**.*

*I was lucky. The flight to Chicago arrived **right on time**, so I got my connection.*

We use *in time* to say we are not late and have enough time to do something. We use it with *for* plus a noun, or with a verb in the *to*-infinitive form:

*If we leave here at about ten, we should arrive at the coast **in time** for lunch.*

*I hope to be there **in time** to see you before lunch.* (early enough to have time to see you before lunch)

We often use the phrase *just in time* to emphasise that we have time to do something but are almost too late:

*You're **just in time** for lunch!*

↔ Compare

<i>The stadium must be completed on time.</i>	<i>The stadium must be completed in time for the Olympics.</i>
It must be completed according to the schedule.	It must be completed with time to spare before the start of the Olympics.

→ At, on and in (time) 51

Time: referring to past events

350d

We often use expressions with *time* to refer to past events (*the time, the time that, the time when*):

*Remember **the time** your phone went off at Olivia and John's wedding?*

*I'll never forget **the time that** we all dressed up as clowns for Elaine's party.*

***One time when** I was driving home, I saw a strange guy hitchhiking.*

Children's stories often begin with *Once upon a time*:

***Once upon a time**, there was a little girl called Cinderella ...*

Telling the time

350e

Asking the time

We can ask about the time in different ways:

What time is it, please?

What's the time, please, Mark?

What time does the meeting start?

Could you tell me the time, please? (more formal)

At what time does the concert begin? (formal and literary style)

What time do you make it? (informal)

Have you got the time, please?

Saying the time

When we talk about time on a clock, we use *am* to refer to times between 12.00 in the night and 11.59 in the day and we use *pm* to refer to times between 12.00 in the day and 11.59 in the night:

*I never get up before 10 **am**.*

*We weren't home until 1.00 **am**.*

*It was 7.00 **pm** before the plane took off.*

We usually have a lunch break at 12.30 pm.

9.00	nine o'clock
9.05	five past nine or nine oh five
9.10	ten past nine or nine ten
9.15	quarter past nine or nine fifteen
9.20	twenty past nine or nine twenty
9.25	twenty-five past nine or nine twenty-five
9.30	half past nine or nine thirty
9.35	twenty-five to ten or nine thirty-five
9.40	twenty to ten or nine forty
9.45	quarter to ten or nine forty-five
9.50	ten to ten or nine fifty
9.55	five to ten or nine fifty-five
10.00	ten o'clock

We only use *o'clock* for the hour:

It's ten o'clock.

Not: ~~It's quarter past ten o'clock.~~

For times outside five-minute intervals, we say *minutes past* or *minutes to*:

9.01	one minute past nine
9.03	three minutes past nine
9.36	twenty-four minutes to ten
9.58	two minutes to ten

We also use the twenty-four-hour clock, especially in formal writing and in timetables:

The 24-hour clock am and pm

09.00	9.00 am
11.45	11.45 am
13.15	1.15 pm
22.50	10.50 pm

[13.00]

*At **thirteen hundred** (hours), a bus will collect passengers from the front of the hotel.*

[18.40]

*The meeting ended at **eighteen forty**.*

Short ways of saying the time

In informal situations, we often drop *o'clock*:

*I usually get up at **seven** and I have to be at work by **nine**. (= I usually get up at **seven o'clock** and I have to be at work by **nine o'clock**.)*

When the speaker and the listener both know the hour, they may not need to say it:

A: Is it **quarter past** yet?

B: No, it's only **ten past**. (For example, if A and B know that the hour is six, *quarter past* means *quarter past six* and *ten past* means *ten past six*.)

[A and B are going to the cinema to see a film that they know begins at eight o'clock. Their friend Karen is collecting them at 7.40.]

A: What time is Karen picking us up?

B: At **twenty to**.

 In informal speaking, we can leave out *past* in *half past*:

A: What time is it?

B: **Half two**.

 This means 2.30, not 1.30.

To 351

To is a preposition. It is also used as part of the infinitive (the *to*-infinitive):

Does this train go **to** Cambridge? (preposition)

I'd like **to** see that film. (*to*-infinitive)

To as a preposition: destination or direction 351a

We can use *to* as a preposition to indicate a destination or direction:

We're going **to** Liverpool next week.

Does he want to come **to** the park with us?

The dog ran **to** us as soon as we arrived.

To as a preposition: receiver of an action 351b

We use *to* with verbs such as *give*, *hand*, *send*, *write*, to indicate the person or thing that receives or experiences the object of the verb:

I gave the keys **to** Jane.

She's always writing letters **to** the local newspaper.

→ Complements 82; Objects 241

To as a preposition: time 351c

We use *to* in telling the time, when we refer to the number of minutes before the hour:

Her train arrives at **quarter to** five.

It's **ten to** six. We'd better leave now or we'll be late.

We can use *to* with the meaning of 'until' when we are talking about time. We often use it in the expression *from ... to ...*:

It's just three days **to** New Year's Day.

They're only open **from** Monday **to** Friday. They're closed at the weekend.

To as a preposition: approximate numbers**351d**

We can use *to* when we refer to an approximate number somewhere between a lower number and a higher number:

*There were **forty to fifty** people at the meeting.*

*It'll probably cost you **thirty to thirty-five** pounds.*

To as a preposition: after nouns**351e**

A number of nouns are followed by *to*. These include nouns expressing direction or destination such as *door, entrance, road, route, way*:

*The door **to** the main office was open.*

*Is this the way **to** the airport?*

They also include nouns referring to transport, such as *bus, coach, ferry, flight, train*:

*The ferry **to** Santander takes 12 hours.*

*Is this the bus **to** the stadium?*

Nouns expressing reactions and responses are also followed by *to*. These include *answer, key, reaction, reply, response, solution*:

*His **reaction to** her comments was very aggressive.*

*They don't seem to be able to find a **solution to** the problem of global warming yet.*

To as a preposition: after verbs**351f**

Some verbs are followed by the preposition *to*, including *be used, get used, listen, look forward, object, reply, respond*:

*We **listened to** that CD you lent us. It's great.*

*I **object to** your remarks.*

*The bank hasn't **replied to** my letter yet.*

→ Prepositional verbs 363b; Phrasal-prepositional verbs 363d

To as a preposition: after adjectives**351g**

Some adjectives connected with people's behaviour and feelings are followed by *to*, including *cruel, faithful, generous, kind, loyal, nasty*:

*I cannot bear people being **cruel to** animals.*

*Be **kind to** her. You're so **nasty to** her!*

*Many individuals have been **loyal to** the Conservative Party all their lives.*

To: the to-infinitive**351h**

We use *to* before a verb to make the *to*-infinitive form:

*She loves **to wear** really colourful dresses.*

*I need **to leave** early today.*

***To get** an outside line, you have **to dial** 9 first.*

→ Infinitives with and without *to* 177; Perfect infinitive with *to* 269

Too

352

Too is an adverb.

Too meaning 'more than enough'

352a

We use *too* meaning 'more than enough' in different positions.

Too before adjectives and adverbs

We use *too* immediately before adjectives and adverbs:

*This coffee is **too** sweet.*

Not: *This coffee is ~~too much~~ sweet.*

*I can't sleep. It's **too** hot.*

*It happened **too** quickly, so I just didn't see it.*

Not: *It happened ~~too much~~ quickly.*

*The car was travelling **too** fast and went out of control.*

Too before adjective/adverb + to-infinitive

*The water was **too cold to swim** in.*

*Two hours is **too long to wait**.*

Too much, too many, too few and too little

When we want to talk about quantities which are more or less than enough, we use *too much*, *too many*, *too few* and *too little* before a noun:

*There's **too much** salt in this soup. (*too much* + uncountable noun)*

*There were **too many** dogs on the beach. (*too many* + countable noun)*

*I don't like this book because there are **too few** pictures in it. (*too few* + countable noun; more formal than *I don't like this book because there aren't enough pictures in it.*)*

*The trip was cancelled because there was **too little** interest in it. (*too little* + uncountable noun)*

→ *Much, many, a lot of, lots of: quantifiers* 214

Much too and far too

We can use *much* and *far* with *too* for emphasis. *Far too* is stronger than *much too*:

*He's **too** young to stay at home alone.* _____→

*He's **much too** young to stay at home alone.* _____→

*He's **far too** young to stay at home alone.* _____→

Too and very

We use *very* to add emphasis to an adjective or an adverb, but it does not mean the same as *too*.

↔ Compare

<i>She is very careful.</i>	<i>Very makes careful stronger.</i>
<i>She is too careful.</i>	<i>Too careful means 'more careful than is necessary'.</i>

Very much and too much

We often use *very much* to emphasise verbs such as *like*, *dislike*, *hope*, *doubt*. We do not use *too much* in this way with these verbs:

*I like it **very much** because I got it from my husband.*

Not: *I like it ~~too much~~ ...*

*I doubt **very much** that Ronan will be able to come to the party.*

Not: *I doubt ~~too much~~ that ...*

Too bad

 In speaking, we can use *too bad* or *that's too bad* as a response token to express that we are sorry to hear about something. This is particularly common in American English:

A: *The weather forecast says it's going to rain again on Wednesday.*

B: ***Too bad.** We were planning to go for a picnic.*

A: *How's your mother?*

B: *She's okay but she's feeling lonely because she lives on her own now.*

A: ***That's too bad.** Does she have many friends living nearby?*

Too meaning 'also'

352b

We can use *too* to mean 'also'. It is more common than *also* in informal situations. We normally use it at the end of the clause:

[in a restaurant, A is the waiter]

A: *Have you decided?*

B: *I think I'll have the soup.*

C: *I'll have **that too**.*

*Catherine decided to join us for dinner, and her husband came along **too**. (or, more formal, ... and her husband also came along.)*

In short answers in informal situations, we normally say *me too*, not *I too*:

A: *I love that colour.*

B: ***Me too.***

In more formal situations, we can use *too* immediately after the subject:

*You **too** could have a week in the sun. Visit www.holidaysforyou.com.*

→ *Also, as well or too?* 

Typical error

- We don't use *too* to emphasise adjectives and adverbs. We use *very*:

*She was **very** beautiful. (very emphasises beautiful)*

Not: *She was ~~too~~ beautiful.*

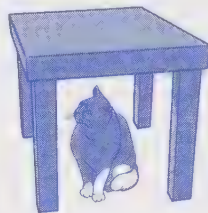
Under

353

Under is a preposition. When we use *under* as a preposition, it is similar to *below*. We use *under* to talk about something that is below or lower than something else:

*The cat is **under** the table.*

*His shoes were **under** his bed.*



When we use *under*, we can also mean that one thing is touching or covering something else. We do not use *below* in this way:

*The wreck of the Titanic still remains **under** the sea.*

Not: ... below the sea.

*He had hidden the money **under** the floorboards.*

Not: ... below the floorboards.

! We don't use *under* to refer to something in a lower position than something else. We use *below*:

*Venus is just **below** the moon right now.*

Not: Venus is just under the moon ...

Age

We use *under*, not *below*, to refer to age:

*You have to be **under** 18 to get an allowance.*

*They have three children **under** the age of five.*

Measurements

We use *under*, not *below*, to talk about measurements of time and weight:

*We finished the project in **under** a year and a half.*

*The bag was just **under** 10 kilos, so I was able to bring it on the plane.*

When we talk about height and temperature, we use *below* not *under*:

*The roof of the new building is just **below** the height of the church and I think it distracts from the church.*

Not: ... under the height of the church ...

*The liquid must be kept **below** five degrees. (preferred to ... under five degrees.)*

Underneath is similar to *under*, but it usually only refers to position:

***Underneath** the stairs is where we keep our vacuum cleaner and brushes.*

*The child weighed **under** five kilos.*

Not: ... underneath five kilos.

→ **Below 58; Beneath** ○

Unless

354

We use the conjunction *unless* to mean 'except if'. The clause which follows *unless* is a subordinate clause (sc): it needs a main clause (mc) to make a complete sentence.

When *unless* comes before the main clause, we use a comma:

[sc] [mc]
Unless it rains, we'll go for a picnic by the river tomorrow. (We'll go for a picnic by the river tomorrow if it doesn't rain.)

When the main clause comes first, we don't need a comma:

[mc] [sc]
They won't come unless you invite them.

Unless is a conditional word (like *if*), so we don't use *will* or *would* in the subordinate clause:

Unless I hear from you, I'll see you at two o'clock.

Not: ~~Unless I'll hear from you ...~~

→ If 168; Conditionals 84

Unless and if ... not

Unless and *if ... not* both mean 'except if':

We could eat at Siam Smile unless they're closed on a Monday. (or *We could eat at Siam Smile if they're not closed on a Monday.*)

I'll make dinner unless somebody else wants to. (or *I'll make dinner if nobody else wants to.*)

Can you turn the radio off unless you're listening to it? (or *Can you turn the radio off if you're not listening to it?*)

We don't use *unless* for things that we know to be true:

You won't be able to get a ticket for the match unless you're prepared to pay a lot of money for it. (The speaker doesn't know if you're prepared to pay a lot of money for a ticket.)

I don't know what we would have done if we hadn't seen you. (We did see you.)

Not: ~~I don't know what we would have done unless we'd seen you.~~

 In speaking, we use *unless* to introduce an extra thought or piece of information:

He didn't even know about the crash – unless he'd heard about it on the radio.

A: *Oh look. Neil next door's got a new car.*

B: *Unless they've got a visitor.*

Typical errors

- We don't use *unless* when we mean *if*:

Pete will drive if Alex can't.

Not: ~~Pete will drive unless Alex can't.~~

- We don't use *will* or *would* in the clause after *unless*:

Unless you pay now, we can't guarantee you a ticket.

Not: ~~Unless you'll pay now ...~~

→ Conditionals: other expressions 86; If 168; Unless 354

Until

355

Until is a preposition and a conjunction. *Until* is often shortened to *till* or *'til*. *Till* and *'til* are more informal and we don't usually use them in formal writing.

Until as a preposition

355a

Until as a preposition means 'up to (the time that)':

*We played chess **until** midnight.* (up to midnight)

*The film didn't end **till** eleven o'clock.*

We use *from* with *until* or *till* to talk about when something begins and when it ends:

*I worked out at the gym **from** 6 pm **till** 7.30 pm.*

*The road outside our house will be closed **from** 6 am **until** 6 pm tomorrow.*

We use *by*, not *until*, to talk about something that will happen before a particular time or deadline:

*The movie will be finished **by** 9 pm.*

Not: ~~The movie will be finished until/till 9 pm.~~

We don't use *until* or *till* to talk about quantity or numbers. We use *up to*:

*The taxi can take **up to** five people.*

Not: ~~The taxi can take until/till five people.~~

We don't use *until* or *till* to talk about distance. We use *as far as*:

*Larry drove me **as far as** the shop and I walked the rest of the way home.*

Not: ~~Larry drove me until the shop ...~~

Until as a conjunction

355b

We use *until* as a subordinating conjunction to connect an action or an event to a point in time:

*Let's wait here **till** the rain stops.* (*till* + subordinate clause)

! We don't normally put the *until*-clause before the main clause:

*No one left the room **until** the talk ended.*

Not: ~~Until the talk ended no one left ...~~

We use present verb forms to refer to the future after *until*:

*I can't wait **until** the summer holidays **begin**.*

Not: ~~... until the summer holidays will begin.~~

We also use the present perfect after *until* to refer to actions or events that will continue up to a point in the future:

*We'll sit here **till** Donna **has finished**.*

Not: ~~... until Donna will have finished.~~

We use the past simple and past perfect to talk about events in the past:

*He was the headteacher **until** he **retired** in 1968.*

*We couldn't put down the new floor **till** the plumber **had finished**.*

- ! We can't use *until* or *till* to mean 'in advance of'. In this case we use *before*:
*Please return your registration form **before** you leave the room.*
 Not: *Please return your registration form until you leave the room.*

Until: typical errors

355c

- We don't use *until* to talk about things that will happen before a particular time or deadline; we use *by*:
*All applications must be received **by** Friday, 26 June 2009.*
 Not: ... ~~until Friday, 26 June 2009.~~
- We don't use *until* or *till* to talk about quantity; we use *up to*:
*The theatre can hold **up to** two hundred people.*
 Not: ~~The theatre can hold until two hundred people.~~
- We don't use *until* or *till* to talk about distance; we use *as far as*:
*We had to drive **as far as** Liverpool for the last hockey match that I played.*
 Not: ~~We had to drive until Liverpool ...~~
- Take care to spell *until* with only one *l* at the end: not 'untill'.

Up

356

Up is an adverb, a preposition and an adjective.

Up is the opposite of *down*. It refers to movement to a higher level.

Up as an adverb

356a

We use *up* as an adverb to talk about movement towards a higher position, value, number or level:

*She put the books **up** on the highest shelf.*

*The good weather has pushed sales of summer clothes **up**.*

*We light the fire every night and that heats the room **up**.*

Up as a preposition

356b

We use *up* to talk about a higher position or movement to a higher position:

*He was **up** a ladder painting.*

*My grandparents live just **up** the road.*

*I followed Vivian **up** the stairs, where there was a small dining room.*

*As we were climbing **up** the narrow mountain road, we could see the sea below.*

Up as an adjective

356c

We use *up* as an adjective usually to talk about increases in prices, levels or amounts:

*The price of fuel is **up** again.*

*It was cold yesterday but the temperature is **up** today.*

 In informal speaking, we say that *something is up* when something is wrong. We use the phrase *What's up?* to ask what's happening:

*Katrina was in that morning. She noticed that **something was up** and she came over to see me. 'What's wrong?' she asked. 'Nothing. Nothing's wrong. I've had rather a surprising piece of news, that's all.' 'Why, **what's up?**'*

Up to with numbers

356d

We use *up to* with numbers and amounts when we are being approximate. It means 'as much as' or 'not more than':

*There were **up to** 100 guests at the wedding.*

[Inspector Morse is a popular British TV detective series]

*Behind each episode of 'Inspector Morse', there's a crew of **up to** 80 technicians who make the gentleman detective look his best.*

→ Until as a preposition 355a

Up as a particle

356e

Up is commonly used as a particle in phrasal verbs:

*He was **brought up** by his grandmother.*

*Don't **give up**. You will find a job.*

*What time did you **wake up** this morning?*

Up is also commonly used as an adverb particle followed by a preposition in phrasal prepositional verbs:

*I had to run to **catch up with** Elaine. She walks so fast.*

*I've always **looked up to** my older brother.*

You'll find other phrases that use *up* as a particle in a good learner's dictionary.

→ Phrasal verbs 363a; Phrasal-prepositional verbs 363d

Used to

357

Used to: meaning and form

357a

We use *used to* when we refer to things in the past which are no longer true. It can refer to repeated actions or to a state or situation:

*He **used to** play football for the local team, but he's too old now.*

*That white house over there **used to** belong to my family. (It belonged to my family in the past, but not any more.)*

 In statements, the form *used to* does not change. We do not use the verb *be* before it. It always refers to past time:

*We **used to** go to the seaside every summer when I was a kid.*

Not: ~~We are used to go ...~~ or ~~We use to go ...~~ or ~~We were used to go ...~~

Negative: *didn't use to*

The negative of *used to* is most commonly *didn't use(d) to*. Sometimes we write it with a final *-d*, sometimes not. Both forms are common, but many people consider the form with the final *-d* to be incorrect, and you should not use it in exams:

*It **didn't use to** be so crowded in the shops as it is nowadays.*

*I **didn't used to** like broccoli when I was younger, but I love it now.* (Don't use this form in exams.)

In very formal styles, we can use the negative form *used not to*:

*She **used not to** live as poorly as she does now.*

Questions

The most common form of question is auxiliary *did* + *use(d) to*. Many people consider the form with a final *-d* to be incorrect, and you should not use it in exams:

*I think we met once, a couple of years ago. **Did you use to** work with Kevin Harris?*

***Didn't she used to** live in the same street as us?* (Don't use this form in written exams.)

Emphatic *did*

We can use the emphatic auxiliary *did* with *used to*:

*We never **used to** mix very much with the neighbours, but we **did used to** say hello to them in the street.* (Don't use this form in written exams.)

Tags

We normally make tags after *used to* with auxiliary *did*:

*He **used to** be your boss, **did he**?*

*We **used to** love going to the museum, **didn't we**?*

Used to or would?

357b

We can use *used to* or *would* to talk about people's habits in the past. When we use them both together, *used to* most commonly comes first, as it sets the scene for the actions being reported:

*When we were kids, we **used to** invent amazing games. We **would** imagine we were the government and we **would** make crazy laws that everyone had to obey.*

Used to, but not *would*, can describe a state or situation which is no longer true:

*We **used to** live in Manchester.*

Not: *We **would** live in Manchester.*

*'The Townhouse' **used to** be a Greek restaurant. It's Italian now.*

Not: *'The Townhouse' **would** be a Greek restaurant ...*

Used to or be used to?

357c

Used to refers to actions and situations in the past which no longer happen or are no longer true. It always refers to the past:

*She **used to** sing in a choir, but she gave it up.* (She sang, but she doesn't sing any more)

Be used to means 'be accustomed to' or 'be familiar with'. It can refer to the past, present or future. We follow *be used to* with a noun phrase, a pronoun or the *-ing* form of a verb:

*I work in a hospital, so I'm **used to** long hours.* (I am accustomed to/familiar with long hours.)

*She lives in a very small village and hates traffic. She's not **used to** it.*

*He was a salesman, so he **was used to** travelling up and down the country.* (He was accustomed to/was familiar with travelling.)

We can also say *get used to* or (more formally) *become used to*:

*University is very different from school, but don't worry. You'll soon **get used to** it.*
(or, more formally, *You'll soon **become used to** it.*)

→ Usually 358; Would 393; Tags 343

Usually

358

The adverb *usually* refers to what typically or normally happens. We use it mostly in mid position, between the subject and the main verb, or after the modal verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb:

*Children **usually** enjoy visits to the zoo.*

Not: ~~Children enjoy usually visits ...~~

*I **usually** get up around eight o'clock.*

*You can **usually** buy tickets for rock concerts on the Internet.*

*Are you **usually** in your office on Thursdays?*

! *Usually* does not mean the same as *used to* or *be used to*. *Usually* refers to what typically or normally happens. *Used to* refers to things which were true in the past but not now. *Be used to* means 'be accustomed to' or 'be familiar with':

*We **usually** watch the news on TV before we go to bed.*

Not: ~~We used to watch the news ...~~ or ~~We're used to watching the news ...~~ or ~~We use to watch the news ...~~

We can also use the verb *tend* to talk about what usually happens:

*We **tend** to watch the news on TV before we go to bed.*

We say *as usual*, not *as usually*, to talk about something which happens in the normal or typical way:

*We shall meet again **as usual** at 5 pm next Tuesday.*

Not: ~~We shall meet again as usually at ...~~

Typical errors

- Take care to spell *usually* with *ll*.
- Don't confuse *usually* and *used to*. *Usually* refers to what normally happens; *used to* refers to things which were true in the past but are no longer true:

*I **usually** play football on Wednesday evenings, so Thursday would be better for me to go out for a meal.*

Not: ~~I used to play football ...~~

Vague expressions

359

Vague language is very common, especially in speaking. We often add words and phrases such as *about*, *kind of*, *sort of*, and *that kind of thing* to make what we say less factual and direct:

*There were **about** twenty people at the meeting.*

*It's **kind of** cold in here.*

*Did you see lions and giraffes **and that kind of thing** when you were in South Africa?*

We generally use vague language when we don't know the name of something, or to make things sound less factual, or to talk about groups and categories.

When we don't know the name of something

We can use vague expressions when we are not sure of the name of something. These expressions include: *what do you call it?*, *what's it called?*, *it's a kind of X*, *it's a sort of X*, *it's a type of X*, or *something*, *thing*, *stuff*:

A: *Val's been in hospital for tests. Did you know that?*

B: *No. What's wrong?*

A: *Well, they're not sure. She's had to have that test, er, **what do you call it?** Where you have to go into a type of X-ray machine.*

B: *A CAT scan?*

A: *Yeah. She's had that done but they still don't know what's causing her headaches. She's got a small dog, a kind of poodle, **or something**.*

*What's that **stuff** you use when your lips get dry?*

*Where's the **thing** for cleaning the window?*

 In very informal speaking, we sometimes say /'wɒtʃjəməkɔ:lɪt/, /'wɒtʃjəməkɔ:lɪm/, /'θɪŋəmi/, /'θɪŋəmədʒɪŋ/. These are informal versions of *what do you call it/him/her*, etc. We never write these words:

A: *Andrew's just moved in with **whatyamacallhim** /'wɒtʃjəməkɔ:lɪm/?*

B: *Barry?*

A: *No, his friend from Manchester.*

Making things sound less factual

Being very factual can sometimes sound too direct in speaking, and so we add vague expressions. These are called hedges: *about*, *kind of*, *sort of*, *-ish* (suffix), *stuff*, *things*:

*There's **sort of** something I don't like about her. (more direct: *There's something I don't like about her.*)*

*It's **kind of** bright in here. (more direct: *It's too bright in here.*)*

*I can't meet up later. I have too much **stuff** to do.*

*I forget so many **things** these days.*

We especially use vague expressions before numbers, quantities and times to make them sound less factual:

*I'll see you at **about** 8 tomorrow morning for breakfast. Is that okay? (more direct: I'll see you at 8 tomorrow morning for breakfast.)*

*We expect to take **in or around** two years to complete the project. (more direct: We expect to take two years and four months to complete the project.)*

*We're meeting Veronica at **four-ish**. (more direct: We're meeting Veronica at four.)*

*We've been living here for **more or less** five years. (more direct: We've been living here for five years and three months.)*

→ **Hedges 162; Kind of and sort of 188; Sort, type and kind 328; Thing and stuff 348**

Talking about groups and categories

We use certain vague expressions to make groups or categories. We usually give examples of members of the group or category (underlined below) and then add a vague expression, e.g. *necklaces, bracelets* **and things like that**.

Common vague expressions include:

<i>and that kind of thing</i>	<i>and stuff like that</i>
<i>and that sort of thing</i>	<i>and stuff</i>
<i>and that type of thing</i>	<i>and so on</i>
<i>and things like that</i>	<i>and this, that and the other</i>
<i>and the like</i>	

*Where are all the knives and forks **and that kind of thing**?*

*I need to buy cards and wrapping paper **and stuff like that**.*

A: Where's Emma?

B: She's gone to the doctor. She's been getting pains in her stomach and feeling tired **and things like that**.

*He never eats chocolate, sweets **and that type of thing**.*

*There are so many lorries and trucks **and that sort of thing** passing by our house, even during the night.*

We sometimes find vague category expressions in formal speaking, but we usually use different expressions, such as: *and so forth, et cetera, and so on, and so on and so forth*:

[from a university lecture on literature]

*The book has often been looked at from a feminist perspective **and so forth** but I want to look at it from a political perspective today.*

[from a university lecture on communication]

*If you use an advertisement in the newspaper, a thirty-second ad on television **et cetera et cetera**, it will receive quite a wide audience but there's relatively little you can say in it. (ad = advertisement)*

*What are your views on the new government and the changes they have made **and so forth**?*

We sometimes use vague category expressions in writing. The most common ones are: *and so on* and *et cetera* (which is shortened to *etc.*)

*The new theatre will be used for big events such as opera, ballet, drama **and so on**.*

*The house is equipped with a cooker, washing machine, television, **etc**.*

When can vague expressions be impolite?

Expressions such as *stuff* and *whatever*, *whoever*, *whenever*, *whichever* are sometimes used to be vague in an impolite way. These are especially impolite when they are used in a reply to a direct question asked by someone who is senior to us:

[a father to his son]

A: *What did you do at school today?*

B: **Stuff**. (This is not a polite reply. It can mean 'I don't want to talk to you'.)

[parent to teenage daughter]

A: *You spend too long on the phone.*

B: **Whatever**. (This is a very impolite response and means 'I don't care'.)

[two friends talking]

A: *We're meeting around seven at Mel's place.*

B: *No, it's at six thirty.*

A: *Well, **whenever**.* (This is not as impolite, because it is between friends. A uses *whenever* to show that she is annoyed that she has been contradicted about the time and that it doesn't really matter whether it's six thirty or seven.)

→ *Thing and stuff 348; However, whatever, whichever, whenever, wherever, whoever 166*

Verbs

360

Verbs are one of the four major word classes, along with nouns, adjectives and adverbs. A verb refers to an action, event or state.

These are verbs:

actions	events	states
<i>go</i>	<i>die</i>	<i>be</i>
<i>sing</i>	<i>happen</i>	<i>have</i>
<i>take</i>	<i>rain</i>	<i>know</i>

*She always **sings** at parties.*

*It **rained** yesterday.*

*I only **know** his first name. I don't **know** his surname.*

Verbs: basic forms

361

Verbs: the three basic forms

361a

Main verbs have three basic forms: the base form, the past form and the *-ed* form (sometimes called the '*-ed* participle'):

base form: used as the infinitive form, with *to* or without *to* (*Do you want **to come** with us? I can't **leave** now.*) and for the present simple (*I always **read** before I **go** to sleep every night.*) except third person singular, which uses the *-s* form (*She **works** at the university.*)

past form: used for the past simple (*He **opened** the door and **went** out.*)

-ed form: used after auxiliary *have* and *be* (*I've always **wanted** a piano and I **was given** one last week.*).

How dictionaries show the forms

The base form is normally the form used as a heading in a dictionary. Here is a typical dictionary entry for a verb. The base form is *sing*, the past form is *sang* and the *-ed* form is *sung*:

sing verb (MAKE MUSIC) /sɪŋ/ (**sang, sung**)

[I or T] to make musical sounds with the voice, usually a tune with words:

*The children **sang** two songs by Schubert at the school concert.*

[source: Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary]

Examples of the three basic forms

When you look up a verb in the dictionary, you will often find the three forms listed together, especially for irregular verbs. Here are some examples (regular verbs are printed in blue; irregular verbs are printed in black).

base form	past simple	-ed form
<i>open</i>	<i>opened</i>	<i>opened</i>
<i>love</i>	<i>loved</i>	<i>loved</i>
<i>watch</i>	<i>watched</i>	<i>watched</i>
<i>swim</i>	<i>swam</i>	<i>swum</i>
<i>go</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>
<i>make</i>	<i>made</i>	<i>made</i>
<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>

Pronunciation and meaning

 Some verbs have a similar pronunciation but a different meaning:

*We love to just **lie** on the beach.*

Not: *We love to just lay on the beach.*

Lie/lay/lain is used without an object. *Lay/laid/laid* must have an object: e.g. *I'll **lay** the table then we can eat.*

Other verbs like this are: *affect/effect*, *bare/bear*, *fine/find*, *note/notice*, *raise/rise*.

! Sometimes a verb is confused with another word which sounds similar but is from a different word class:

*I don't want to **lose** contact with my school friends.*

Not: *I don't want to loose contact with my school friends.*

(*Lose* is a verb. *Loose* is an adjective, e.g. *These shoes are too loose; I need a smaller size.*)

Other pairs like this are: *advise* (verb)/*advice* (noun), *practise* (verb)/*practice* (noun).

Regular verbs

361b

Most verbs in English are regular. Regular verbs add *-ing* to the base form to make the *-ing* form, and *-ed* to the base form to make the past simple and the *-ed* form.

base form	-ing form	past simple	-ed form
<i>look</i>	<i>looking</i>	<i>looked</i>	<i>looked</i>
<i>listen</i>	<i>listening</i>	<i>listened</i>	<i>listened</i>
<i>play</i>	<i>playing</i>	<i>played</i>	<i>played</i>
<i>work</i>	<i>working</i>	<i>worked</i>	<i>worked</i>

Base forms which end in -e

If the base form already ends in *-e* (e.g. *move*, *face*, *like*), then *-d* is added to make the past form and the *-ed* form. The final *-e* is not used in the *-ing* form.

base form	-ing form	past simple	-ed form
<i>move</i>	<i>moving</i>	<i>moved</i>	<i>moved</i>
<i>face</i>	<i>facing</i>	<i>faced</i>	<i>faced</i>

Base forms which end in a consonant plus -y

If the base form ends in a consonant plus *-y* (e.g. *carry*, *hurry*, *study*, *try*, *worry*), then *-y* changes to *-ied* to make the past form and the *-ed* form. The *-y* ending does not change in the *-ing* form.

base form	-ing form	past simple	-ed form
<i>study</i>	<i>studying</i>	<i>studied</i>	<i>studied</i>
<i>hurry</i>	<i>hurrying</i>	<i>hurried</i>	<i>hurried</i>

Base forms which end in vowel + single consonant

If the base form ends in a vowel followed by a single consonant and if the last syllable is stressed (e.g. *begin*, *drop*, *occur*, *refer*, *run*, *shop*, *stop*, *transfer*), then the consonant is doubled. If the last syllable is not stressed (e.g. *benefit*, *happen*, *open*, *order*, *profit*), then the consonant is not doubled. (Stressed syllables are underlined in the table.)

base form	-ing form	past simple	-ed form
<u>commi</u> t	commit <u>ti</u> ng	commi <u>tt</u> ed	commi <u>tt</u> ed
de <u>velo</u> p	de <u>velo</u> p <u>ing</u>	de <u>velo</u> p <u>ed</u>	de <u>velo</u> p <u>ed</u>
<u>prefer</u>	<u>prefer</u> ing	<u>prefer</u> ed	<u>prefer</u> ed
<u>visi</u> t	<u>visi</u> ti <u>ng</u>	<u>visi</u> t <u>ed</u>	<u>visi</u> t <u>ed</u>

Vowel + l

The consonant is doubled if the base form ends in a vowel + l, whether the last syllable is stressed or not.

base form	-ing form	past simple	-ed form
<u>trav</u> el	<u>trav</u> elli <u>ng</u>	<u>trav</u> ell <u>ed</u>	<u>trav</u> ell <u>ed</u>
<u>cont</u> rol	<u>cont</u> roll <u>ing</u>	<u>cont</u> roll <u>ed</u>	<u>cont</u> roll <u>ed</u>

→ Spelling 330

Person, number and tense

Regular verbs all use the same endings to indicate person (first, second or third), number (singular or plural) and tense (present simple or past simple).

Person (first/second/third)

Person relates to the type of subject. *I* and *we* indicate the first person, *you* (singular and plural) indicates the second person and *he*, *she*, *it*, *they* and noun subjects indicate the third person. Regular verbs have the same form for all persons, but third person singular present simple ends in -s:

I love Japanese food.

*My sister **lives** with two other students.*

*They **worked** for a French company based in London.*

*She **arrived** at the office around nine o'clock most days.*

Number (singular/plural)

Number indicates whether the subject is singular or plural. Regular verbs have the same form for singular and plural, but third person singular present simple ends in -s:

*We **love** historical dramas on TV.*

*They **lived** in a huge house in the country somewhere.*

He **works** terribly hard.

He always **arrived** late.

Tense (present/past)

Tense indicates whether the verb is present or past. The past simple of regular verbs ends in **-ed** for all persons and numbers:

They **loved** everything about Australia.

She **lived** in Spain for a couple of years.

I **worked** on Saturday so I stayed at home on Monday.

The police **arrived** within minutes.

! We always need an *e* in the **-ed** form (past simple and **-ed** form) of regular verbs:

I don't know what **happened** at the last meeting.

Not: I don't know what ~~happend~~ at the last meeting.

Other verbs which are often misspelt in this way are: *bother*, *complain*, *consider*, *join*, *recover*, *remain*.

The **-es** ending

If the verb ends in *-ch*, *-s*, *-ss*, *-sh*, *-x* or *-z*, then **-es** is added to make the third person singular present simple.

<i>watch</i>	<i>watches</i>	<i>She watches the news every night at ten o'clock.</i>
<i>pass</i>	<i>passes</i>	<i>Luckily, the bus passes by my house.</i>
<i>wish</i>	<i>wishes</i>	<i>She wishes that she had gone to university.</i>
<i>fix</i>	<i>fixes</i>	<i>My friend, who's a mechanic, fixes our car for us.</i>

→ Present simple 279; Past simple 260; Subject-verb agreement 334

Irregular verbs

361c

Irregular verbs follow the same rules as regular verbs for the present simple but have different forms for the past simple and the **-ed** form.

Some irregular verbs have the same form for the base, the past simple and the **-ed** form, e.g. *hit*, *hit*, *hit*; *let*, *let*, *let*; *put*, *put*, *put*.

Some irregular verbs share a form for the past simple and **-ed** form which is different from the base form, e.g. *bring*, *brought*, *brought*; *feel*, *felt*, *felt*; *have*, *had*, *had*.

Some irregular verbs have a base form which ends in *-d* and a past simple and **-ed** form which end in *-t*, e.g. *bend*, *bent*, *bent*; *build*, *built*, *built*; *send*, *sent*, *sent*; *spend*, *spent*, *spent*.

Some irregular verbs have a different form for the base form, the past simple and the **-ed** form, e.g. *drink*, *drank*, *drunk*; *go*, *went*, *gone*; *take*, *took*, *taken*.

→ Irregular verbs 361c

Be

The verb *be* has different forms for different persons in the present simple and past simple.

base form	present simple		past simple		-ed form
<i>be</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>am</i>	<i>I, she, he, it</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>been</i>
	<i>she, he, it</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>you, we, they</i>	<i>were</i>	
	<i>you, we, they</i>	<i>are</i>			

→ Be 53

Verbs: formation 362

Identifying verbs 362a

It is not always possible to identify a verb by its form. However, some word-endings (suffixes) can show that the word is probably a verb.

suffix	examples
-ate	<i>appreciate, celebrate, congratulate</i>
-en	<i>frighten, soften, widen</i>
-ify	<i>identify, specify, qualify</i>
-ise/-ize*	<i>realise, recognise, modernize</i>

*Both forms are used, but the *-ise* form is more common in British English and the *-ize* form is more common in American English.

Typical verb prefixes

Verbs often also have these typical prefixes.

prefix	examples
<i>ad-</i>	<i>adapt, admit, advance</i>
<i>de-</i>	<i>deceive, deform, describe</i>
<i>im-/in-</i>	<i>impose, increase, inform</i>
<i>per-</i>	<i>perform, persuade, perceive</i>
<i>re-</i>	<i>recall, receive, reproduce</i>

However, some words beginning with these prefixes may belong to other word classes (e.g. *increase* [noun], *reception* [noun]). A good learner's dictionary will tell you whether a word is a verb.

Verbs sometimes have the same form as nouns or adjectives.

Verbs related to nouns

Could you **hand** me the dictionary?

We should **position** the noticeboard where everyone can see it.

I'll **email** Sally to see if she is free on Thursday.

Verbs related to adjectives

I needed to **calm** my nerves before the interview.

The government hopes to **slow** the growth in road traffic over the next five years.

As they get older, most people's hair starts to **thin**.

Compound verbs

362b

Compound verbs are two words which combine to make one meaning. The first word is usually a noun, an adjective or a preposition, and the second word is a verb. The words are sometimes written as one word and sometimes joined by hyphens. A good learner's dictionary will tell you how the compound is normally written:

hand-wash (noun + verb)

highlight (adjective + verb)

overcome (preposition + verb)

Sorry, I was **daydreaming**. What did you say?

Do you have to **hand-wash** this sweater or can it go in the washing machine?

The airline **upgraded** me to business class.

Compound verbs are much less common than compound nouns or compound adjectives.

Verbs: multi-word verbs

363

Multi-word verbs are verbs which consist of a verb and one or two particles or prepositions (e.g. *up*, *over*, *in*, *down*). There are three types of multi-word verbs: phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs and phrasal-prepositional verbs. Sometimes, the name 'phrasal verb' is used to refer to all three types.

Phrasal verbs

363a

Phrasal verbs have two parts: a main verb and an adverb particle.

The most common adverb particles used to form phrasal verbs are *around*, *at*, *away*, *down*, *in*, *off*, *on*, *out*, *over*, *round*, *up*:

bring in *go around* *look up* *put away* *take off*

Meaning

Phrasal verbs often have meanings which we cannot easily guess from their individual parts. (The meanings are in brackets.)

- The book first **came out** in 1997. (was published)
- The plane **took off** an hour late. (flew into the air)
- The lecture **went on** till 6.30. (continued)
- It's difficult to **make out** what she's saying. (hear/understand)

For a complete list of the most common phrasal verbs, see the *Cambridge International Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs*.

Formality

Phrasal verbs are often, but not always, less formal than a single word with the same meaning.

↔ Compare

phrasal verb	more formal single word
We need to sort the problem out .	We need to solve/resolve the problem.
The team only had an hour to put the stage up before the concert.	The team only had an hour to erect/construct the stage before the concert.

Phrasal verbs and objects

Many phrasal verbs take an object. In most cases, the particle may come before or after the object if the object is not a personal pronoun (*me, you, him, us*, etc.).

↔ Compare

(p = particle; o = object [underlined])

particle before the object	particle after the object
[p] [o] She brought up <u>three kids</u> all alone.	[o] [p] I brought <u>my children</u> up to be polite.
[p] [o] Do you want me to take off <u>my shoes</u> ?	[o] [p] Come in. Take <u>your coat</u> off .

If the object is a personal pronoun (*me, you, him, us*, etc.), we always put the pronoun before the particle:

- I've made some copies. Would you like me to **hand** them **out**?
- Not: Would you like me to hand-out them?
- Oh, I can't **lift** you **up** any more. You're too big now!
- Not: I can't lift-up you any more.

We usually put longer objects (underlined) after the particle:

*Many couples do not want to **take on** the responsibility of bringing up a large family of three or four children.*

We can use some phrasal verbs without an object:

<i>break down</i>	<i>get back</i>	<i>move in/out</i>
<i>carry on</i>	<i>go off</i>	<i>run away</i>
<i>drop off</i>	<i>hang on</i>	<i>set off</i>
<i>eat out</i>	<i>join in</i>	<i>wake up</i>

*The taxi **broke down** on the way to the airport and I nearly missed my flight.*

*We'd better **set off** before the rush-hour traffic starts.*

*What time did you **wake up** this morning?*

A good learner's dictionary will tell you if the phrasal verb needs an object or can be used without one.

Prepositional verbs

363b

Prepositional verbs have two parts: a verb and a preposition which cannot be separated from each other:

<i>break into (a house)</i>	<i>get over (an illness)</i>	<i>listen to</i>
<i>cope with (a difficult situation)</i>	<i>get on</i>	<i>look after (a child)</i>
<i>deal with (a problem)</i>	<i>get off</i>	<i>look at</i>
<i>depend on</i>	<i>go into</i>	<i>look for</i>
<i>do without</i>	<i>lead to</i>	<i>look forward to</i>

Prepositional verbs and objects

Prepositional verbs always have an object, which comes immediately after the preposition. The object (underlined) can be a noun phrase, a pronoun or the *-ing* form of a verb:

*Somebody **broke into** his car and stole his radio.*

*I don't like this CD. I don't want to **listen to** it any more.*

*Getting to the final **depends on** winning the semi-final!*

Some prepositional verbs take a direct object after the verb followed by the prepositional phrase.

<i>associate ... with</i>	<i>remind ... of</i>
<i>protect ... from</i>	<i>rob ... of</i>
<i>provide ... with</i>	<i>thank ... for</i>

(DO = direct object; PO = object of preposition [both underlined])

*Hannah **reminds** me of a girlfriend of mine.*

How can we **protect** children **from** dangerous material on the Internet?

I'd like to **thank** everyone **for** their kindness.

Prepositional verbs or phrasal verbs?

363c

Not all phrasal verbs need an object. Prepositional verbs (e.g. *listen to*, *depend on*) always have an object after the preposition:

I've got a great new CD. Shall we **listen to** it?

Not: Shall we listen to?

With phrasal verbs the object can come before or after the particle if the object is not a pronoun. With prepositional verbs, the object is always immediately after the preposition. (Objects are underlined.)

↔ Compare

Do you always look up <u>every new word</u> in a dictionary?	Phrasal verb: the object can come before or after the particle <i>up</i> .
Do you always look <u>every new word</u> up in a dictionary?	
Could you look after <u>my bag</u> while I go and buy the tickets?	Prepositional verb: the object is after the preposition. Not: Could you look my bag after ...

Phrasal-prepositional verbs

363d

Phrasal-prepositional verbs have three parts: a verb, a particle and a preposition. The particle and the preposition cannot be separated. Many of these verbs are often used in informal contexts, and their meaning is difficult to guess from their individual parts.

Verb + particle + preposition

<i>catch up with</i>	<i>get on with</i>	<i>look out for</i>
<i>come up against</i>	<i>listen out for</i>	<i>look up to</i>
<i>do away with</i>	<i>look down on</i>	<i>put up with</i>
<i>face up to</i>	<i>look forward to</i>	<i>watch out for</i>
<i>get away with</i>	<i>look in on</i>	

Ken's just chatting to a friend. He'll **catch up with** us in a minute. (reach, join)

Do you **get on with** your neighbours? (have a good relationship with)

We **look forward to** meeting you on the 22nd. (anticipate with pleasure)

→ Look forward to ○

Phrasal-prepositional verbs and objects

The object (underlined below) always comes immediately after the preposition, and not in any other position:

*She was a wonderful teacher. We all **looked up to** her.* (respected)

Not: *We all looked her up to.* or *We all looked up her to.*

Some phrasal-prepositional verbs also take a direct object after the verb as well as an object of the preposition:

fix ... up with

put ... down to

put ... up to

let ... in on

take ... out on

(DO = direct object; PO = object of preposition [both underlined])

*She **fixed** us up with a violin teacher. We're really grateful to her.* (*fixed us up with* = arranged for us)

*We just **put** the accident down to bad luck; there's no other reason.* (*put down to* = think the cause or reason is)

Verbs: types

364

Main verbs

364a

Main verbs have meanings related to actions, events and states. Most verbs in English are main verbs:

*We **went** home straight after the show.*

*It **snowed** a lot that winter.*

*Several different types of volcano **exist**.*

Linking verbs

364b

Some main verbs are called linking verbs (or copular verbs). These verbs are not followed by objects. Instead, they are followed by phrases which give extra information about the subject (e.g. noun phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases or prepositional phrases). Linking verbs include:

appear

feel

look

seem

sound

be

get

remain

smell

taste

become

*A face **appeared** at the window. It was Pauline.* (prepositional phrase)

*He's a cousin **of mine**.* (noun phrase)

*This coat **feels** good.* (adjective phrase)

*She **remained** outside while her sister went into the hospital.* (adverb phrase)

→ Linking verbs 364b; Adjective phrases 11; Nouns 226

Auxiliary verbs

364c

There are three auxiliary verbs in English: *be*, *do* and *have*. Auxiliary verbs come before main verbs.

Auxiliary *be*

Auxiliary *be* is used to indicate the continuous and the passive voice:

I'm waiting for Sally to come home. (continuous)

Her car **was stolen** from outside her house. (passive)

→ Future continuous 139; Passive 257

Auxiliary *do*

Auxiliary *do* is used in interrogative, negative and emphatic structures:

Does she live locally? (interrogative)

They **didn't** know which house it was. (negative)

I **do** like your new laptop! (emphatic, with spoken stress on *do*)

→ Interrogative clauses 71b; Negation 219; Do as an auxiliary verb 105d

Auxiliary *have*

Auxiliary *have* is used to indicate the perfect:

I've lost my memory stick. **Have** you **seen** it anywhere? (present perfect)

She **had seen** my car outside the shop. (past perfect)

→ Present perfect simple 284; Past perfect simple 263

Auxiliary verb with no main verb

An auxiliary verb can only appear alone when a main verb (or a clause containing a main verb) is understood in the context:

A: *Does she play the clarinet?*

B: Yes, She **does**. (Yes, she plays the clarinet.)

A: *It hasn't snowed at all this year, has it?*

B: No, it **hasn't**. (No, it hasn't snowed.)

Be, do and have as main verbs

Be, do and have can be used as auxiliary verbs or as main verbs.

↔ Compare

	as a main verb	as an auxiliary verb
<i>be</i>	<i>She's a professional photographer.</i>	<i>He's thinking of moving to New Zealand.</i>
<i>do</i>	<i>I need to do some work this evening.</i>	<i>Do you like Thai food, Jim?</i>
<i>have</i>	<i>The children have lunch at twelve o'clock.</i>	<i>We haven't been to the cinema for ages.</i>

! Remember, when *do* and *have* are main verbs, we must use auxiliary *do* to make questions and negatives:

A: What **does** Janet **do**?

B: She's a teacher.

Not: What ~~does~~ Janet?

I **don't have** a car. I only have a bike.

→ Verbs: basic forms 361**Modal verbs****364d**

The main modal verbs are:

can *may* *must* *should* *would*
could *might* *shall* *will*

Modal verbs have meanings connected with degrees of certainty and necessity:

We'll be there around 7.30. (speaker is quite certain)

*A new window **could** cost around £500.* (speaker is less certain)

*I **must** ring the tax office.* (speaker considers this very necessary)

Semi-modal verbs have some meanings related to the main modal verbs. The semi-modal verbs are *dare*, *need*, *ought to*, *used to*.

→ Modality: introduction 207; Dare ☉; Need 218; Ought to 253; Used to 357**State and action verbs****364e**

A verb refers to an action, event or state.

Action

We can use the simple or continuous form of action verbs:

*I **cleaned** the room as quickly as possible.*

*She's **watching** television at the moment.*

Event

We can use the simple or continuous form of event verbs:

- Four people **died** in the crash.
- It's **raining** again.

State

We usually use the simple form rather than the continuous form of state verbs:

- I **don't know** the name of the street.
- Who **owns** this house?

Some verbs can be used to talk about both states and actions, but with different meanings:

state (usually simple form)	action (simple or continuous)
I come from France. (This is where my home is.)	She is coming from France on Wednesday. He came from Italy yesterday. (travel from)
She is very friendly. (permanent quality or state)	She is being very unfriendly. (temporary behaviour)
We have two dogs. (own)	We're having a meeting to discuss it. (hold a meeting) We had mussels for starter and prawns for main course. (eat)
Do you see what I mean? (understand)	Jane is seeing her boss today and she's going to tell him she's leaving. I don't see Rebecca at work any more since I moved office. (meet)
Your dress looks nice. (appear)	What are you looking at? I never look at the price on the menu. (see with your eyes)

 In very informal speaking you will sometimes hear state verbs used as action verbs when they refer to actions over short periods. These uses are not usually found in traditional grammar books.

↔ Compare

I like reading.	<i>Like</i> used as a state verb describing a permanent fact about me.
I'm not liking this book.	<i>Like</i> used as an action verb referring to the book I am reading but not enjoying at the moment.

↔ Compare

<i>She loves classical music.</i>	Love used as a state verb to refer to a permanent fact about her.
<i>She's loving the CD you gave her.</i>	Love used as an action verb referring to the CD which she is listening to and liking very much at the moment.

Verb patterns: verb + infinitive or verb + -ing? 365**Verbs followed by a to-infinitive****365a**Some verbs can be followed immediately by a *to*-infinitive:

<i>afford</i>	<i>demand</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>pretend</i>
<i>agree</i>	<i>fail</i>	<i>love</i>	<i>promise</i>
<i>arrange</i>	<i>forget</i>	<i>manage</i>	<i>refuse</i>
<i>ask</i>	<i>hate</i>	<i>mean (= intend)</i>	<i>remember</i>
<i>begin</i>	<i>help</i>	<i>need</i>	<i>start</i>
<i>choose</i>	<i>hope</i>	<i>offer</i>	<i>try</i>
<i>continue</i>	<i>intend</i>	<i>plan</i>	<i>want</i>
<i>decide</i>	<i>learn</i>	<i>prefer</i>	

*I can't **afford to go** on holiday.**It **began to rain**.**She **hopes to go** to university next year.**My mother never **learnt to swim**.**Did you **remember to ring** Nigel?*→ *Help somebody (to) do* 365f; *Want* 371; Verbs followed by a direct object and *to*-infinitive 365f**Verbs followed by -ing****365b****-ing but not to-infinitive**Some verbs are normally followed by the *-ing* form, not the *to*-infinitive:

<i>admit</i>	<i>deny</i>	<i>finish</i>	<i>mind</i>
<i>avoid</i>	<i>dislike</i>	<i>give up</i>	<i>miss</i>
<i>(can't) help</i>	<i>enjoy</i>	<i>imagine</i>	<i>practise</i>
<i>(can't) stand</i>	<i>fancy</i>	<i>involve</i>	<i>put off</i>
<i>consider</i>	<i>feel like</i>	<i>keep (on)</i>	<i>risk</i>

*I always **enjoy cooking**.**Not: I always ~~enjoy to cook~~.*

We haven't **finished eating** yet.

Not: We haven't finished ~~to eat~~.

She **keeps changing** her mind about the wedding.

New subject before -ing

Some of these verbs (e.g. *can't stand*, *dislike*, *imagine*, *involve*, *mind*, *miss*, *put off* and *risk*) can be used with a new subject before the -ing form (underlined in the examples below). If the new subject is a pronoun, it is in the object form (*me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them*):

We just couldn't **imagine** Gerry **singing** in public.

Do you **mind** me **being** here while you're working?

I don't want to **risk** him **losing** his job.

→ Verbs followed by -ing 365b

Verbs followed by a to-infinitive or -ing

365c

Hate, like, love, prefer

Hate, *like*, *love* and *prefer* can be followed either by -ing or a to-infinitive. The difference in meaning is often small. The -ing form emphasises the verb itself. The to-infinitive puts the emphasis more on the preference for, or the results of, the action.

↔ Compare

-ing form	to-infinitive
I love cooking Indian food. (emphasis on the process itself and enjoyment of it)	I like to drink juice in the morning, and tea at lunchtime. (emphasis more on the preference or habit)
She hates cleaning her room. (emphasis on the process itself and no enjoyment of it)	I hate to be the only person to disagree. (emphasis more on the result: I would prefer not to be in that situation.)
Most people prefer watching a film at the cinema rather than on TV. (emphasis on the process itself and enjoyment of it)	We prefer to drive during the day whenever we can. (emphasis more on the result and on the habit or preference. The speaker doesn't necessarily enjoy the process of driving at any time of day.)

Hate, like, love, prefer with would or should

When *hate*, *like*, *love* and *prefer* are used with *would* or *should*, only the to-infinitive is used, not the -ing form:

She'd **love to** get a job nearer home.

Not: She'd love ~~getting~~ a job nearer home.

Would you like to have dinner with us on Friday?

To-infinitive or -ing form with a change in meaning

Some verbs can be followed by a *to*-infinitive or the *-ing* form, but with a change in meaning:

<i>go on</i>	<i>need</i>	<i>remember</i>	<i>try</i>
<i>mean</i>	<i>regret</i>	<i>stop</i>	<i>want</i>

⇔ Compare

-ing form	to-infinitive
<i>Working in London means leaving home at 6.30. (Because I work in London, this is the result or consequence.)</i>	<i>I didn't mean to make you cry. (I didn't intend to make you cry.)</i>
<i>He went on singing after everyone else had finished. (He continued singing without stopping.)</i>	<i>She recited a poem, then went on to sing a lovely folk song. (She recited the poem first, then she sang the song.)</i>
<i>I tried searching the web and finally found an address for him. (I searched the web to see what information I could find.)</i>	<i>I tried to email Simon but it bounced back. (I tried/attempted to email him but I did not succeed.)</i>
<i>She stopped crying as soon as she saw her mother. (She was crying, and then she didn't cry anymore.)</i>	<i>We stopped to buy some water at the motorway service area. (We were travelling and we stopped for a short time in order to buy some water.)</i>

→ *Mean* 204; *Need* 218; *Remember or remind* 20; *Stop +ing form or to-infinitive* 332; *Want* 371

Verbs followed by an infinitive without to**365d****Let, make**

Let and *make* are followed by an infinitive without *to* in active voice sentences. They always have an object (underlined> before the infinitive:

*Let me **show** you this DVD I've got.*

*They **made us wait** while they checked our documents.*

Not: ~~They made us to wait ...~~

Help

Help can be followed by an infinitive without *to* or a *to*-infinitive:

*She **helped me find** a direction in life.*

*Everyone can **help to reduce** carbon emissions by using public transport.*

→ *Help somebody (to) do* 20; *Let, let's* 193; *Make* 201

Verbs followed by -ing or an infinitive without to**365e**

A group of verbs connected with feeling, hearing and seeing can be used with -ing or with an infinitive without to:

<i>feel</i>	<i>notice</i>	<i>see</i>
<i>hear</i>	<i>overhear</i>	<i>watch</i>

When they are used with -ing, these verbs emphasise the action or event in progress. When they are used with an infinitive without to, they emphasise the action or event seen as a whole, or as completed.

↔ Compare

-ing	infinitive without to
<i>She heard people shouting in the street below and looked out of the window. (emphasises that the shouting probably continued or was repeated)</i>	<i>I heard someone shout 'Help!', so I ran to the river. (emphasises the whole event: the person probably shouted only once)</i>
<i>A police officer saw him running along the street. (emphasises the running as it was happening)</i>	<i>Emily saw Philip run out of Sandra's office. (emphasises the whole event from start to finish)</i>

Verbs followed by a direct object and a to-infinitive**365f**

Some verbs are used with a direct object (underlined) followed by a to-infinitive. These verbs include:

<i>advise</i>	<i>hate</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>persuade</i>	<i>request</i>
<i>ask</i>	<i>help</i>	<i>love</i>	<i>prefer</i>	<i>teach</i>
<i>challenge</i>	<i>instruct</i>	<i>need</i>	<i>recommend</i>	<i>tell</i>
<i>choose</i>	<i>intend</i>	<i>order</i>	<i>remind</i>	<i>want</i>
<i>forbid</i>	<i>invite</i>			

*I **advised** him **to get** a job as soon as possible.*

*Did Martin **teach** Gary **to play** squash?*

*They **want** me **to go** to Germany with them.*

Verb patterns: verb + *that*-clause**366****Reporting verbs + *that*-clause****366a**

Some verbs connected with reporting can be followed by a *that*-clause acting as the direct object (underlined in the examples):

<i>accept</i>	<i>decide</i>	<i>insist</i>	<i>repeat</i>
<i>admit</i>	<i>discover</i>	<i>know</i>	<i>reply</i>
<i>agree</i>	<i>doubt</i>	<i>mean</i>	<i>say</i>
<i>announce</i>	<i>expect</i>	<i>mention</i>	<i>see</i>
<i>assume</i>	<i>explain</i>	<i>notice</i>	<i>show</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>feel</i>	<i>pretend</i>	<i>state</i>
<i>check</i>	<i>find (out)</i>	<i>promise</i>	<i>suggest</i>
<i>claim</i>	<i>forget</i>	<i>prove</i>	<i>suppose</i>
<i>comment</i>	<i>guess</i>	<i>realise</i>	<i>think</i>
<i>complain</i>	<i>hear</i>	<i>reckon</i>	<i>understand</i>
<i>confirm</i>	<i>hope</i>	<i>remark</i>	
<i>consider</i>	<i>imagine</i>	<i>remember</i>	

Everyone **agrees** that we have to act quickly.

It's easy to **forget** that she's just a child.

Recent research **proves** that global warming is already a reality.

We often leave out *that* after these verbs, especially in informal speaking. This is sometimes called zero-*that*. This is especially common after *guess*, *think*, *hope* and *reckon*:

I **think** he's on holiday this week.

I **reckon** it's going to be a long, hot summer.

→ ***That*-clauses 345****Verbs followed by an indirect object and a *that*-clause****366b**

Some verbs (generally those connected with reporting) can be followed by an indirect object (underlined) plus a *that*-clause acting as the direct object:

<i>advise</i>	<i>inform</i>	<i>remind</i>
<i>assure</i>	<i>persuade</i>	<i>tell</i>
<i>convince</i>	<i>promise</i>	<i>warn</i>

He **told** us that it would take a long time.

Not: He told that it would take a long time.

He **convinced** everyone that the new road would be good for the town.

The school **informed** George that he had passed the entry test.

The verbs can also be used without *that*:

She **convinced** me I was wrong.

Verbs followed by a prepositional phrase and a *that*-clause 366c

Some verbs can be followed by a prepositional phrase (underlined) and a *that*-clause acting as the direct object:

<i>admit</i>	<i>explain</i>	<i>point out</i>	<i>recommend</i>	<i>state</i>
<i>complain</i>	<i>mention</i>	<i>prove</i>	<i>say</i>	<i>suggest</i>

We **complained** to the committee **that they had not kept us informed.**

I'd like to **point out** to everyone **that it will be expensive to hire a concert hall.**

I **suggested** Gina **that she should get a summer job.**

Verb patterns: with and without objects 367**Verbs: transitive and intransitive uses 367a**

Some verbs always need an object. These are called transitive verbs. Some verbs never have an object. These are called intransitive verbs. Some verbs can be used with or without an object. These are called transitive (with an object) and intransitive (without an object) uses of the verbs.

Verbs with an object (transitive)

These verbs are mostly used transitively:

<i>ask</i>	<i>describe</i>	<i>get</i>	<i>need</i>	<i>take</i>
<i>attend</i>	<i>discuss</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>raise</i>	<i>telephone</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>emphasise</i>	<i>join</i>	<i>receive</i>	<i>use</i>
<i>buy</i>	<i>enjoy</i>	<i>lose</i>	<i>say</i>	<i>want</i>
<i>consider</i>	<i>expect</i>	<i>love</i>	<i>suggest</i>	<i>watch</i>
<i>contact</i>	<i>find</i>	<i>make</i>		

Did you **enjoy** the film?

I can't **find** her name on the list.

Suzanne **took** my car keys.

These objects (underlined above) are called direct objects.

! We don't need a preposition after these verbs:

The book **emphasises** the role of the arts in society.

Not: The book ~~emphasises on~~ the role of the arts in society.

→ Objects 241; Linking verbs 364b; Want 371

Verbs with no object (intransitive)

Verbs which are most commonly used intransitively:

<i>appear</i>	<i>die</i>	<i>lie</i>	<i>sneeze</i>
<i>arrive</i>	<i>disappear</i>	<i>live</i>	<i>snow</i>
<i>come</i>	<i>fall</i>	<i>rain</i>	<i>wait</i>
<i>cough</i>	<i>happen</i>	<i>rise</i>	<i>work</i>

Suddenly Joss **appeared** in the doorway.

Rita looked upset – do you know what **happened**?

Did it **rain** last night?

Transitive or intransitive

Some verbs can be used with an object (transitively) or without an object (intransitively). Sometimes the meaning is the same. (Objects are underlined.)

↔ Compare

transitive	intransitive
I just can't eat <u>hot food</u> .	What time do you want to eat ?
She entered <u>the room</u> looking nervous.	Do not enter .
He drives <u>a van</u> for a delivery firm.	I learnt to drive when I was twenty.
My father left <u>school</u> when he was fourteen.	We should leave now.
She won <u>a competition</u> and got a free trip to Copenhagen.	How was the match? Did you win ?

In these examples, although one use has an object and the other does not, the meaning is more or less the same.

Relationship between verb and subject

Some verbs can be used with or without an object, but the relationship between the verb and the subject is different in each case. When these verbs have an object, the subject does the action. When they have no object, the action or event happens to the subject.

(s = subject; v = verb; o = object)

↔ Compare

Transitive (the subject does the action)	Intransitive (the action or event happens to the subject)
[s] [v] [o] He opened <u>the door</u> and walked in.	[s] [v] The door opened slowly.
[s] [v] [o] The teacher always begins <u>each lesson</u> with a quiz.	[s] [v] The interviews will begin at 2.30 pm.
They increased <u>my salary</u> last month.	Global temperatures are increasing .
Do you know how you work this camera?	How does this camera work ?

Verbs with direct and indirect objects**367b**

Some verbs take two objects, a direct object and an indirect object. The indirect object is the person or thing that receives the direct object. The indirect object (underlined in the examples) comes before the direct object (in bold):

ask	give	make	promise	show
bring	hand	offer	save	teach
charge	leave	owe	send	tell
find	lend	pay	serve	wish
fine				

Can I **ask** you **a question**?

They **charged** me **£150** for three hours.

She **gave** her brother **an MP3 player** for his birthday.

Buying things on the Internet **saves** people **a lot of time**.

Prepositional complements can operate as an alternative to indirect objects with some of these verbs:

(PC = prepositional complement; IO = indirect object; DO = direct object)

[DO] [PC]
I gave **an old jacket of mine** to my brother.

[IO] [PC]
(or I gave my brother **an old jacket of mine**.)

He owed **a lot of money** to his parents. (or He **owed his parents** **a lot of money**.)

Edith found **an excellent violin teacher** for us. (or Edith **found us** **an excellent violin teacher**.)

→ Passive 257; Complements 82

Verbs followed by a direct object and a prepositional phrase of time or place 367c

Some verbs take a direct object and a prepositional phrase of time or place:

bring	lead	send	stand
drive	place	set	take
lay	put	show	

(DO = direct object; PP = prepositional phrase)

[DO] [PP]
Could you stand **that vase of flowers** on the little table, please?

[DO] [PP]
You can put **your bag** on the back seat.

Verbs followed by a direct object and an -ed clause**367d**

Some verbs can be followed by a direct object (underlined) and a clause containing the -ed form of a verb:

feel (oneself)	have	need
find	leave	want
get	like	

I **get** my car **mended** locally.

They **had** the whole house **repainted**.

We **need** everything **cleaned** and **tidied** by the end of the day.

→ Get passive 147; Have 154

Verbs followed by a *wh*-clause as direct object

367e

Wh-clause as direct object

Many verbs which can be followed by a *that*-clause can also be used with a clause beginning with *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *which*, *whose*, *why* or *how* as the direct object. We call these *wh*-clauses (underlined in the examples below):

arrange	consider	enquire	imagine	predict	show
ask	decide	explain	judge	prove	tell
care	depend	find out	know	realise	think
check	discover	forget	learn	remember	wonder
choose	discuss	guess	mind	say	
confirm	doubt	hear	notice	see	

Miriam **explained** how she had done it.

I didn't **realise** who it was at first.

Can you **remember** what they told us at the hotel?

Wh-clause + *to*-infinitive

Many of the verbs which can be followed by a *wh*-clause can also be followed by a *wh*-clause with *to*-infinitive (underlined below):

arrange	decide	find out	learn	show
ask	discover	forget	notice	tell
check	discuss	imagine	remember	think
choose	enquire	judge	say	wonder
consider	explain	know	see	

We **discussed** what to do about the community hall.

I really don't **know** who to suggest as a replacement for Jim.

Can you **see** how to put paper into this printer?

Verb phrases

368

A verb phrase consists of a main verb alone, or a main verb plus any modal and/or auxiliary verbs. The main verb always comes last in the verb phrase:

(MO = modal verb; AUX = auxiliary verb; MV = main verb)

[MV]

*We all **laughed**.*

[MO] [MV]

*Computers **can be** very annoying!*

[MO] [AUX] [MV]

*An apartment **would have cost** less than a hotel for four of us.*

[MO] [AUX] [AUX] [MV]

*Tony **might have been waiting** outside for you.*

Simple verb phrases **368a**

A simple verb phrase consists of a main verb. The verb in a simple verb phrase shows the type of clause (e.g. declarative, imperative):

*Your camera **takes** fantastic pictures.* (present simple, declarative clause)

Dress smartly. Arrive on time. (imperative clauses)

Complex verb phrases **368b**

A complex verb phrase may include one modal verb and one or more auxiliary verbs before the main verb. A modal verb always comes before any auxiliary verbs:

(MO = modal verb; AUX = auxiliary verb; MV = main verb)

[MO] [MV]

*House prices **could fall** during the next six months.* (modal verb + main verb)

[MO] [AUX] [MV]

*You **may have played** this game before.* (modal verb + one auxiliary verb)

[MO] [AUX] [AUX] [MV]

*The work **should have been finished** by 30 January.* (modal verb + two auxiliary verbs)

Meaning of auxiliary verbs in verb phrases

Auxiliary verbs give different types of meanings to a verb phrase.

meaning	auxiliary verb (+ form of main verb)	example
continuous	<i>be</i> + <i>-ing</i> form	<i>I was thinking about you all day.</i>
perfect	<i>have</i> + <i>-ed</i> form	<i>The girls have all gone out together.</i>
passive	<i>be</i> + <i>-ed</i> form	<i>Val's car was stolen from outside her house.</i>
interrogative	<i>do</i> + subject + base form	<i>Do they sell newspapers in your local shop?</i>
negative	<i>do</i> + <i>not</i> + base form	<i>It didn't last very long.</i>
emphatic	<i>do</i> (stressed) + base form	<i>It does annoy me when they make so much noise.</i>

Order of verbs in verb phrases

The continuous, perfect and passive meanings of auxiliary verbs may be combined in a verb phrase, and auxiliary verbs may combine with modal verbs.

The order of the different types (and meanings) of verbs in the verb phrase is shown in the table as 1–5, from left to right.

	→				
	1	2	3	4	5
subject	modal verb	perfect <i>have</i>	continuous <i>be</i>	passive <i>be</i>	main verb
	must be followed by base form	must be followed by <i>-ed form</i>	must be followed by <i>-ing form</i>	must be followed by <i>-ed form</i>	
<i>Prices</i>					<i>rose.</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>will</i>				<i>understand.</i>
<i>The builders</i>		<i>had</i>			<i>arrived.</i>
<i>The show</i>			<i>is</i>		<i>starting.</i>
<i>Four people</i>				<i>were</i>	<i>arrested.</i>
<i>Seats</i>	<i>cannot</i>			<i>be</i>	<i>reserved.</i>
<i>The printer</i>	<i>should</i>		<i>be</i>		<i>working.</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>must</i>	<i>have</i>			<i>forgotten.</i>
<i>Temperatures</i>		<i>have</i>	<i>been</i>		<i>rising.</i>
<i>William</i>		<i>has</i>		<i>been</i>	<i>promoted.</i>
<i>You</i>	<i>could</i>	<i>have</i>		<i>been</i>	<i>killed!</i>

A combination of all the auxiliary meanings plus a modal verb is possible but is very rare:

*She **may have been being interviewed** for a job. Perhaps that's why she was there.*
(modal *may* + perfect *have* + passive *been* + continuous *being* + main verb *interviewed*)

→ Questions: interrogative pronouns 303; Modality: introduction 207; Negation 219; Passive 257; Past continuous 259; Past perfect simple 263; Present continuous 278; Present perfect simple 284

The first verb

The first verb in a complex verb phrase indicates the time somebody did something and matches the person and number of the subject, except when it is a modal verb.

	time	person	number
<i>He has lost his keys.</i>	present	third	singular
<i>We were taken to a big room.</i>	past	first	plural
<i>I was hoping to see Professor Jones.</i>	past	first	singular
<i>I could meet you next week.</i>	–	–	–

Verbs and verb phrases: typical errors 369

- We always need an *e* in the *-ed* form (past simple and *-ed* form) of regular verbs:

*She **joined** the company two years ago.*

Not: *She ~~joind~~ the company two years ago.*

- With irregular verbs where the vowel changes from *i* to *a* to *u* (e.g. *begin*, *began*, *begun*), take care to use *a* in the past simple and *u* in the *-ed* form:

*The film **began** at 7.30. (past simple form)*

Not: *The film ~~began~~ at 7.30.*

*I was so thirsty I **drank** a whole bottle of water. (past simple form)*

Not: *I was so thirsty I ~~drunk~~ ...*

*The ship **had sunk** in the North Atlantic. (*-ed* form)*

Not: *The ship ~~had sank~~ ...*

- Other verbs like this are: *ring*, *sing*, *swim*.

→ Verbs 360

- We change verbs ending in *-y* to *-ied* for the past simple and *-ed* forms:

*The baby **cried** all night.*

Not: *The baby ~~cried~~ all night.*

→ Verbs: basic forms 361

- Be careful with irregular verbs where the base form ends in *-d* and the past tense ends in *-t*:

*We **spent** a lot of money yesterday.*

Not: *We ~~spend~~ a lot of money yesterday.*

→ Verbs 360

- We don't use the regular past simple or *-ed* form for an irregular verb:

*She **spent** a week in Lisbon.*

Not: *She ~~spended~~ a week in Lisbon.*

*I was afraid of being **hurt**.*

Not: ~~I was afraid of being hurted.~~

→ Irregular verbs 361c

- Be careful not to use the past simple form instead of the base form:

*It's not easy to **choose** a university.*

Not: ~~It's not easy to chose a university.~~

→ Verbs: basic forms 361

- Be careful with verbs which have similar pronunciation but a different meaning:

*I **fell** and broke my ankle.*

Not: ~~I felt and broke my ankle.~~ (*Fell* is the past tense of *fall*; *felt* is the past tense of *feel*.)

- Sometimes a verb is confused with another word which sounds similar but is from a different word class:

*You need to **practise** harder if you want to play better.*

Not: ~~You need to practice harder.~~

- We don't use prepositions with some verbs:

*We **discussed** some environmental problems.*

Not: ~~We discussed about some environmental problems.~~

*Did you **enjoy** Italy?*

Not: ~~Did you enjoy in Italy?~~

- We have to use the correct preposition with prepositional verbs:

*The download time **depends on** your internet connection speed.*

Not: ~~... depends of your internet connection speed.~~

*I like to **listen to** the radio while I'm having breakfast.*

Not: ~~I like to listen the radio ...~~

→ Verbs: basic forms 361; Prepositional verbs 363b

- We don't use the continuous form of state verbs:

A: *Where is she from?*

B: *She **comes** from Tanzania originally.*

Not: ~~She's coming from Tanzania ...~~

→ State and action verbs 364e

Wait or wait for?

370

Wait means 'stay in the same place or not do something until something else happens'. We can use it with or without *for*:

*Put a tea bag into the cup, then add water and **wait (for)** a minute or two before taking it out.*

*I phoned the head office but I had to **wait (for)** five minutes before I spoke to anyone.*

*We **waited (for)** hours to get the tickets.*

 When we use a direct object after *wait*, we have to use *wait for*.

Wait for us outside the cinema. We'll be there at seven o'clock.

Not: ~~Wait us ...~~

I waited for the postman every day last week hoping that your present would arrive.

Not: ~~I waited the postman ...~~

Wait with the to-infinitive

Wait can be followed by the *to*-infinitive:

All right, I'll wait to hear from you, Adam, then I'll ring Simon.

By 9 pm there were about 20 people still waiting to vote.

Can't wait

When we are very excited about something that is going to happen, we use the phrase *can't wait for* + noun phrase or *can't wait* + *to*-infinitive:

I can't wait for tonight. I'm having a party! (I'm really looking forward to tonight.)

We can't wait to go to Barcelona in June. (We're really looking forward to going.)

Want

371

We use the verb *want* to talk about wishes and needs, and to give advice:

What do you want for dinner tonight? (wish or desire)

The kitchen wants painting. (needs)

You want to get your tickets soon before they're all sold out. (I advise you to)

Most uses of *want* involve the simple forms of the verb (*want*, *wants*, *wanted*). When we are talking about wishes or desires we can also use the continuous form (*is wanting*, *was wanting*, *will be wanting*).

Want meaning 'wish' or 'desire'

371a

We always follow *want* with a complement of some kind. The complement completes the meaning of the clause. The complement can be a noun or pronoun as an object, or a verb in the *to*-infinitive form, or an object plus a verb in the *to*-infinitive form:

A: *D'you want a drink? I've just made some coffee. (noun object)*

B: *Oh, yes, please.*

Not: ~~D'you want?~~

She said I could have her old bike, but I don't want it. (pronoun object)

Not: ~~... but I don't want.~~

This is a new kind of fruit juice I got. D'you want to try it? (to-infinitive)

Not: ~~Do you want try it?~~

The teacher wants her to do the exams again next year. (object + to-infinitive)

Not: ~~The teacher wants that she does the exams ...~~

In reduced clauses (e.g. short answers), we can use the *to* without its verb:

A: Is Elsa going to France with you?

B: No. She doesn't **want to**. (She doesn't want to go [to France].)

Not: She doesn't want.

He wanted to leave school at sixteen, but his parents didn't **want him to**.

! We don't use *want* with a *that*-clause:

I **want** you to tidy your room before the visitors come.

Not: I want that you tidy your room ...

Want with *wh*-words (*whatever you want*)

We can use *wh*-words such as *what*, *when*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *whoever* before *want*. In such cases, it is often not necessary to use the infinitive *to* after *want*:

You don't have to stay for the whole lecture. You can leave **whenever you want**. (or ... whenever you **want to**.)

A: Would you like some of these carrots from our garden?

B: Oh, yes, please.

A: Take **what you want**.

Want with *if*

In statements with *if*, it is often not necessary to use the infinitive *to* after *want*:

She can park her car at our house, **if she wants**.

However, we use the infinitive *to* after *want* in negative clauses with *if*:

He doesn't have to stay the night **if he doesn't want to**.

Want in the continuous form

We can use *want* in the continuous form to show indirectness or politeness:

Customer: We're **wanting** to buy a new TV, but we're not sure what to get.

Assistant: Okay, sir. Let me show you some of them.

I **was wanting** to ask you something. Are you free right now?

We can also use the continuous form to emphasise an ongoing or repeated process:

We'd **been wanting** to go to New Zealand for years, so his sixtieth birthday was a good excuse.

Now that she's a teenager she's **wanting** expensive things, you know, computers, clothes, sports stuff.

Want meaning 'need'

371b

We can use *want* with the *-ing* form of a verb to say that something is necessary or should be done. This usage is quite informal:

Your hair **wants cutting**. (needs to be cut)

That cupboard **wants clearing out**.

In informal situations, we can also use *want* + *-ing* in a similar way to the construction *have something done*:

Have you got any shirts you **want washing**? (which you want to have washed)

Want for advice and warnings

371c

In informal situations, we can use *want* plus the *to*-infinitive to advise, recommend or warn. It is almost always in the present simple, but we can also use it with 'll (the short form of *will*):

You **want** to be careful riding your bike in town. There've been some bad accidents lately. (you should be careful)

What you'll **want** to do, you'll **want** to take that bit off and clean it with oil or something.

Warnings

372

A warning is something that makes us aware of possible danger. There are a number of ways of warning someone. Warnings can be weak or strong.

Weak warnings

Weak warnings are similar to advice. We can use a number of phrases:

I wouldn't swim there if I were you.

I don't think you should drink the water here.

I don't think you ought to say no to the job offer. (more formal)

A word of warning, there are snakes on the trails. (Be careful)

Strong warnings

We usually use *don't* in strong warnings:

Don't cross the road when the pedestrian light is red.

Don't try to open the door when the train is moving.

Whatever you do, don't take a lift from an unofficial taxi driver.

Sometimes we say *I warn you* or *I must warn you*:

It's a wonderful restaurant but, I warn you, it isn't cheap.

I must warn you it gets very cold at night in the mountains. Make sure to bring some warm clothes.

Warning of immediate danger



When we want to say something to warn someone about an immediate danger, we can use phrases like *careful*, *be careful*, *watch out*, *look out*, *mind*:

Be careful! That chair is broken!

Watch out! You're about to hit the car behind you.

Look out! There's a rock falling.

Mind your step! (pay attention to the step)

Public warning notices

We often use *beware of*, *caution*, *warning* and *danger* in public warning notices:



Beware of the dog.

Caution: Wet floor.

Warning: this building site is private property.

[near a river where it is dangerous to swim]

Danger: Strong currents.

Well

373

Well is a discourse marker, adverb or adjective.

Well as a discourse marker

373a

In speaking, we often use *well* at the start of what we say. Its main function is to show that we are thinking about the question that we have been asked:

A: *How was your meeting?*

B: *Well, it's difficult to say. I think they liked our presentation but I am not sure.*

A: *How long would it take to drive from Dundee to here?*

B: *Well, let me see. I'd say it would take at least three hours, if not more.*

We can use *well* to show a slight change in topic, or when what we are about to say is not quite what is expected:

A: *Have you found a house yet?*

B: *Well, we've stopped looking actually. Nadia's company has offered her another contract and we've decided to stay in Edinburgh for another year.*

A: *Did you like that book?*

B: *Well, it was interesting, but war stories are not really my favourite.*

We can use *well* when we want to change what we have said slightly, or say something in another way:

I'm not going on a hiking holiday. I hate walking. Well, I hate being out in the cold weather.

Fiona is feeling better. Well, she's much better than she was. She'll be back to work on Monday.

We can use *well* when we admit or acknowledge that something is correct or true:

A: *It'll take four hours to get to Glasgow.*

B: *It'll take more than that. We'll have to stop for a break somewhere.*

A: *Well, that's true.*

! We can use *well* with a rising intonation as a type of question when we want someone to tell us something. In this case, it means *tell me* or *tell us*. Be careful when you use this, as it can sound very direct:

A: *There's something I have to tell you.*

B: *What is it?*

A: [silence]

B: **Well?**

Well? *What did you say to her?*

→ Discourse markers 104

Well as an adverb

373b

We use *well* as an adverb when something is done to a good standard or in a good way:

He drives very well.

I work very well late at night.

We often use *well* before *-ed* forms, often with a hyphen:

This table isn't very well-made.

I like my steak well-cooked. (I like my steak cooked for a long time.)

A: *I've passed my driving test!*

B: **Well done.**

Well and good

Well and *good* have a similar meaning, but *good* is not used as an adverb. It is used as an adjective.

↔ Compare

<i>She sings very well.</i>	<i>well</i> used as an adverb modifying <i>sings</i>
<i>She is a very good singer.</i>	<i>good</i> used as an adjective modifying <i>singer</i>

Well as an adjective

373c

We use *well* as an adjective, normally after a linking verb such as *be*, *look* or *get*, to mean 'in good health':

A: *How are you?*

B: *I'm very well, thanks. And you?*

Are you feeling OK? You don't look very well.

In American English, it is common to use *good* instead of *well* in this context. This is less common in British English:

A: *And how's your mother?*

B: *She's good. Thanks for asking.*

What**374a**

What is a *wh*-word. We use *what* to ask questions and as a pronoun and determiner.

What as a question word**374a**

We can use *what* to ask for information about things and actions:

What do you want?

What is she doing? Tell her to stop at once!

What time are you leaving?

We can also use *what* in indirect questions:

She asked me *what* my address was.

I wonder *what* Jim Barfield is doing these days.

→ Questions: *wh*-questions 297

What meaning 'please repeat'**374b**

We can use *what* in informal situations to ask someone to repeat something if we don't hear it or understand it:

A: Did you get the paper?

B: Sorry, *what*? (sorry alone would be more polite)

A: Did you get the paper?

B: Oh, yes. It's in the kitchen.

Emphatic questions with whatever and what on earth**374c**

We can ask emphatic questions using *whatever* or *what on earth* to express shock or surprise. We stress *ever* and *earth*:

Joan, *whatever* are you doing? You'll give yourself an electric shock! (stronger than *What are you doing?*)

What on earth is she wearing? She looks awful in that red and white dress! (stronger than *What is she wearing?*)

What as a pronoun**374d**

We can use *what* as a pronoun to mean 'the thing(s) that':

What we need to do is make a list of useful phone numbers. (the thing we need to do)

I can't decide *what* to buy Liz for her birthday.

I haven't got many Beatles CDs, but you can borrow *what* I have.

We don't use *what* as a relative pronoun. We use *which*:

This is the book *which* the lecturer mentioned.

Not: ... the book *what* the lecturer mentioned.

What as a determiner**374e**

We can use *what* in exclamations to express a strong feeling or opinion. In this case, we use *what* as a determiner before a noun or before *a/an* (+ adjective) + noun:

What lovely flowers!

What a horrible smell!

What a mess!

What ... for?

374f

We can use *what ... for?* in two ways. We can use it in informal situations to mean *why?*:

What did you phone her **for**? (informal: *Why* did you phone her?)

We can also use *what ... for?* to ask about the purpose of something:

A: **What's** that button **for**? (What is the purpose of that button?)

B: It's the on-off switch for the radio.

What: typical errors

374g

- We don't use *what* as a relative pronoun:

*The hotel **which** was least expensive turned out to be the best.*

Not: ~~The hotel **what** was least expensive ...~~

*She never asked our permission to use the room, **which** was very rude of her.*

Not: ~~... **what** was very rude of her.~~

- We don't use *what* after words which take a *that*-clause:

*I am very happy **that** you can come and visit us.*

Not: ~~... happy **what** you can come ...~~

→ Relative clauses 307; *That*-clauses 345

When

375

When is a *wh*-word. We use *when* to ask questions, as a conjunction and to introduce relative clauses.

When as a question word

375a

We can use *when* to ask for information about what time something happens:

When did you leave?

When are you going on holiday?

When will you know the result of the exam?

We can use *when* in indirect questions:

*She asked me **when** I would be ready to start the job.*

*I wonder **when** the new computers will arrive.*

→ Questions 295; Questions: *wh*-questions 297; Future 134

When as a conjunction**375b**

We use *when* as a conjunction meaning 'at the time that'. The clause with *when* is a subordinate clause (SC) and needs a main clause (MC) to complete its meaning. If the *when*-clause comes before the main clause, we use a comma.

Talking about the past

[SC] [MC]
When I was young, there were no houses here.
 [MC] [SC]
*Nobody spoke **when** she came into the room.*

Talking about the present

When you start the engine, there is a strange noise.

Talking about the future

In references to the future with *when*, we use the present simple or the present perfect in the *when*-clause, not the future with *shall* and *will*:

*When the new park **opens**, I'll go there every day.*

Not: *When the new park **will open**, I'll go there every day.*

*When I've **finished** my homework, I'm going to phone Marita.*

Not: *When I'll finish my homework, I'm going to phone Marita.*

We can use *when* as a conjunction to mean 'considering that':

*What's the point in going out **when** we have to be home by eleven o'clock?*

→ Conjunctions 88; Punctuation 293; *As, when or while?* 39

When as a relative pronoun**375c**

We can use *when* as a relative pronoun in relative clauses:

*That was the week **when** we booked our holiday.*

*The parcel arrived in the post at 11 am, **when** I was still at work.*

→ Relative clauses 307

Since when?**375d**

We can use *since when* to ask at what time something began. We often use it as a response when we are surprised that something has begun:

A: *Hilary's working at the Art Museum now.*

B: Really? **Since when?**

A: *Oh, she's been there about three months.*



Using *Since when* at the start of a question can express anger or sarcasm:

[talking about children watching television]

A: *Maybe you should try not to let them watch so much television.*

B: **Since when** are you an expert on childcare? (This is very direct.)

When or if?**375e**

We use *when* to refer to a future situation or condition that we are certain of, whereas we use *if* to introduce a possible or unreal situation.

↔ Compare

<i>When I see Gary, I'll tell him that you said hello.</i>	I will definitely see Gary.
<i>If I see Gary, I'll tell him that you said hello.</i>	I may see Gary but I am not certain.

→ If or when? 171**When or since?****375f**

We use *when* to mean '(at) the time that'. We use *since* to refer to a particular time in the past until another time or until now:

*I had a great time **when** I went to the coast.*

*I have been having a boring time **since** I came back home.*

Not: ~~I have been having a boring time when I came back home.~~

→ Since 322**When: typical errors****375g**

- Be careful not to use *when* instead of *if*:

If you arrive too late, you are not allowed to take the examination because they don't accept late enrolment.

Not: ~~When you arrive too late, ...~~

- Be careful not to use *when* instead of *since*:

*I was very surprised to see him because it's been a long time **since** I last saw him.*

Not: ~~... it's been a long time when I last saw him.~~

- We don't use *will* after *when* to mean 'at that time':

***When I start** college, I'll miss my old school friends.*

Not: ~~When I'll start college, I'll miss my old school friends.~~

Where**376**

Where is a *wh*-word. We use *where* to ask questions, as a conjunction and to introduce relative clauses.

Where as a question word**376a**

We can use *where* to ask for information about place:

***Where** did you buy those shoes?*

***Where** will you be working next Monday?*

We can use *where* in indirect questions:

*I asked him **where** I could buy an umbrella.*

*Can you tell me **where** she left the keys?*

Emphatic questions with *wherever* and *where on earth***376b**

We can ask emphatic questions using *wherever* or *where on earth* to express shock or surprise. We stress *ever* and *earth*:

***Wherever** are you going with such a big bag?* (stronger than *Where are you going?*)

***Where on earth** have I put my wallet?* (stronger than *Where have I put my wallet?*)

→ Questions 295; Indirect speech: reporting questions 314b

Where as a conjunction**376c**

We use *where* as a conjunction meaning 'in the place that' or 'in situations that'. The clause with *where* is a subordinate clause and needs a main clause to complete its meaning. If the *where* clause comes before the main clause, we use a comma:

***Where** you find a lot of water, you will also find these beautiful insects.*

***Where** you have to pay a deposit, be sure to get a receipt.*

Where as a relative pronoun**376d**

We can use *where* as a relative pronoun:

*The hotel **where** we spent our honeymoon has been demolished.*

*The hall **where** you're giving your talk has a really good sound system.*

→ Relative clauses 307

Whereas**377**

We use the conjunction *whereas* to indicate a contrast between two facts or ideas:

*He loves foreign holidays, **whereas** his wife prefers to stay at home.*

***Whereas** most new PCs have several USB slots, older ones often only had one.*

! ***Whereas** means the same as *while* in sentences expressing contrasts. It does not mean the same as *while* when *while* refers to time:*

*The south has a hot, dry climate, **whereas/while** the north has a milder, wetter climate.*

*The secretary took care of my appointments **while** I was away from the office.*

Not: ... *whereas* I was away from the office.

→ *While and whilst* 380

Whether**378**

Whether is a conjunction.

Whether in indirect questions**378a**

We use *whether* in indirect yes-no questions and questions with *or*. We can't leave out *whether* (or *if*):

*They asked me **whether** (if) I was tired.* (original question: *Are you tired?*)

Not: *They asked me I was tired.*

I want to find out **whether** (if) the rooms have a shower or not.

Not: I want to find out the rooms have a shower or not. (original question: *Do the rooms have a shower or not?*)

We don't use *either* in indirect questions:

We can't say **whether** tourism is harmful or beneficial.

Not: We can't say ~~either~~ tourism is harmful or beneficial.

Whether ... or

378b

We use *whether ... or* to introduce a clause giving two options or alternatives:

I can't decide **whether** to paint the wall green **or** blue. (or to paint the wall blue)

She didn't know **whether** he was laughing **or** crying.

When the subject of the main clause is the same as the subject of the *whether*-clause(s), we can use *whether to* + infinitive or *whether* + a finite clause. When the subject of the main clause is different from the subject of the subordinate clause, we have to use a finite clause.

↔ Compare

same subject	different subject
We're not sure whether to stay here for dinner or go somewhere else. (<i>whether</i> + <i>to</i> + infinitive)	We're not sure whether he'll stay here for dinner or go somewhere else. (<i>whether</i> + finite clause)
We're not sure whether we'll stay here for dinner or go somewhere else. (<i>whether</i> + finite clause)	

Whether ... or not

378c

We use *whether ... or not* or *whether or not* to give an opposite alternative:

We use the title *Ms* rather than *Mrs* (married woman) or *Miss* (unmarried woman) when we don't know **whether** a woman is married **or not**.

I'm not sure **whether or not** to go to camping this weekend.

We often use *whether ... or not* to mean 'it's not important if' or 'it doesn't matter if'.

We don't use *either* in this way:

He always said what he thought, **whether** it was polite **or not**.

Not: ... ~~either~~ it was polite or not.

We can use *whether ... or not* in front or end position with this meaning. We use it in orders or commands:

Whether you like it **or not**, you're going to have to look after your sister.

(or You're going to have to look after your sister, **whether** you like it **or not**.)

→ If or whether? 169; Ellipsis 116; If: reporting questions 168e

Typical errors

- We use *whether*, not *if*, before a *to*-infinitive:

*I'm not sure **whether** to get a new laptop.*

Not: *I'm not sure if to get a new laptop.*

- We use *whether ... or not*, not *either*, to mean 'it's not important that':

*We have to accept that they are part of our lives, **whether** we like it **or not**.*

Not: *... either we like it or not.*

- We use *whether*, not *either*, in indirect questions:

*She has to decide **whether** she is going to accept the job or not.*

Not: *She has to decide either ...*

- We can't leave out *whether* (or *if*) in indirect questions:

*I want to find out **whether/if** the rooms have a shower or not.*

Not: *I want to find out the rooms have a shower or not.*

- Take care to spell *whether* correctly: not 'weather', 'wheter', 'wheather' or 'wether'.

→ Reported speech 312; Conjunctions 88

Which

379

Which is a *wh*-word. We use *which* to ask questions and to introduce relative clauses.

Which as a question word

379a

We use *which* in questions as a determiner and interrogative pronoun to ask for specific information:

'Which car are we going in?' he asked Alexander.

Which museums did you visit?

Which do you prefer? Lemon cake or carrot cake?

We use *which* in indirect questions and statements:

*In the Young Cook of Britain competition, the finalists were asked **which** famous person they would like to cook for.*

*Find out **which** way they're going and we'll follow.*

→ Indirect speech: reporting questions 314b

Which or *what*?

We use both *which* and *what* to ask questions. We use *which* when there is a restricted range of answers. We use *what* more commonly when the range of answers is not restricted:

Which is the capital of Liberia? Monrovia or Greenville?

What's the capital of Liberia?

Which in relative clauses**379b**

We use *which* in relative clauses to refer to animals and to things:

*We have seen a lot of changes **which** are good for business.*

*The cruise ship, **which** will depart from Liverpool for a fifteen-night Mediterranean cruise, returns to the Mersey on 29 September.*

We also use *which* to introduce a relative clause when it refers to a whole clause or sentence:

*She seemed more talkative than usual, **which** was because she was nervous.*

*People think I sit around drinking coffee all day. **Which**, of course, I do.*

We often use *which* with prepositions. Some formal styles prefer to use a preposition before *which* rather than to leave the preposition 'hanging' at the end of the sentence:

*There are several small ponds **in which** a variety of fish live. (or *There are several small ponds **which** a variety of fish live **in**.)**

→ Prepositions 275; Relative pronouns: *which* 311d

Which + of**379c**

We use *of* with *which* before other determiners (*the, those, your*) and pronouns (*yours, them*):

***Which of** the following features do you feel are important when choosing a house?*

***Which of** your sisters lives in Boston?*

*There are a lot of high-street retailers. **Which of** them are offering the best value for money?*

→ Relative clauses 307; Questions: interrogative pronouns 303; Indirect speech: reporting questions 314b; Relative pronouns: *which* 311d

While and whilst**380****While or whilst?**

While and *whilst* mean the same when we use them as conjunctions. They both mean 'during the time that something else happens', or 'in contrast with something else'. *While* is much more common than *whilst*, and *whilst* sounds more formal:

*Would you like something to eat **while** we're waiting? (less common: ... **whilst** we're waiting?) (during the time we're waiting)*

*British English prefers an 's' for words like realise, compromise and industrialise, **while** American English prefers 'z' (realize, compromize, industrialize). (less common: ... **whilst** American English prefers 'z' ...) (expressing a contrast between British and American English)*

→ *Whereas* 377

While or when?

While (or *whilst*) means ‘during the time when something else happens’. *When* can mean the same as *while*, but *when* can also refer to a point in time.

⇔ Compare

during the time something happens	a point in time
<i>The phone rang while/when we were having dinner.</i>	<i>When the phone rang, she answered it immediately.</i> Not: <i>While the phone rang ...</i>

While as a noun

A *while* means ‘an unspecified period of time’:

*We spent **a while** looking at the boats in the harbour before going for lunch.*

*I haven’t seen Andrew for **a while**. I wonder if he’s okay.*

*It’s **a long while** since anyone lived in that house – maybe ten years. It’s a ruin now.*

Typical error

- *While* does not mean the same as *when*:

*Always keep some change with you. It’s useful **when** buying a bus ticket.*

Not: ... *while* buying a bus ticket.

***When** I came home, I made some dinner then watched TV.*

Not: *While I came home ...*

Who, whom**381**

Who and *whom* are *wh*-words. We use them to ask questions and to introduce relative clauses.

Who as a question word**381a**

We use *who* as an interrogative pronoun to begin questions about people:

***Who’s** next?*

***Who** makes the decisions here?*

***Who** did you talk to?*

We use *who* in indirect questions and statements:

*The phone rang. She asked me **who** it was.*

*Can you tell me **who** I should talk to.*

*I can’t remember **who** told me.*

Emphatic questions with *whoever* and *who on earth***381b**

We can ask emphatic questions using *whoever* or *who on earth* to express shock or surprise. We stress *ever* and *earth*:

***Whoever** does she think she is, speaking to us like that?* (stronger than *Who does she think she is?*)

***Who on earth** has left all this rubbish here?* (stronger than *Who has left all this rubbish here?*)

Who in relative clauses**381c**

We use *who* as a relative pronoun to introduce a relative clause about people:

*The police officer **who** came was a friend of my father's.*

*He shared a flat with Anne Bolton, **who** he married, and eventually they moved to Australia.*

Whom**381d**

Whom is the object form of *who*. We use *whom* to refer to people in formal styles or in writing, when the person is the object of the verb. We don't use it very often and we use it more commonly in writing than in speaking.

We use *whom* commonly with prepositions. Some formal styles prefer to use a preposition before *whom* than to leave the preposition 'hanging' at the end of the sentence:

*Before a job interview it is a good idea, if you can, to find out some background information about the people **for whom** you would be working.* (preferred in some formal styles to ... *about the people **whom** you would be working **for***)

*Over 200 people attended the ceremony, many **of whom** had known Harry as their teacher.*

We use it in relative clauses:

*She gave birth in 1970 to a boy **whom** she named Caleb James.*

We use it in indirect questions and statements:

*He didn't ask **for whom** I had voted.*

*He told me where he went and **with whom**.* (preferred in some formal styles to *He told me where he went and **who with**.*)

→ Relative clauses 307; Questions: interrogative pronouns 303; Indirect speech: reporting questions 314b; Prepositions 275; Relative pronouns: *who* 311a; Relative pronouns: *whom* 311b

Whose**382**

Whose is a *wh*-word. We use *whose* to ask questions and to introduce relative clauses.

Whose as a question word**382a**

We use *whose* to ask a question about possession:

***Whose** birthday is it today?*

Whose house was used in the film 'Gosford Park'?

Whose are these gloves?

We use *whose* in indirect questions:

*Juliet wondered **whose** the sports car was.*



Don't confuse *whose* and *who's*. *Who's* means *who is*:

Whose book is this? (Who does this book belong to?)

Who's driving us home? (Who is driving us home?)

Whose in relative clauses

382b

We use *whose* to introduce a relative clause indicating possession by people, animals and things:

*John works with that other chap **whose** name I can't remember.*

*Shirley has a 17-year-old daughter **whose** ambition is to be a photographer.*

*This is the book **whose** title I couldn't remember.*

Typical error

- We don't use *whose* when we mean *who's* (*who is*)

Who's there?

Not: *Whose there?*

Whose little brother is he?

Not: *Who's little brother is he?*

→ **Relative clauses 307; Questions: interrogative pronouns 303; Indirect speech: reporting questions 314b; Relative pronouns: whose 311c**

Why

383

Why is a *wh*-word. We use *why* to talk about reasons and explanations.

Why as a question word

383a

We can use *why* to ask about reasons and explanations:

***Why** did he leave home when he was 16?*

***Why** didn't you tell Gemma?*

***Why** is the Earth round?*

We can use *why* in indirect questions:

*He asked me **why** I wanted to leave the job.*

*I wonder **why** he told nobody he was getting married.*

We can use *why* on its own as a response:

A: *I'm going home now.*

B: ***Why?***

When we reply to a negative statement, we usually say *why not?*:

A: *I don't like it here.*

B: ***Why not?***

Why: asking for reasons**383b**

When we ask for reasons in speaking, we can use the phrase *why is that?* In informal conversations we often say *why's that?*:

A: *Look, the moth is attracted to the light.*

B: **Why is that?**

A: *I'm not sure.*

A: *She's not going to college this year.*

B: **Why's that?**

A: *She says she wants to travel for a while.*

We can use *why ever* or *why on earth* to add emphasis and to show shock or surprise. We usually stress *ever* and *earth*:

A: *Beth has decided to go on holiday by herself this year.*

B: **Why ever** would anyone want to go on holiday alone?

Why on earth has Julie bought me this expensive present?

In informal contexts we sometimes use *what for?* with the same meaning of asking for a reason:

A: *Ann's going to be really upset with me.*

B: **What for?**

A: *I forgot to call her back last night.*

! We don't use *why* as a conjunction when we mean *because*:

*I'm going home now **because** I'm tired.*

Not: ... ~~why~~ I'm tired.

That's why ...: giving reasons**383c**

We often use the phrase *that's why* to give a reason:

A: *Frank and Ellen have three children now.*

B: **That's why** they moved house. *They needed more space.*

A: *Ian's not been feeling well recently, has he?*

B: No. **That's why** he's taken some time off.

Why should ...: expressing annoyance**383d**

When we are annoyed about something, we sometimes use the phrase *why should*:

Why should taxpayers have to pay more because the government has not managed its spending properly?

Why should old people have to worry about health insurance?

Why should I? as a response is very direct and rude:

[A is a mother and B is a child who is opening and closing the car window]

A: *Stop doing that.*

B: **Why should I?**

Why don't and why not: making suggestions**383e**

We use *why don't* and *why not* to make suggestions:

Why don't we leave the washing-up until tomorrow morning? It's too late now.
(or *Why not leave the washing up ...*)

→ Suggestions 341

Why not?: showing agreement**383f**

We can use the phrase *why not?* as a reply which shows that we agree to a suggestion or request:

A: *How about we invite Barbara and Gina round on Saturday night?*
B: *Why not? We haven't seen them in a long time.*

Typical error

- Be careful not to use *why* instead of *because*:

*I have not placed an order for a long time **because** I am unhappy with the last delivery.*
Not: ~~I have not placed an order for a long time why I am unhappy ...~~

→ Reason ○

Will**384****Will: form****384a****Affirmative form**

Will comes first in the verb phrase in a statement (after the subject and before another verb). It is often contracted to *'ll* in informal situations:

*The next Olympic Games **will** be in London.*
I'll give you a call at about 6 o'clock.

Will cannot be used with another modal verb:

*You **will** be obliged to sign a contract before starting employment.*
Not: ~~You will must sign a contract ... or You must will sign a contract ...~~

Will can be followed by *have to* or *be able to*:

*You'll **have to** let me know when it arrives.*
*She **will be able to** live nearer her parents if she gets the job.*

→ Must and have (got) to 216c

Negative form

The negative form of *will* is *won't*. We don't use *don't*, *doesn't*, *didn't* with *will*:

*They **won't** tell us very much until January.*
Not: ~~They don't will tell us very much until January.~~

We use the full form *will not* in formal contexts or when we want to emphasise something:

*I'll carry her but I **will not** push a pram.*

→ Modality: forms 208

Question form

The subject and *will* change position to form questions. We don't use *do*, *does*, *did*:

Will you be home earlier tomorrow?

Will I be able to take this brochure home with me?

Will the number be in the phone book?

Not: ~~Does the number will be in the phone book?~~

We can use *will* and *won't* in question tags:

You won't forget to take the cake out of the oven, will you?

It'll take quite a long time to get there, won't it?

Will or 'll?

We commonly use *'ll* as the short form of *will* and *shall*. In speaking, *will* and *shall* are usually contracted to *'ll*, especially after subject pronouns (*I*, *we*, *you*, *they*, *he*, *she*, *it*):

We'll meet you outside the coffee shop. (more common in speaking than *We will meet you ...*)

However, in some contexts *'ll* is normally the only choice. In such cases, *'ll* is best not seen as a contraction of either *will* or *shall*, but as an independent form.

As an independent form, *'ll* is often used to indicate a personal decision:

There's the cinema. We'll get out here and you can park the car over there.

Not: ~~We shall/will get out ...~~

A: *Anyone want a drink?*

B: *I'll have a tomato juice, please.*

'll is also used for indicating decisions or arrangements where *will* or *shall* would sound too direct and too formal:

OK. My diary says I'm free on Wednesday. So we'll meet next Wednesday.

We'll get the train to Paris and then the Metro to the hotel. Naoe and Dave and the boys'll join us as soon as they've finished their meetings.

! A noun phrase + *'ll* is not normally acceptable in writing:

Jan's father will fetch you from the station.

Not: ~~Jan's father'll fetch you ...~~

'll is not used in a tag or a short answer:

[talking about the offer of a cheap hotel room]

A: *But you'll have to be quick. Everyone will be after it, won't they?*

B: *Yeah, they will.*

Not: ~~Yeah, they'll.~~

→Future: will and shall 138

Will: uses

384b

Certainty in the future

One of the main uses of *will* is to refer to things in the future that we think are certain:

The rooms **will** be redecorated but all the facilities **will** be the same.

A: He's still there at the moment.

B: He'll be there until the new guy starts.

[talking to a child]

Will you be 5 in September?

→Future time 210a

Making predictions

Will is used to make predictions about the future:

A: Have you decided what you are going to do with the car?

B: No. Father thinks it'll cost a lot of money to fix.

I think they'll be off in January again. (they'll be away, possibly on holiday)

Some predictions are about facts – things that we know always happen:

It's all wool. It'll shrink if you wash it in hot water.

Some predictions are about the present:

That'll be Katie shouting. (The speaker is certain. He or she makes a deduction because of what they know about the situation.)

Conditional sentences

We often use *will* (or the contracted form 'll) in the main clause of a conditional sentence when we talk about possible situations in the future:

If she gets the job, she **will** have to move to Germany.

I'll take a day off if the weather's fine next week.

→Conditionals 84

Intentions and decisions

We use *will* for immediate intentions and decisions. We usually use 'll, not *will*, after *I think*:

When I go and see Marie, I think I'll take her some flowers.

What **will** you do with that soup? **Will** you just put it in the fridge or will you freeze it?

I think I'll have some orange juice, actually.

We use *will* and *be going to* for decisions, intentions and plans. We use *will* when the decision is immediate and *be going to* when we have already made a plan:

A: It's too expensive to fly on the Friday. Look it's nearly £200. It's only £25 to fly on Thursday.

B: We'll fly on Thursday then.

A: Great. That'll save us lots of money.

We're **going to** drive to Birmingham on Friday, and Saturday morning we're **going to** drive to Edinburgh.

→Future: *will* and *going to* 134

Willingness and offers

Will is often used to express someone's willingness to do something or to make offers. It is often used with *I* in this context:

I'll show you where to go.

A: *It's just a leaflet that I've got.*

B: *Just the leaflet. Right, I'll go and get you a brochure too.*

I'll give you a lift to the hotel.

Promises

We use *will* to make promises:

I'll be there for you. Don't worry.

We'll always love you.

→Promise ①

Requests and invitations

We often make requests or invitations with *will*:

Will you pass me the salt?

This tastes good. Will you give me the recipe?

Will you come for dinner on Saturday?

Commands

We sometimes give commands or orders using *will*:

Will you be quiet, please!

Will you stop picking your nails!

It is also used to insist that someone does something:

*But you **will** have to do it. You'll have no choice.*

[parent to child]

*You **will** wear it whether you like it or not.*

→Commands and instructions 76

General truths

Will is used to describe something the speaker thinks is generally true:

[talking about making complaints at hospitals]

A: *Do you think they should try and make it easier for people to complain?*

B: *No, cos some people **will** always complain. (cos = because in informal speech)*

Habitual events

We use *will* to refer to events that happen often:

[talking about a younger sister, Celia, who doesn't eat properly; *she* refers to Celia]
Celia **will** start to get upset if she has to eat cabbage or meat like chicken breast. My mum **will** say, 'Just try it'. And *she'll* start shaking her head and going, 'No. I don't want to'. Mum **will** put it near her mouth and *she'll* start to cough.

Disapproval

Will is also used to talk about repeated behaviour which the speaker does not like or approve of. *Will* is normally stressed here:

He **will** leave his clothes all over the floor. It drives me mad. (stronger than *He leaves his clothes all over the floor.*)

Inanimate objects (things)

Will may be used to refer to inanimate objects and how they respond to humans, most typically in the negative form *won't*:

The car **won't** start.
The door **won't** open. It's stuck.

Will and shall

384c

We use *will* for all persons, but we often use *shall* with *I* and *we*. *Will* ('ll) is generally less formal than *shall* when used with *I* and *we*:

Simply complete the form and return it to me, and I **shall** personally reserve your hotel room for you.
We **shall** look at a full report from the centre.
We'll see you in the morning.

Shall also has a special legal use for talking about rules and laws. In these cases, we often use it with third-person subjects:

According to the basic principle of human rights, people **shall** not be discriminated against because of their nationality, race, age, sex, religion, occupation and social status.

Shall and *will* are both used to talk about intentions and decisions. *Shall* is more formal than *will*.

↔ Compare

<i>I'll</i> see you later. I won't be late.	informal
<i>I shall</i> see you later. I shan't be late.	formal

-  In speaking 'll is much more common than *will* and *shall*.
-  *Will* is much more common than *shall* in both speaking and writing.

→ **Would or will?** 393c

Will: typical error**384d**

- We use *will* or *'ll* to express intentions or decisions, or to make offers, not the present simple:

I'll never go to her house again.

Not: ~~I never go to her house again.~~

I'll help you with that suitcase.

Not: ~~I help you with that suitcase.~~

Wish**385****Wish + to-infinitive****385a**

When we use *wish* followed by a verb in the *to*-infinitive form, *wish* means the same as *want*, but it is more formal. We do not normally use *wish* in the continuous form when we use it with a *to*-infinitive:

I wish to speak to Mr Hennessy, please.

Not: ~~I'm wishing to speak to ...~~

We don't use a *that*-clause after *wish* when it is a more formal version of *want*:

I wish to visit you in the summer, if possible.

Not: ~~I wish (that) I visit you in the summer ...~~

We can use an object (underlined>, before the *to*-infinitive:

I did not wish my family to know about Sara, so I told them nothing.

When we use an object after *wish*, we must also use a verb in the *to*-infinitive form. Alternatively, we can say *want* or (more politely) *would like*:

We wish to have a table near the window, please. (or We would like a table near the window, please.)

Not: ~~We wish a table near the window ...~~

Wish + indirect object + direct object**385b**

We use *wish* with two objects, an indirect object + a direct object (underlined), for expressions of good wishes and hopes that good things will happen to people:

(IO = indirect object; DO = direct object)

I wish you success in your new job.

I've got my driving test tomorrow. Wish me luck!

We wish you a long and happy life together.

Wish + that-clause**385c**

We use *wish* with a *that*-clause when we regret or are sorry that things are not different. We imagine a different past or present:

*I just **wish** that everything could be as it used to be.*

In informal situations, we usually omit *that*:

*I **wish** I had his mobile phone number; we could tell him the good news.* (I don't have his mobile phone number; it would be good if I had it.)

*I **wish** you hadn't told me how the film ends. You've spoilt it for me.* (You told me how the film ends; it would have been better if you had not told me.)

Wish + verb forms in the that-clause**385d**

The verb forms we use in *that*-clauses after *wish* are similar to the verb forms in conditional clauses after *if*. We use a past verb form for present and future meanings.

↔ Compare

<i>if</i>	<i>wish</i>
<i>It would be good if we had a bigger car.</i>	<i>I wish we had a bigger car.</i>
<i>It would be good if I knew how to use this DVD player.</i>	<i>I wish I knew how to use this DVD player.</i>

When we wish something about the past, we use the past perfect after *wish*:

*I **wish** I **had known** Charlie was coming. I would have invited Jane.* (I didn't know it and did not invite Jane.)

*I **wish** I **hadn't said** that. I can see I've upset you. Sorry.* (I did say it; it would have been better if I had not said it.)

Wish + would**385e**

We can use *wish* + *would* if we are annoyed about something that is or is not happening, or about something that will or will not happen:

*I **wish** you'd stop making so much noise!* (You are making a noise; it would be better if you didn't.)

*I **wish** you **wouldn't** come through the kitchen with your dirty boots on.* (You do come through the kitchen; it would be better if you didn't.)

In informal situations, we can use *wish* in the continuous form like this:

*He's embarrassing everyone. I'm just **wishing** he would go away!*

! We use *hope*, not *wish*, when we want something to happen in the future or when we want something to have happened in the past:

*I **hope** the weather's fine tomorrow.*

Not: ~~I wish the weather's fine tomorrow.~~

*I **hope** they didn't miss their flight.*

Not: ~~I wish they didn't miss their flight.~~

With**386**

With is a preposition.

With meaning 'in the same place as'**386a**

With means 'in the same place as someone or something' or 'accompanying':

*She arrived **with** her boyfriend.*

*I don't like tea **with** milk.*

*There was a free phone **with** the car.*

With: reactions and feelings**386b**

With often follows adjectives which refer to reactions and feelings:

*Are you **happy with** your music lessons?*

*The teacher got **angry with** them because they were behaving badly.*

*I'm **delighted with** this new jacket.*

With meaning 'using'**386c**

We use *with* to refer to what we use to do something:

*They opened the package **with** a knife.*

*I'll tie it **with** some tape to keep it closed.*

*He cleaned the table **with** a cloth he found in the kitchen.*

With meaning 'having'**386d**

We use *with* to mean 'having' or 'possessing':

*It's the house **with** the really big gates.*

*She woke **with** terrible toothache.*

*The Commonwealth Institute used to be a building **with** a very unusual roof in Kensington.*

With meaning 'because of'**386e**

 We use *with* to mean 'because of' or 'as a result of'. This is especially common in speaking:

***With** all this work, I'd better stay in tonight.*

*I couldn't sleep **with** the noise of the traffic.*

With: other uses**386f**

With is used with the following words:

*She **made contact with** Marina after ten years.*

Not: She made contact Marina after ten years. or She made contact to Marina after ten years.

*He always **helped** Xavier **with** the cooking.*

Not: He always helped Xavier the cooking. or He always helped Xavier by the cooking.

The company **provide us with** a car and a uniform.

Not: The company provide us a car and a uniform.

My parents were **strict with** me when I was a child.

Not: My parents were strict to me when I was a child.

They **agree/disagree with** bullfighting. (They approve/disapprove of it)

Not: They agree/disagree to bullfighting.

She's really **good with** computers.

Not: She's really good in computers.

Communicating with new customers is important in my job.

Not: Communicating to new customers is important in my job.

We **had some difficulties with** the production of the manual.

Not: We had some difficulties to produce the manual.

! With often follows adjectives to describe feelings:

I was **disappointed with** the food.

Not: I was disappointed the food.

I'm so **bored with** this small town.

Not: I'm so bored about this small town.

! But note that *with* is not used with *married*:

Brian is **married to** Helen, isn't he?

Not: Brian is married with Helen, isn't he?

Without

387

The preposition *without* means 'not having something' or 'lacking something':

I can't drink tea **without** milk.

I found myself in a strange country, **without** money and with no one to turn to.

When *without* is followed by a singular countable noun, we use *a/an*:

Don't go out **without** a hat. It's very cold.

Not: Don't go without hat.

Without + *-ing* form can also mean 'if someone does not do something':

I couldn't get the picture out of the frame **without breaking** the glass. (if I did not break the glass)

Typical errors

- We don't omit the indefinite article *a/an* after *without* + singular countable noun:

How can you live **without** a telephone nowadays?

Not: ... without telephone ...

- We don't use *without* to mean 'apart from' or 'in addition to':

Apart from my mother tongue, I can speak two other languages.

Not: Without my mother-tongue ...

- *Without* has a negative meaning. We don't use another negative word immediately after it:
*The flight was delayed and we had to wait for five hours **without anything** to eat or drink.*
Not: ... without nothing to eat or drink.

Word classes and phrase classes **388**

Major word classes **388a**

English has four major word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. They have many thousands of members, and new nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are often created. Nouns are the most common type of word, followed by verbs. Adjectives are less common and adverbs are even less common.

Many words belong to more than one word class. For example, *book* can be used as a noun or as a verb; *fast* can be used as an adjective or an adverb:

- It's an interesting **book**.* (noun)
- We ought to **book** a holiday soon.* (verb)
- He loves **fast** cars.* (adjective)
- Don't drive so **fast**!* (adverb)

Typical word-class suffixes

A suffix can often, but not always, tell us if a word is a noun, verb, adjective or adverb:

nouns	verbs	adjectives	adverbs
<i>station</i>	<i>soften</i>	<i>drinkable</i>	<i>carefully</i>
<i>government</i>	<i>identify</i>	<i>Japanese</i>	<i>easily</i>
<i>cruelty</i>	<i>industrialise</i>	<i>useless</i>	<i>sadly</i>

A good learner's dictionary will tell you what class or classes a word belongs to.

→ **Nouns 226; Verbs 360; Adjectives 8; Adverbs 16; Suffixes 340; Word formation 389**

Other word classes **388b**

The other word classes include prepositions, pronouns, determiners, conjunctions and interjections.

Prepositions

Prepositions describe the relationship between words from the major word classes. They include words such as *at, in, on, across, behind, for*.

We went **to** the top **of** the mountain. (*to* describes the relationship between *went* and *top*; *of* describes the relationship between *top* and *mountain*)

Are you ready **for** lunch yet? (*for* describes the relationship between *ready* and *lunch*)

→ Prepositions 275

Pronouns

Pronouns are words which substitute for noun phrases, so that we do not need to say the whole noun phrase or repeat it unnecessarily. Pronouns include words such as *you, it, we, mine, ours, theirs, someone, anyone, one, this, those*:

That's Gerry in the photo. *He* lives in Barcelona.

This jacket's *mine*. *That* must be Linda's.

→ Pronouns 287

Determiners

Determiners come before nouns. They show what type of reference the noun is making. They include words such as *a/an, the, my, his, some, this, both*:

Have you got **a** ruler I can borrow?

I need **some** paper for **my** printer.

This phone isn't easy to use.

→ Determiners 98

Conjunctions

Conjunctions show a link between one word, phrase or clause and another word, phrase or clause. They include *and, but, when, if, because*:

Joe **and** Dan are brothers.

It was okay, **but** I wouldn't recommend it as a restaurant.

We'll ring you **when** we get to London.

→ Conjunctions 88

Interjections

Interjections are mostly exclamation words (e.g. *gosh! wow! oh!*), which show people's reactions to events and situations:

A: I'm giving up my job.

B: **Oh**.

Yippee! I don't have to go to work tomorrow!

Gosh! What an awful smell!

→ Interjections 179; Discourse markers 104

Phrase classes

388c

The different word classes can form the basis of phrases. When they do this, they operate as the head of the phrase. So, a noun operates as the head of a noun phrase, a verb as the head of a verb phrase, and so on. Heads of phrases (H) can have words before them (e.g. determiners (DET), adjectives (ADJ), adverbs (ADV)) or after them (e.g. postmodifiers (PM) or complements (C)):

Noun phrase (underlined)

[DET] [ADJ] [H] [PM (clause)]

That old box you left in the kitchen has got a hole in it.

Adverb phrase (underlined)

[ADJ] [H]

It all happened very suddenly.

Prepositional phrase (underlined)

[H] [C]

The President of the United States arrives tomorrow.

→ Noun phrases 234; Verb phrases 368; Adjective phrases 11; Adverb phrases 22; Prepositional phrases 276

Word formation

389

There are four main kinds of word formation: prefixes, suffixes, conversion and compounds.

Prefixes

389a

We add prefixes before the base or stem of a word.

examples	prefixes
<i>monorail, monolingual</i>	<i>mono-</i> means 'one'
<i>multipurpose, multicultural</i>	<i>multi-</i> means 'many'
<i>post-war, postgraduate</i>	<i>post-</i> means 'after'
<i>unusual, undemocratic</i>	<i>un-</i> means 'not' or 'opposite to'

→ Prefixes 274

Suffixes

389b

We add suffixes after the base or stem of a word. The main purpose of a suffix is to show what class of word it is (e.g. noun or adjective).

examples	suffixes
<i>terrorism, sexism</i>	-ism and -dom are used to form nouns
<i>employer, actor</i>	-er and -or are used to form nouns to describe people who do things
<i>widen, simplify</i>	-en and -ify are used to form verbs
<i>reasonable, unprofitable</i>	-able is used to form adjectives
<i>unhappily, naturally</i>	-ly is a common suffix used to form adverbs

→ Suffixes 340; Word classes and phrase classes 388

Conversion

389c

Conversion involves the change of a word from one word class to another. For example, the verbs *to email* and *to microwave* are formed from the nouns *email* and *microwave*:

*Can you **text** her?* (verb from noun *text*, meaning *to send a text-message*)

*They are always **jetting** somewhere.* (verb from noun *jet*)

*If you're not careful, some **downloads** can damage your computer.* (noun from verb *download*)

*OK, so the meeting's on Tuesday. That's a **definite**.* (noun from adjective)

*It's a very big **if** and I'm not at all sure we can afford it.* (noun from conjunction, meaning 'it's not at all certain')

*All companies have their **ups** and **downs**.* (nouns from prepositions)

We also use conversion when we change a proper noun into a common noun:

*Has anybody seen my **Dickens**?* (copy of a book by Dickens)

Compounding

389d

When we use compounding, we link together two or more bases to create a new word. Normally, the first item identifies a key feature of the second word. For example, the two bases *back* and *ache* can combine to form the compound noun *backache*, and the two bases *post* and *card* combine to form the compound noun *postcard*.

Compounds are found in all word classes. The most common types of compounds are:

Nouns: *car park, rock band*

Adjectives: *heartbreaking, sugar-free, airsick*

Verbs: *oven-bake, baby-sit, chain-smoke*

Adverbs: *good-naturedly, nevertheless*

It is sometimes difficult to know where to put hyphens in words that are compounded. It is also difficult to know whether to separate words (e.g. *post box*) or to join the words (e.g. *postbox*). In such cases, it is best to check in a good learner's dictionary.

→ Compounds 83; Compound adjectives 83a; Compound nouns 83a; Hyphens 167; Verbs: formation 362

Abbreviation 389e

Abbreviation involves shortening a word. We do this in three main ways: clipping, acronyms and blends.

We use clipping when we shorten or 'clip' one or more syllables from a word. We also commonly clip proper names for people:

ad: advertisement, advert

lab: laboratory

Matt: Matthew

Acronyms are a type of abbreviation formed when the initial letters of two or more words are combined in a way that produces consonant and vowel sequences found in words. Acronyms are normally pronounced as words:

RAM: random access memory (RAM is a term used to describe a computer's memory.)

Initials are similar to acronyms but are pronounced as sets of letters, not as words:

WHO: World Health Organisation, pronounced W-H-O

CD: compact disc, pronounced C-D

We form blends when we combine parts of existing words to form a new word:

blog: blend of *web* and *log*

motel: blend of *motor* and *hotel*

smog: blend of *smoke* and *fog*

→ Abbreviations, initials and acronyms ○

Back-formation 389f

We form words with back-formation when we remove part of a word, usually something which we think is a suffix (or occasionally a prefix). We do this commonly when we form verbs from nouns.

For example: *to liaise* (back-formed from the noun *liaison*); *to intuit* (back-formed from the noun *intuition*), *to enthuse* (back-formed from the noun *enthusiasm*):

Can you liaise with Tim and agree a time for the meeting, please?

She's always enthusing about her new teacher.

Loan words and new words 389g

Loan words

Loan words are words that are borrowed from other languages. Some recent loan words for food taken from other languages include: *sushi*, *tapas*, *chapatti*, *pizza*. When we use loan words, we do not normally change them, though we do sometimes inflect them if they are singular countable nouns (*pizzas*, *chapattis*). We also sometimes pronounce them more like English words, instead of using their original pronunciation.

New words

Some prefixes are commonly used to create new words. In modern English the prefix *e-* is used to create new words that are connected with the Internet and the use of the Internet: *e-bank*, *e-cards*, *e-commerce*, *e-learning*

Almost any noun may potentially combine with any other noun to form new noun compounds (e.g. *computer virus*, *carbon footprint*, *quality time*).

Word order and focus

390

There are a number of ways in which we can arrange subjects, verbs, objects, complements and adjuncts within a clause. Depending on how we arrange them, we can focus on certain elements over others, especially if we arrange them in an unusual way.

Typical word order

Typical word order is what we normally expect. The active voice is generally the typical word order, where we put the subject (the topic or the theme) first. The subject is the 'doer' or agent of the verb and this is usually what is already known (underlined). This is followed by new information (in **bold**):

The box **was wrapped in gold paper.**

The rain **lasted all day.**

Her mother **comes to visit about three times a year.**

Most houses **have at least one television nowadays.**

Untypical word order

In a declarative clause, we expect the order to be subject – verb – object (SVO):

[s] [v] [o]

Kelly loved the film.

Sometimes, in order to emphasise a particular part of the clause, we can change the typical order. An untypical word order in a declarative clause, for example, is object – subject – verb (OSV).

For example, speaker B puts the object (*the kitchen*) first, to link with A's question:

A: *Have you decided what colour to paint the kitchen yet?*

[o] [s] [v]

B: ***The kitchen*** *we've already painted. We decided on white for now. We still can't decide on the colour for the living room.*

Especially in speaking, we sometimes change the typical order and use untypical word order as a way of focusing on or emphasising something.

Word order: simple choices

A simple way in which we can change the focus of a clause is to rearrange the elements (subjects, verbs, objects, complements and adjuncts) without making any other grammatical changes. Fronting is one example of this kind of change; headers and tails is another.

Fronting

We can create a focus on objects, complements and adjuncts by moving them to front position in the clause, where the subject normally is. This is then an untypical order and we call it *fronting*.

Object fronting

***That car** we bought at least five years ago. **The other one** we only bought last year.*
(By fronting the objects (*that car* and *the other one*) we focus on them and the contrast between them.)

Adjunct fronting

***Last thing at night**, I'll go around the house and check that all the doors and windows are locked.* (By fronting the adjunct (*last thing at night*), we emphasise that it is done last thing every night.)

→Fronting 133

Headers and tails

 In speaking, we can create focus and emphasis by using headers and tails. This means that we move elements of the clause to positions outside the clause, either by putting them immediately before the clause (header) or immediately after it (tail). We usually use a pronoun (underlined>

In formal contexts, we sometimes put prepositional complements in front position so as to bring focus to the new information given in the direct object:

[pc] [do = focus]

*For his wife, he wrote **a beautiful poem**.*

! We don't normally put indirect objects in front position:

He passed Williams the ball.

Not: ~~Williams he passed the ball.~~

→ Complements 82

Active and passive voice

391b

Active voice is the typical word order. That is when we put the subject (the doer) first, followed by the new information (which is the focus):

Lesley has written four successful novels.

If we use the passive voice, we can often omit who the doer is:

The cake was cut. (no doer)

Or we can place the doer in a prepositional phrase after the verb. When we do this, we focus on the doer:

*The music was played **by a local quartet**. (doer in prepositional phrase after the verb)*

*The hotel was run **by a quaint couple from Wales**.*

→ Passive: active and passive 257a

Cleft sentences

391c

Cleft means 'divided' and in a cleft sentence a single message is divided across two clauses. We use cleft sentences, especially in speaking, to connect what is already understood to what is new to the listener. By doing this we can focus on the new information. There are different types of cleft sentence.

It-cleft sentences

In these sentences, the focus is on the *it*-clause and this is where we put the new information (underlined below). We use *that* to connect another clause containing information which is already understood by the listener:

A: *Did you find your MP3 player, Lisa?*

B: ***It** was my phone that I'd lost. I found it under the couch. (Focus: it was my phone (not my MP3 player). Already understood: I'd lost something.)*

Wh-cleft sentences

Wh-cleft sentences are introduced by a *wh*-word, usually *what*. The old information is in the *wh*-clause and the new information (underlined) is at the end:

***What** I love about you is your sense of humour.*

***Where** you'll find great seafood is Molly's Seafood Restaurant on the quay.*

→ Cleft sentences 72

The thing, the one thing, something**391d****The thing**

We can use *the thing* in front position plus a form of the verb *be* to bring attention to an item in the clause. It means the same as *what* plus *be*, but it is more informal (the focus in each sentence is underlined below):

The thing I like most about Italy is the food. (or *What I like most about Italy is the food.*)

We can use a singular verb even if the item we focus on is plural:

The thing I like most about Scotland is the castles.

When we focus on a *that*-clause, we can omit *that* in informal situations:

The thing you need to remember is (that) all of the files from before 2008 are stored in Shona's office.

When we focus on an infinitive clause, we can omit *to* in informal situations:

The thing I didn't want to do was (to) queue all day just for a ticket, so I booked it online.

One thing, the one thing

We can emphasise *thing* with *one*. *The one thing* is even stronger:

*You'll meet a lot people when you're travelling but **one thing** you must never do is give your address to a complete stranger.*

*The one thing I should never have done **was** trust Marlene.*

Something

We can use *something* in front position plus a form of the verb *be* to bring attention to an item in the clause (underlined). It is less specific and less direct than using *the thing*, and means 'one thing among others':

Something I mustn't forget is my umbrella. (or *What I mustn't forget is my umbrella.*)

*Something you need to know **is** that Kate is not very well at the moment.*

→ *Thing and stuff* 348; *Headers and tails* 159

It to create focus**391e**

When we use *it* at the beginning of a clause, the subject can go at the end of the clause and therefore be in the position of focus or emphasis (underlined):

It's great to know that you have passed all of your exams.

It was ridiculous paying for two houses.

To create extra focus on time adjuncts (*yesterday, in the morning, at 4 am*), we can front them using phrases such as *it is/was not until, it is/was only when*. In the case of *not until*, the negative verb comes in the *until*-clause, not the main clause:

It wasn't until the bill came yesterday that we realised what an expensive hotel it was. (Compare: *Until the bill came yesterday, we didn't realise what an expensive hotel it was.*)

It was only when I woke at 8 am, that I realised the alarm hadn't gone off!
(Compare: *When I woke at 8 am, I realised the alarm hadn't gone off.*)

There to create focus

391f

We can use *there* at the start of a clause as a type of indefinite subject. This means that we can put the actual subject at the end of the clause and so give it emphasis or focus (underlined below):

There was a strange smell coming from the room. (Compare: *A strange smell was coming from the room.*)

There are many people willing to travel to the concert. (Compare: *Many people are willing to travel to the concert.*)

Noun forms of verbs to create focus

391g

In formal writing, especially academic writing, we can use a noun form of a verb as a subject. By doing this, extra focus is given to the end of the clause. Noun phrase subjects (topics) are in bold type below; the focus of each sentence is underlined:

The discovery of oil brought immense wealth to the country. (Compare: *Oil was discovered and this brought immense wealth to the country.*)

His emergence as a leader came about after the strikes of the 1980s. (Compare: *He emerged as a leader (and this came about) after the strikes of the 1980s.*)

Work (noun)

392

Work as an uncountable noun

392a

Work is an uncountable noun when it means something we do that takes an effort, often as part of a job or for study:

*Hard **work** is good for you. It keeps you fit.* (work as a physical activity)

*I'm not going out tonight. I've got a lot of **work** to do. We've got exams next week.* (work as study)

! We don't use *work* with the indefinite article (*a*) or in the plural. The word for a specific occupation or task is *job*, which is a countable noun:

*They offered me **a job** in Helsinki, but Finland is a long way from home.*

Not: *They offered me a work ...*

*We always have a lot of **jobs** to do round the house at weekends, like cleaning, washing clothes, gardening, and so on.*

Not: *... a lot of works to do ...*

At work

We can say that someone is *at work* when they are at the place where they work and are doing their job:

*Can I ring you back later? I'm **at work** at the moment and I can't really talk privately.*

Work as a countable noun

392b

Work as a countable noun means something created, especially a book or painting or piece of music or sculpture:

*She bought me the complete **works** of Shakespeare for my birthday.*

*Several **works** of art were stolen from the town museum yesterday.*

*The statue is **a** beautiful new **work** by the Swedish sculptor Lars Ahlander.*

Would

393

Would: form

393a

Affirmative form

Would comes first in the verb phrase (after the subject and before another verb):

*Dad **would sing** to us every evening.*

Would cannot be used with another modal verb:

*When Tracy opened the door, she thought she **would** find an empty room.*

Not: ... she thought she would might find an empty room. or ... she thought she might would find an empty room.

Negative form

The negative form of *would* is *wouldn't*. We don't use *don't*, *doesn't*, *didn't* with *would*:

*There **wouldn't** be any food in the house.*

Not: ~~There didn't would be any food in the house.~~

We use the full form *would not* in formal contexts or when we want to emphasise something:

*Your father **would not** approve.*

→ Modal verbs 209b

Question form

The subject and *would* change position to form questions. We don't use *do*, *does*, *did*:

***Would** that be a good idea?*

Not: ~~Does this would that be a good idea?~~

***Wouldn't** that be a good idea?*

We can use *would* and *wouldn't* in question tags:

*She wouldn't be any help, **would** she?*

*They would enjoy that, **wouldn't** they?*

Would: uses**393b****Requests**

We often use *would* to make requests. It is a more polite and indirect form of *will*.

↔ Compare

<i>Will you make dinner?</i>	direct
<i>Would you make dinner?</i>	less direct

→ Would or will? 393c**Conditional sentences**

We often use *would* (or the contracted form *'d*) in the main clause of a conditional sentence when we talk about imagined situations:

*If we had left earlier, we **would** have been able to stop off for a coffee on the way.*

If we went to Chile, we'd have to go to Argentina as well. I'd love to see both.

→ Conditionals 84**Habitual actions in the past**

We use *would* to refer to typical habitual actions and events in the past. This is usually a formal use and it often occurs in stories (narratives):

*I had a friend from Albany, which is about 36 miles away, and we **would** meet every Thursday morning and she **would** help us.*

*Then he **would** wash; then he **would** eat his toast; then he **would** read his paper by the bright burning fire of electric coals.*

! We can't use *would* in this way to talk about states. In these cases, we say *used to* instead of *would*:

*I **used to** live in Melbourne when I was a kid.*

Not: *I ~~would~~ live in Melbourne when I was a kid.*

→ Used to 357**Talking about the future in the past**

We use *would* to talk about the future in the past. The speaker looks forward in time from a point in the past (underlined below):

*When I was young I thought that in years to come I **would** be really tall.*

*When I broke my leg, I thought I **would** never dance again.*

Reported clauses

We use *would* as the past form of *will* in reported clauses.

statement with <i>will</i>	reported
<i>I'll pay for the food,' said Tom.</i>	<i>Tom said that he would pay for the food.</i>
<i>Weather forecast: There will be clear skies in the morning but it will be cloudy for the afternoon.</i>	<i>The weather forecast said that there would be clear skies in the morning but that it would be cloudy for the afternoon.</i>

→ **Would or will? 393c; Reported speech 312**

Willingness in the past

We use *would* to talk about willingness in past time situations. We usually use the negative form *wouldn't* in this case:

*The CD wasn't working so I brought it back to the shop but they **wouldn't** give me my money back because they said the box had already been opened.*

Being less direct

We often use *would* with verbs such as *advise*, *imagine*, *recommend*, *say*, *suggest*, *think* to make what we say less direct.

<i>advise</i>	<i>I'd advise you to keep working on your grammar.</i>
<i>imagine</i>	<i>I'd imagine it can't be easy for you.</i>
<i>recommend</i>	<i>I'd recommend that you try this size. (formal)</i>
<i>say</i>	<i>I'd say you are about 40.</i>
<i>suggest</i>	<i>We'd suggest that you take this route. It's more scenic. (formal)</i>
<i>think</i>	<i>It's much further than Dublin, I would think.</i>

Would or will? 393c

We can use *would* as a more formal or polite alternative to *will* in requests. We often use the phrase *would you mind* + *-ing* in polite requests.

↔ **Compare**

<i>Will you give me a wake-up call at 7 am, please?</i>	<i>Would you mind giving me a wake-up call at 7 am, please?</i>
<i>Will you excuse me just one second?</i>	<i>Would you excuse me just one second?</i>
	Using <i>would</i> makes the request more formal and polite.

Will and *would* can both refer to willingness. We use *will* for present and future time and *would*, usually in the negative, for past time:

John **will** carry your suitcase. It's far too heavy for you. (present)

The taxi driver **wouldn't** take more than four in the car. (past)

! There are a number of phrases with *would* where *will* cannot be used:

Would you like your steak well cooked?

Not: Will you like your steak well-cooked?

Would you mind introducing me to him?

Not: Will you mind introducing me to him?

Would you rather pay by credit card?

Not: Will you rather pay by credit card?

→ **Mind** ○

Would like

394

We use *would like* or *'d like* to say politely what we want, especially when making offers and requests:

Would you like a biscuit with your coffee?

Can you order for Ellie? She **'d like** the Margarita pizza, please.

Verbs that follow *would like* are in the *to*-infinitive form:

Would you like to listen to that again?

I'd like to get a return ticket for tomorrow.

We use *Do you like ...?* to ask about preferences in general. We don't use *Do you like ...?* to make offers or requests.

↔ **Compare**

<i>Do you like rice?</i>	<i>Would you like some rice?</i>	<i>Do you like dancing?</i>	<i>Would you like to dance?</i>
asks about likes and dislikes in general	offers some rice	asks about likes and dislikes in general	invites you to dance

Would like to have + -ed form

We use *would like to have* + *-ed* form when talking about things in the past that we have missed:

I'd like to have watched the football but I *had to go out*. (I wanted to watch the football, but I didn't.)

I'd like to

We can use *I'd like to* as a short answer to an offer or invitation:

A: You **must have dinner with us**.

B: Yes, **I'd like to**.

A: Good. Is Sunday night any good?

→ **Hate, like, love and prefer** ○; **Like** 194

Would rather, would sooner**395****Would rather****395a**

We use *would rather* or *'d rather* to talk about preferring one thing to another. *Would rather* has two different constructions. (The subjects are underlined in the examples.)

↔ Compare

same subject (+ base form)	different subject (+ past simple clause)
<i><u>I'd</u> rather stay at home than go out tonight.</i>	<i><u>I'd</u> rather <u>you</u> stayed at home tonight.</i>
<i><u>I'd</u> rather not go out tonight.</i>	<i><u>I'd</u> rather <u>you</u> didn't go out tonight</i>

In negative sentences with a different subject, the negative comes on the clause that follows, not on *would rather*:

*She'd rather you **didn't** phone after 10 o'clock.*

Not: *She wouldn't rather you phoned after 10 o'clock.*

Same subject

When the subject is the same person in both clauses, we use *would rather (not)* followed by the base form of the verb:

We'd rather go on Monday.

Not: *We'd rather to go ...* or *We'd rather going ...*

*More than half the people questioned **would rather have** a shorter summer break and more holidays at other times.*

I'd rather not fly. I hate planes.

When we want to refer to the past we use *would rather + have + -ed* form (perfect infinitive without *to*):

*She **would rather have spent** the money on a holiday.* (The money wasn't spent on a holiday.)

I'd rather have seen it at the cinema than on DVD. (I saw the film on DVD.)

Different subjects

When the subjects of the two clauses are different, we often use the past simple to talk about the present or future, and the past perfect to talk about the past:

*I **would rather** they **did** something about it instead of just talking about it.* (past simple to talk about the present or future)

***Would** you rather I **wasn't** honest with you?* (past simple to talk about the present or future)

Not: *Would you rather I'm not honest with you? or ... I won't be honest with you?*

*I'd rather you **hadn't rung** me at work.* (past perfect to talk about the past)

Much rather

We can use *much* with *would rather* to make the preference stronger. In speaking, we stress *much*:

*I'd **much rather** make a phone call than send an email.*

*She'd **much rather** they didn't know about what had happened.*

Short responses: I'd rather not

We often use *I'd rather not* as a short response to say *no* to a suggestion or request:

A: *Do you want to go for a coffee?*

B: *I'd **rather not**, if you don't mind.*

Would sooner, would just as soon

395b

We use the phrases *would sooner* and *would just as soon* when we say that we prefer one thing to another thing. They mean approximately the same as *would rather*:

*I don't really want to go back to France again this year. I'd **sooner** go to Spain.*

*Thanks for the invitation, but, if you don't mind, we'd **just as soon** stay at home and watch it all on TV.*

Would sooner is more common than *would just as soon*. However, *would rather* is more common than both of these phrases.

→ *Would rather* 395a

Would rather, would sooner: typical errors

395c

- We don't use *would rather* or *would sooner* with an *-ing* form or a *to*-infinitive:

*I don't need a lift, thanks. I'd **rather** walk.*

Not: ~~I'd rather to walk.~~ or ~~I'd rather walking.~~

- When we use *not* referring to a different subject, we attach *not* to the second clause, not to *would rather* or *would sooner*:

*I'd rather they **didn't** tell anyone*

Not: ~~I'd rather not they told anyone.~~

→ *Rather* ○

Yet

396

Yet is an adverb or conjunction.

Yet as an adverb

396a

We use *yet* as an adverb to refer to a time which starts in the past and continues up to the present. We use it mostly in negative statements or questions in the present perfect. It usually comes in end position:

*Kevin hasn't registered for class **yet**.*

*I haven't finished my breakfast **yet**.*

*Has she emailed you **yet**?*

! We don't use *yet* to refer to something that has happened. We use *already*:

*She's booked the flights **already**.*

Not: *She's booked the flights **yet**.*

We don't use *yet* to talk about events that are continuing:

*Elizabeth is **still** living in Manchester. She's not moving to London till next month.*

Not: *Elizabeth is living **yet** ...* or *Elizabeth is **yet** living ...*

Yet with negative statements

When we use *yet* in negative statements, it shows that an event is expected to happen in the future:

*Jason hasn't phoned **yet**. (I am expecting him to phone.)*

*I haven't seen 'Who Framed Roger Rabbit' **yet**. (I am expecting to see this film.)*

Yet with questions

When we use *yet* in an affirmative question, it shows that the speaker is expecting something to happen:

*Is he home **yet**? (I expect that he will be home at some point.)*

*Has your passport arrived **yet**? (I expect that your passport will arrive in the post.)*

Negative questions with *yet* can express an even stronger expectation that something will happen. When we ask this type of question, we expect a negative answer:

*Hasn't Richard arrived **yet**? (I strongly expect that he should have arrived.)*

*Haven't you done your driving test **yet**? (I feel you should have done your driving test by now.)*

Yet with affirmative statements

When we use *yet* in affirmative statements, it shows that a situation is continuing, even when we might expect it not to continue:

*There's plenty of time **yet**. (even though you don't think so)*

*We've got a lot more work to do **yet**. (even though you think we have finished)*

Yet with superlatives

We often use *yet* after superlatives:

*His latest film is his best **yet**.* (The film is the best one he has made up to now.)

*Two hours and 15 minutes – that's Jones's fastest marathon **yet**!*

Yet as a conjunction

396b

Yet as a conjunction means 'but' or 'nevertheless'. We use it to show contrast. It often occurs after *and*:

*So many questions **and yet** so few answers.*

*It felt strange **and yet** so wonderful to ski in the summer!*

Yet for emphasis

396c

We use *yet* for emphasis, with a meaning similar to 'even', especially before *more*, *another* and *again*:

*The cook arrived with **yet another** plate of cake.*

*The printer's broken down **yet again**!* (It has broken down many times before.)

As yet

396d

As yet means 'up to now, but the situation will definitely change'. We only use it in negative contexts:

*The film shows you the most typical places, **as yet** untouched by tourism, and how to get there.*

Have yet to and be yet to

396e

We use *have yet to* and *be yet to* in more formal contexts. We use them to refer to events which are necessary or which must happen at some time, but which have not happened at the time of speaking:

*The price of the tickets for the concert **has yet to be decided**.* (The price will be decided.)

*The President and her husband **are yet to arrive**.* (The President and her husband will arrive.)

→ *Already* 30; *Already, still or yet?* 31; *Still* 331

Table of irregular verbs

397

Note that *be* has several irregular forms:

Present: (*I am, (she, he, it) is, (you, we, they) are*)

Past: (*I, she, he, it) was, (you, we, they) were*)

-ed form: *been*

base form	past simple	<i>-ed</i>	base form	past simple	<i>-ed</i>
beat	beat	beaten	get	got	got
become	became	become	give	gave	given
begin	began	begun	go	went	gone
bend	bent	bent	grow	grew	grown
bet	bet	bet	have	had	had
bite	bit	bitten	hear	heard	heard
bleed	bled	bled	hide	hid	hidden
blow	blew	blown	hit	hit	hit
break	broke	broken	hold	held	held
breed	bred	bred	hurt	hurt	hurt
bring	brought	brought	keep	kept	kept
build	built	built	know	knew	known
burn	burnt/ burned	burnt/ burned	lay	laid	laid
buy	bought	bought	lead	led	led
catch	caught	caught	lean	leant/leaned	leant/leaned
choose	chose	chosen	leave	left	left
come	came	come	lend	lent	lent
cost	cost	cost	let	let	let
cut	cut	cut	lose	lost	lost
do	did	done	make	made	made
dig	dug	dug	mean	meant	meant
draw	drew	drawn	meet	met	met
dream	dreamt/ dreamed	dreamt/ dreamed	pay	paid	paid
drink	drank	drunk	put	put	put
drive	drove	driven	quit	quit	quit
eat	ate	eaten	read /ri:d/	read /red/	read /red/
fall	fell	fallen	ride	rode	ridden
feed	fed	fed	ring	rang	rung
feel	felt	felt	rise	rose	risen
fight	fought	fought	run	ran	run
find	found	found	say	said	said
fly	flew	flown	see	saw	seen
forget	forgot	forgotten	sell	sold	sold
forgive	forgave	forgiven	send	sent	sent
freeze	froze	frozen	set	set	set
			shake	shook	shaken
			shine	shone	shone

base form	past simple	-ed
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
speak	spoke	spoken
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt/spilled	spilt/spilled
spread	spread	spread
speed	sped	sped
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck

base form	past simple	-ed
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

Glossary

Active →Voice

Adjective One of the four main word classes in English. Adjectives describe the qualities of people and things. Words like *poor*, *blue*, *interesting* are adjectives.

An attributive adjective comes before a noun: *the red box*. A predicative adjective occurs after a verb: *the student is intelligent*. A gradable adjective is a word like *young* which can be modified (*very young*). An ungradable adjective is a word like *married* which cannot normally be modified (you are either married or not). An adjective phrase (underlined) is a phrase with an adjective as its head word: *It was a very strange feeling going back to China*.

Adjunct →Linking adjunct A phrase which adds extra meaning but is not necessary to the structure of the clause. We can put an adjunct in different positions. It can be an adverb, an adverb phrase, a prepositional phrase, or, less frequently, a noun phrase:

[prep phrase] [adverb]

In the winter we often go skiing.

Adverb →Degree adverb One of the four main word classes in English. An adverb indicates the time, place, manner, degree or frequency of an event or action. Adverbs have many different functions and can have different positions in a clause: *Unfortunately, the company has closed*.

Adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs (*extremely short*, *very angrily*). An adverb phrase (underlined) is a phrase with an adverb as its head word: *The meeting did not go well and they began to react to all the questions very angrily*.

Adverbial Describes any word or phrase that behaves like an adverb.

Adverb phrase →Adverb

Affirmative clause →Clause A declarative clause, not a question, with a positive meaning. Affirmative is the opposite of negative.

Agreement Means that a singular subject takes a singular verb and a plural subject takes a plural verb. Agreement is also called concord.

Anticipatory structure →Dummy it; Existential there Structure that uses *it* or phrases with *it* to refer forward. The structure places the main focus of meaning at the end of a clause: *It surprises me how hard-working the students have been*. (anticipatory *it* enables the end-focus to be placed on the subject)

Antonym (oppositeness) Refers to common gradable adjectives which occur as pairs of opposites. The term 'oppositeness' is also sometimes used to describe such words: *fat-thin*, *heavy-light*, *hot-cold*, *big-small*.

Apposition Refers to two elements, normally noun phrases, placed side by side, so that one word or phrase defines or modifies the other: *Jill Parsons, a thirty-three-year-old economist, became the Chief Executive in 2005.*

Article The definite article is *the*. We commonly use it to refer to things which are known or can be identified: *Turn left by **the** supermarket.* The indefinite article is *a/an*. We commonly use it to refer to things which are not definite or specific: *I need to buy **a** good dictionary.*

Aspect One of the choices in verb phrases which can express, for example, whether an action is finished or still continuing, temporary or permanent: *I've **read** the book; He **is eating** lunch.* Aspects in English are simple versus continuous and perfect versus non-perfect.

Attributive → **Adjective**

Auxiliary verbs → **Modal verb** The verbs *be*, *do* and *have*. We use them with other verbs. We use them to show grammatical contrasts: ***Is** she going to church this week or **did** she go last week?*

Base form The part of a word to which prefixes, suffixes and endings showing tense, number, etc. are added. In the word *kindness*, the suffix *-ness* is added to the base form *kind*. The base form of a verb (also called 'stem') is the part of the verb to which suffixes are added. *Shout* is the base to which *-ed* is added to form *shouted*.

Blend A blend joins the shortened forms of two words together: **smog** (blend of *smoke* and *fog*); **brunch** (blend of *breakfast* and *lunch*).

Clause → **Relative clause** Part of a sentence. Typically, a clause consists of a subject and a verb. The basic types of clause are declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative. A main clause is a finite clause which can form a sentence on its own. Main clauses which are joined together with a coordinating conjunction such as *and* or *but* are called coordinate clauses: *We decided to take the dog for a walk **and** offered to take Jack's dog with us.* A main clause is sometimes called an independent clause. A subordinate clause cannot form a sentence on its own. Subordinate clauses (also called dependent clauses) are dependent on main clauses. A main clause and a subordinate clause are commonly joined together with a subordinating conjunction such as *although*, *because* and *when*: *We decided to take the dog for a walk, **although** it was raining.* Conditional clauses are subordinate clauses and are commonly introduced by the word *if*: ***If** you give me the money, I'll go and book the tickets.* Subordinate clauses can also be non-finite: ***Entering the room last**, she was watching how they all behaved towards her.*

Cleft construction → **Dummy it**; **Fronting** Used to focus on a particular topic. Cleft constructions are commonly formed with dummy *it* and *wh*-structures: ***It's** London they want to visit. **What I want** is something to drink.*

Clipping A shortened word with one or more syllables omitted or 'clipped': *ad* (advertisement, advert), *exam* (examination). Proper names for people are commonly clipped: *Liz* (Elizabeth), *Pat* (Patrick, Patricia).

Collective noun →Noun**Common noun →Noun**

Comparative A comparative adjective or adverb is formed with *-er* (*slower*) or with *more* (*more slowly*, *more attractive*).

Complement A phrase or clause that completes the meaning of other words. The verb *put* normally requires an object (in bold) and a prepositional phrase (underlined) that shows where something is: *They have put **the milk** in the fridge*. A subject complement normally follows linking verbs such as *be*, *become*, *look*, *sound* and 'completes' the subject (underlined) of the sentence: A: *Shall we go swimming?* B: *That sounds **a good idea***. A predicative adjective complement refers to an adjective which completes the meaning of a linking verb: *I am **sure***.

Complex verb phrase A phrase that combines different elements with a main verb. It commonly includes one modal verb and one or more auxiliary verbs before the main verb:

<i>I do like old films.</i>	(auxiliary + main verb)
<i>We've discussed her new job.</i>	(auxiliary + main verb)
<i>I might be playing tennis later.</i>	(modal + auxiliary + main verb)

Conditionals →Clause Words that commonly introduce conditions, preferences and desires: *if*, *provided that*, *I'd rather*, *we wish*.

Conditional clause →Clause

Conjunction →Clause A conjunction links words, phrases, clauses and sentences. The two main types are coordinating (words such as *and* and *but*) and subordinating. Subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *because*, *if*, *when*, *in order to*) link a subordinate clause to a main clause. Another term for subordinating conjunction is subordinator. Temporal subordinating conjunctions are words such as *when*, *while*, *before*, *after*, *until*, *once*, *as soon as*.

Coordinating conjunction →Conjunction**Copy tag →Question tag**

Corpus A large and principled collection of written text or transcribed speech which is stored and processed by computer so that it can serve as a basis for linguistic analysis and description.

Declarative →Clause There are two types of declarative clause, affirmative and negative. They are not questions.

Defining and non-defining relative clause →Relative clause

Definite and indefinite →Article A definite pronoun is a pronoun which has a definite meaning, e.g. *this*, *that*, *him*, *me*: *I don't think we have enough of **that***. An indefinite pronoun is a pronoun which does not refer to a specific person, place or thing, e.g. *anybody*, *nobody*, *somewhere*: *Would **anybody** like my ticket?* Demonstrative

pronouns belong to the group of definite pronouns and are the pronouns *this, that, these, those*.

Degree adverb A degree adverb (or adverb of degree) modifies the degree of an event, action or process: *a little, completely, fairly, in a way, rather, utterly, very*. Degree adverbs can modify nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

Demonstrative → **Pronoun**

Dependent clause → **Clause**

Determiner Specifies the kind of reference a noun has. Common determiners are: *the, those, my, her, both, all, several, no*. We use the term 'zero determiner' to refer to phrases where no determiner is used: *eat vegetables*.

Direct and indirect speech → **Reporting verb** Direct speech refers to the exact words a speaker has said. Indirect speech reconstructs the content of what a speaker says rather than repeating the exact words.

Direct object → **Object**

Discourse marker A word, phrase or clause which organises or comments on what we are saying, for example *right, well, so, I mean, at the end of the day*: *So, let's decide where we are eating tonight*. (marking a conclusion to previous discussion).

Downtoner → **Intensifier; Hedges/hedging** Has a softening effect. Adverbs such as *a bit, partially, hardly, barely, slightly* are commonly used as downtoners: *We were a bit tired when we finally reached the hotel*.

Dummy it → **Anticipatory structure; Existential there; Cleft construction** An empty pronoun. Dummy *it* does not refer to any specific object or entity but refers to general situations:

<i>It's very hot today, isn't it?</i>	(dummy <i>it</i> as reference to weather)
<i>It's getting late.</i>	(dummy <i>it</i> as reference to time or situation)

-ed form → **Participle**

End position → **Position**

Ellipsis Used when we omit words or phrases which can be understood from the context (textual ellipsis): *She went to the party and danced all night*. (*she* is ellipted in the second clause). Ellipsis is also used in informal speaking and writing when speakers share knowledge of what is referred to or when it is obvious in the situation (situational ellipsis): *Do you want some?* (speakers are referring to coffee that they can both see).

Exclamative/exclamation A phrase or clause that normally conveys strong feelings and impressions. Exclamatives commonly have the structure *how* or *what* + adjective or noun phrase: *What a shame! How elegant she is!* or *how* or *what* + adverb + subject + verb: *But how fantastically they played!*

Existential there → **Dummy it; Anticipatory structure** Introduces a clause about the existence of something. *There* is used as the subject of a clause: *There were a lot of cars on the motorway. There's something I want to talk to you about*.

Finite and non-finite A finite clause is a clause that has a modal verb or a main verb marked for tense. A non-finite clause (underlined) contains a verb that is not marked for tense and does not include a modal verb: *I waited for them.* (finite clause) *Born in Delhi, she grew up in Dubai.* (non-finite clause).

Focus →Fronting; Header; Tail; Cleft construction Enables us to place emphasis on particular elements of a clause. It introduces new topics and distinguishes between new and old information: *He's very tall, **that** actor.* (the tail gives extra focus to the subject *he*).

Fronting →Focus Refers to words and phrases that are moved to the beginning of a clause in order to give them special emphasis or focus.

Front position →Position

Future →Future continuous; Future perfect We use several different ways to talk about the future. The most common are:

*They're **going to** build a new shopping centre here.* (be going to + base form of the main verb)

*I think they **will** have to make a decision soon.* (modal verb *will*)

*Louise **is running** a marathon in New York next month.* (present continuous)

*Siva **arrives** in about half-an-hour from now.* (present simple)

It is also possible to refer to the future with other expressions such as *be about to* and *be to*.

Future continuous Formed with *will/shall + be + -ing* form of the main verb: *I'll **be working** eight hours a day for the next month.*

Future perfect Formed with *will/shall + have + -ed* form: *Do you think the film **will have started**?*

Gender Refers to different forms that show whether something is masculine, feminine or neuter: *he, she, it.*

Gradable →Adjective

Head →Adjective; Adverb; Noun The obligatory word in a phrase. Noun phrases have a noun as head; adjective phrases have an adjective as head.

Header Headers help a listener follow what is said. Headers commonly involve a noun or noun phrase at the front of an utterance, followed by a pronoun: ***That shop on the corner, it's** the best place for his present, isn't it?*

Hedge/hedging →Downtoner Words and phrases used by a speaker or writer in order not to sound too certain or too direct, e.g. *sort of, kind of, possibly, actually, arguably, generally*: *The film was, well, **sort of** interesting. He is **arguably** the best golfer in the world at the moment.*

Historic present The use of the present simple and present continuous forms for past reference, particularly in narratives, stories or jokes, to dramatise important events:

*The old man came up to us and started to stroke our dog. And he's looking at him and suddenly he **touches** him very gently and **says** ...*

Hyphen A dash between words: *post-box*; *mother-in-law*.

Imperative (clause) A type of clause that we use to give commands and instructions: *Join the queue here please*; **Fetch** me the towel quickly.

Indefinite → **Definite**

Independent clause → **Clause**

Indirect speech → **Direct and indirect speech**

Indirect object → **Object**

Infinitive (with *to* and without *to*) The base form of the verb, which can occur with *to* or without *to*. An infinitive clause is a non-finite clause: *I think it's time for us **to complain** about the situation. Let me **explain** what I mean.*

-ing form → **Participle**

Interjection Expresses feelings of pleasure, pain, surprise, disgust or shock: *oh!*, *ouch!*, *gosh!*, *hooray!*, *wow!*

Intensifier Makes a word or phrase stronger, e.g. *extremely*, *absolutely*, *very*, *at all*, *so*, *such*: *I'm not **at all** interested. He's **such** a busy person.*

Interrogative A *yes-no* interrogative clause is a clause which begins with a modal verb or auxiliary verb or main verb *be*, followed by a subject. It is commonly used to ask questions to which the answer is either *yes* or *no*: *Are you ready? Have we finished?* A *wh*-interrogative clause begins with a word such as *who*, *why*, *which*, *how*, and is used to ask information questions: ***When*** will the books arrive?

Intransitive verb → **Transitive and intransitive verb**

Intonation The use of pitch, loudness and falling and rising tones of the voice to show different meanings.

Irregular verb An irregular verb does not follow the normal rules. Almost all irregular verbs are irregular in their past form and *-ed* form: *bring*, ***brought***, ***brought***; *speak*, ***spoke***, ***spoken***; *swim*, ***swam***, ***swum***; *take*, ***took***, ***taken***.

Inversion Changes the normal word order. Commonly, the verb (in bold) goes before the subject (underlined): *In the garden **sat** a large brown fox.*

Linking adjunct → **Conjunction** A single word or phrase that links clauses or sentences: *however*, *on the other hand*.

Linking verb Connects a subject with a complement, e.g. *be*, *become*, *seem*: *She **seems** excited.*

Marked → **Focus**; **Fronting** Marked word order in English refers to untypical word order; for example, the word order Object-Subject-Verb is marked (unmarked word order is Subject-Verb-Object). Marked word order is used to create various kinds of focus on particular words and phrases. Marked stress in English refers to less typical stress patterns.

Mental process verb → **Verb**

Mid position → **Position**

Modality → **Modal verbs** Words and phrases (mainly verbs) that express whether something is possible, necessary, certain, desirable, impossible, etc.

Modal verb → **Semi-modal verb** Modal verbs have only one form and do not indicate person, number, voice or aspect. They are placed first in the verb phrase and are followed by a verb (either an auxiliary verb or a main verb) in the base form. Modal verbs such as *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would* express two main kinds of modal meaning: degrees of certainty and degrees of desirability or obligation:

*I **might** see you later.* (the speaker says something is possible, but is not certain)

*I **must** phone her to find out how long she's staying.* (the speaker says that he is obliged to do something and that it is necessary)

Modification → **Adjective** A modifier is a word or phrase that indicates further meaning about a head word (underlined) either before (premodification) the head word or after the head word (postmodification): *It's **a large** room **at the back of the house**.*

Negative and negation Refer to words and structures that create negative meanings, that is, things which are not true or not the case. Negation can be formed through negative prefixes and suffixes such as *impossible*, *unhealthy*, *hopeless* and through negative words such as *not*, *nothing*, *nobody*, *never*. Negative is the opposite of affirmative.

Non-defining relative clause → **Relative clause**

Noun One of the four major word classes. A noun identifies a person, animal or thing. Nouns can be either proper nouns or common nouns. Proper nouns give names to people, animals and things: *New York*, *Malaysia*, *Parliament*; common nouns refer to more general things such as *love*, *car*, *cheese*, *friendship*.

Nouns are countable or uncountable. Countable nouns can be easily counted: *egg(s)*, *car(s)*, *house(s)*. Uncountable nouns do not have a distinction between singular and plural and cannot be counted because they cannot be easily divided: *information*, *water*, *music*. A compound noun consists of more than one word: *shopkeeper*, *mail-box*. A collective noun refers to groups of people: *team*, *committee*. A noun phrase (underlined) is a phrase with a noun as the head word in the phrase: *It was a nice day at the seaside.*

Noun phrase → **Noun**

Number Shows the difference between singular and plural: *horse/horses*, *child/children*, *this/these*, *he/they*, *am/are*.

Numeral Numerals can be either cardinal numerals (*three*, *six*, *fifteen*) or ordinal numerals (*first*, *fifth*, *twentieth*).

Object (direct and indirect) Refers to the items which come after a verb. A direct object (underlined) is commonly the person or thing affected by the verb. The indirect object (in bold) commonly refers to the person or thing who receives the object: *I gave **him** a watch.*

Object complement → Complement**Oppositeness → Antonym**

Particle → Phrasal verb; Phrasal-prepositional verb A word, normally an adverb, added to a verb to form a phrasal verb: *He looked **up***; *She looked **after** her parents*.

Participle The *-ing* and *-ed* form of the verb when used with other verbs. *Singing* is the present participle form of *sing* in *she is singing*; *walked* is the past (or *-ed*) participle form of *walk* in *he had walked*.

Passive → Voice

Past perfect simple Formed with *had* + *-ed* form: *We **had** arrived*.

Past perfect continuous Formed with *had been* + *-ing* form: *They **had been** swimming*.

Past continuous Formed with *was/were* + *-ing* form: *She **was** singing*.

Perfect → Past perfect continuous; Present perfect; Present perfect continuous**Personal pronoun → Pronoun**

Phrasal verb A verb made up of a verb + adverb particle: *They **got up** very late*. *got* = verb, *up* = adverb particle.

Phrasal-prepositional verb A verb made up of a verb + adverb particle + preposition: *She **looked up to** her teacher*. (respected her) *looked* = verb, *up* = adverb particle, *to* = preposition.

Phrase Consists of a head word and one or more words that surround the head word, e.g. noun phrase; adjective phrase; verb phrase.

Plural → Number

Position (front/mid/end) → Adjunct The three main positions of a grammatical item in a clause are front, mid and end positions. For example, adjuncts can occupy a variety of positions in a clause: ***In the morning** we had to pretend nothing happened*. (front position) *We **sometimes** go to Rochester*. (mid position) *That young girl seems to deliver the post **quite often these days***. (end position).

Possession → Possessive

Possessive Possessives show possession and include words like *Jill's*, *your*, *theirs*. *My*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *their*, etc. are possessive determiners. *Mine*, *yours*, *hers*, *ours*, etc. are possessive pronouns.

Postmodifier → Modification**Predicative → Adjective****Predicative adjective complement → Complement**

Prefix A series of letters added to the beginning of a word which alters the meaning in some way: *impossible, rewrite*.

Preposition An important word class in English. Words such as *in, over, with* are prepositions. A preposition is commonly followed by a noun or pronoun or the *-ing* form of a verb. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition (in bold) + the words that follow it (a complement – underlined): *She was a teacher **from** the local primary school*.

A prepositional verb is a verb + a preposition: *listen to, agree with, talk about*.

Prepositional verb → **Preposition**

Present continuous Formed with *be* + *-ing* form: *She **is** sleeping*.

Present perfect simple Formed with *have* + *-ed* form: *We've **had** that TV set for fifteen years*. (from fifteen years ago till now)

Present perfect continuous Formed with *have* + *been* + *-ing* form. It places greater emphasis than the present perfect on the duration of an event up to the present moment and indicates an uninterrupted action: *I've **been** waiting for you for over an hour*.

Present simple The present simple has no auxiliary in an affirmative clause: *He **walks** to work every day*.

Pronoun Words like *he, she, yourself, mine, who, this, these*. Pronouns commonly refer to or fill the position of a noun or noun phrase. Personal pronouns are *I, you, he, him, her*, etc. Possessive pronouns are *mine, yours, hers*, etc. Relative pronouns are *which, who, that*, etc. Demonstrative pronouns are *this, these, that* and *those*. Reflexive pronouns are *yourself, myself, themselves*, etc. Indefinite pronouns are words such as *someone, anyone, no one*.

Proper noun → **Noun**

Prosody → **Intonation** Refers to variations in spoken features such as stress, rhythm, intonation, voice quality, pitch, loudness, tempo, pauses.

Punctuation The most common marks of punctuation in English are commas, colons, semi-colons, capital letters, full stops, exclamation marks and quotation marks.

Quantifiers Determiners that indicate the amount of something: *some, any, all, enough, every*.

Question and question word Questions are commonly speech acts which require a response. They are typically made with interrogative clauses. Questions are normally formed by an auxiliary verb or modal verb + subject + base form of the main verb:

***Does she go** swimming every week? **Would you like** a cup of coffee?*

These questions are often called *yes-no* questions.

Question words such as *why, what, how, who, when* also form questions: ***Why** did they do that?*

These questions are often called information questions or *wh*-questions. Questions can be positive or negative. In speaking, questions usually have a particular type of intonation that tells the listener that they are questions.

Question tag → **Tag** Small questions that are added at the end of an affirmative or negative clause in order to check understanding or to seek agreement:

*He can do that, **can't he?** She isn't here, **is she?***

A copy tag involves repetition of the subject and verb: ***He's** your brother, **is he?***

Reflexive → **Pronoun; Verb**

Register Describes the style of speaking or writing that is used in particular situations, subjects and topics such as academic writing, journalism, advertising, and legal, science and literary conventions.

Regular verb A verb which follows the normal rules for making the present and past simple and the *-ed* form.

Relative clause → **Clause** A kind of subordinate clause, commonly introduced by a relative pronoun such as *who* or *which* or *when*. A defining relative clause tells us which person or thing is referred to: *This is the friend **who lives in Budapest**.*

A non-defining clause does not define the person or thing referred to; it just gives extra information: *My friend, **who lives in Budapest**, has just got a new job in Moscow.*

Relative pronoun → **Pronoun**

Reported speech → **Reporting verb** How we represent the speech of other people and of ourselves.

Reported and reporting clauses → **Reporting verb**

Reporting verb A verb used to report what is said. The most common is *say*; other examples are *tell*, *reply*, *suggest*, *agree*, *offer*. The reported clause contains a report of the words used: *'I'm leaving now', she said*. Here *said* is the reporting clause and *'I'm leaving now'* is the reported clause.

Response token A word or phrase used in speech to respond to what is being said. Response tokens can show interest, surprise, shock, etc. Common examples are *okay*, *right*, *yeah*, *really*, *that's a pity*, *I see what you mean*.

Semi-modal verb → **Modal verb** A single- or multi-word verb that is similar to a modal verb: *dare*, *need*, *ought to*, *have (got) to*, *used to*. In some ways these verbs are formed like modal verbs and in some ways they are like main verbs.

Singular → **Number**

Speech act Refers to what a speaker is doing or intends when they say something. For example, if the speaker says *I am hot* they may be complaining or asking someone to open a window rather than telling everyone about their body temperature. Common speech acts are questions, threats, promises.

Speech act verb A verb that, when it is spoken, performs action: *promise*, *apologise*, *agree*.

Split infinitive The use of an adverb or adverb phrase between *to* and the base form of the verb: *I want you to **seriously** consider his resignation.* Some people have objections to this usage on stylistic grounds.

Statement → **Declarative** A sentence which gives information: *She's tired and hungry.*

Stem A stem (also called *base*) is the form of a word to which prefixes and suffixes are attached: *snowy, untraceable, captive, reduce.*

Stranded preposition Prepositional stranding occurs when a preposition (in bold) is separated from its complement (underlined) and placed at the end of the clause: *What was she referring **to**?* Some people have objections to this usage on stylistic grounds.

Stress Refers to the way the voice makes a word, phrase or part of a sentence important as a result of pitch and loudness: *WHERE is she going now?*

Subject → **Object; Complement** The subject of a sentence or clause is the word or phrase that agrees with the main verb: ***They** love their life in China. **To learn to swim** was difficult for her.*

Subject complement → **Complement**

Subordinate clause → **Clause**

Subordinating conjunction → **Conjunction; Clause**

Suffix A series of letters added to the end of a word which change its meaning in some way, usually changing the word class: *statement**;** talkative.*

Superlative An adjective or adverb that is formed with *-est* (*fastest*) or with *most* (*most attractive; most persuasively*).

Tag → **Question tag** A word or phrase added at the end of a clause. A tag commonly checks understanding: *The train leaves at six, **right**?*

Tail Tails help a listener follow what is said. A tail commonly involves a noun or noun phrase or clause at the end of an utterance that refers back to a pronoun before it: *He's very old, **that man**.*

Tense Refers to the verb form that shows the time of an action or event or state. The present simple tense *walks* contrasts with the past simple tense *walked*.

Topic Normally the first sentence of a paragraph which indicates what the whole paragraph will be about. A topic sentence usually signals that it is a key sentence in the paragraph and provides important clues to textual coherence.

Transitive and intransitive verb A transitive verb needs an object (*I liked the film*); an intransitive verb does not need an object (*I sneezed*).

Turn A basic unit of conversation. Speakers take turns to speak, and a turn ends when the speaker changes. A turn may be very short or very long:

Assistant: *There you go. There's your ticket.* [turn 1]

Customer: *Right. Thanks.* [turn 2]

Uncountable noun → Noun**Unmarked → Marked**

Utterance A unit in spoken language that is communicatively complete. An utterance may consist of a single word, a phrase, a clause or a clause combination spoken in context. The term 'utterance' is contrasted with sentence in written language. There are four utterances in the following example:

- 1 A: *But he's trying to send us an email and I'm having some trouble with the computer, you see.*
- 2 B: *Right.*
- 3 A: *You know.*
- 4 B: *Yeah.*

Verb → Auxiliary verb; Modal verb; Semi-modal verb; Irregular verb; Finite/non-finite; Linking verb One of the four main word classes in English. Verbs and verb phrases are commonly used with a subject as the basis of a clause: *The girl **smiled***. A verb phrase may contain more than a single verb: *I **might have forgotten***. A finite verb is a verb marked for tense. A reflexive verb is a verb with a reflexive pronoun: *She got up and washed **herself***.

Verb of perception/senses; mental process verb Verbs of perception and verbs of the senses are verbs such as *hear, smell, taste*; mental process verbs are verbs such as *know, think, like*.

Verb phrase → Verb

Vocative Refers to words used to name somebody directly: ***Dave**, can you carry that for me?*

Voice Refers to verb forms in which the subject is either the person or thing that acts (active voice) or the person or thing that is acted on (passive voice). The passive voice is formed by *be* + *-ed* form of the verb: *She broke the vase* is active voice; *the vase was broken by her* is passive voice.

Word class The major word classes are: noun, verb, adjective and adverb.

Word formation Refers to the process by which new words and new forms of existing words are created. The most common types are prefixes and suffixes.

Zero determiner → Determiner

Index

◉ = CD-ROM entry

A

a bit, ◉

a few, 273

a little, 185, 273, 274

a little/tiny bit, 185

a long way, ◉

a lot, 279

a lot of, 301, 302

a/an, 7

usage, 7, 8, 10

abbreviations, 1, 597

and clipping, ◉

and letters, ◉

and personal names, ◉

about

as a preposition, 12

as an adjective, 13

as an adverb, 13

words that do not use, 13

words using, 13

above, 14

as a preposition, 14

errors with, 15

meaning, 14, ◉

usage in formal writing, 14

above/over, 1

abroad, ◉

accommodation, ◉

according to, 15

acronyms, 597, ◉

across, 16, 17

active infinitive form, 251

active voice, 363, 600

actual, 18

actually, 18, 19

adjective, 593

adjective phrases, 26, 236

as object complements, 28

position, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35

typical errors, 35, 36

with nouns, 26, 27

with verbs, 28

adjectives, 1, 19, 21, 39, ◉

alike, ◉

alone, ◉

alternate, ◉

and opposites, 20

and *with*, 63

back, 86

British English vs American English, 106, 108

classic, ◉

classical, ◉

comparative, 23, 128–33

economic or *economical*? ◉

efficient or *effective*? ◉

endings, 22

forming, 23–5

forming of, 22

full, ◉

funny, ◉

half, ◉

identifying, 21

ill or *sick*? ◉

inside, ◉

joined by *and*, 25

long, 274

meanings, 19, 20

near, 309

next, 319

okay, 350

only, 353

order of, 25

over, 362

still, 501

superlative, 23, 129–33

typical errors, 35, 36, 133

up, 534, 535

well, 571

with *at*, 81

with *-ing* and *-ed*, 24

with prefixes, 23

with suffixes, 22

adjectives ending in *-ful*, 131

adjuncts, 36, 476, 504, 598–9, 602

adjuncts – cont.

and complements, 37

and postmodifiers, 37

before, 94*next*, 320

adverb, 12, 593

adverb of degree, 195

adverb phrases, 31, 236

forms, 44

functions, 45, 46

position, 46

types and meanings, 44, 45

adverbials, 36

adverbs, 1, 31, 185, 195

a good deal and *a great deal*, 304*a lot*, 304*alike*, ●*all right*, ●*already*, 58*also*, ●*alternatively*, ●*anymore*, ●*anyway*, 67

as discourse markers, 43

as short responses, 43

as well, ●*back*, 86*before*, 94

before adjectives, 31

below, 96*beneath*, ●*besides*, ●*beyond*, ●

British English vs American English, 106,

108

by, 109, 110, 111

comparative, 134

either, 190*enough*, 195

forms, 38, 39, 40

functions, 40

half, ●*here and there*, ●*how*, 240*inside*, ●*long*, 274*maybe*, ●

meanings and functions, 38

much, 303, 304

adverbs – cont.

nearby, ●

negative, 315

next, 319*okay*, 350*once*, 351, 352*only*, 353*over*, 361

position of, 46–9

still, 500

superlative, 134

too, 529, ●

types, 41, 42

typical errors in, 49

up, 534

uses, 37

way, ●*well*, 571*yet*, 609*advice*, ●*advise*, ●*affect*, ●*afraid*, ●*after*, ●*afterwards*, ●*against*, 50, 51*age*, ●*ago*, 52*alike*, ●*all**after all*, 55

as a pronoun, 54

as an adverb, 54

as a determiner, 52

before indefinite plural nouns,

53

meaning, 54

not all, 55or *every*, 55, 56or *whole*, 57, 58

typical errors, 56, 57

with no article, 52, 53

with personal pronouns, 53

all but, 109*all day*, 56*all of*, 53, 56*all right*, ●

as a discourse marker, ●

as an adverb, ●

- all the time*, ●
- all together*, ●
- allow*, ●
- almost*, ●
- alone*, ●
- along*, ●
- alongside*, ●
- already*
 - meaning, 58
 - negatives with, 61, ●
 - or *still*, 60
 - or *yet*, 60
 - position, 59
 - typical errors, 59, 60
- also*, ●
- alternate*, ●
- alternatively*, ●
- although*, 61
 - with *ing* clause, 62
 - meaning 'but', 62
 - with reduced clause, 62
- altogether*, ●
- always*
 - for *good* or *for ever*? ●
 - meaning, ●
 - position, ●
 - with *can* and *could*, ●
 - with continuous verb forms, ●
- am*, 514
- American English, 1, 3, 84, 172, 177, ●
 - anymore*, ●
 - be going to*, 102
 - dates in, 164
 - forms with *to*-infinitive, ●
 - kind of*, 263
 - past perfect, 105
 - past simple, 103, 416
 - prepositions, 105, 106
 - present perfect, 104, 105
 - present simple form, 104
 - spelling, 499
 - substitute verb *do*, 104
 - usage of *and* after *go*, 223
 - usage of *downward*, ●
 - well*, 571
 - whilst*, 579
 - will*, 104
- among*, ●
 - uses, 97
- among other things*, 98
- among others*, 98
- amongst*, ●
- amount of*, ●
- and*, 62, 63
 - after *go* and *come*, 63
 - fixed expressions with, 63
 - in numbers, 63
 - with adjectives, 63
- another*, 357, 358
- antonyms, 32, 33
- any*, ●
 - and comparatives, 66
 - as a determiner, 64
 - as a pronoun, 65
 - for referring numbers, 66
 - negatives of, 65
 - strong form, 64, 65
 - typical errors, 66
 - weak form, 64
- any more*
 - as an adverb, ●
 - as a determiner, ●
- any of*, 65
- anybody*, ●
- anyhow*, 67
- anymore*, ●
- anyone*, ●
- anything*, 492
- anyway*
 - as a discourse marker, 67
 - as *at least*, 68
 - meaning, 67
- apart from*, ●
- apostrophe, 85
 - to show connection, 68
 - to show possession, 69
 - typical error, 69
 - with time, 69
- appear*, ●
- apposition, 69, 70, 344
- approximations, 70
 - in formal speech and writing, 70, ●
- arise*, ●
- around*, ●
- arouse*, ●
- arrive*, ●
- articles
 - and determiners, 9

articles – cont.

- errors with, 12
- pronunciation, 8
- this, that* and, 11
- types, 7
- usage of *a/an*, 7
- usage with buildings, 11
- usage with countable nouns, 8
- usage with dates, 10
- usage with general nouns, 8, 9
- usage with groups and society, 10
- usage with jobs and professions, 10
- usage with media, 11
- usage with uncountable nouns, 8
- with everyday things, 9
- with universally known things, 9
- as*, 75, 76, 77, 78, 509, ●
 - as a conjunction, 72
 - as a preposition, 71, 72
 - simultaneous changes, 72
 - with *the same*, 72
- as always*, ●
- as if*, 74
- as long as*, 74, 147
- as many as*, 73, 303, ●
- as much as*, 73, 303
- as soon as*, ●
- as though*, 62, 74
- as usual*, 537
- as well*, 75, 76, ●
- as yet*, 610
- as...as*, 73, 74
 - comparative forms, 137
- as...as ever*, 198
- ask*, 79, 80
- ask for*, 80
- at*
 - after adjective, 81
 - after verb, 81
 - before time expressions, 85
 - group activities, 81
 - to describe location, 80, 81
 - to refer to period of time, 80
 - to refer to position or location, 83
 - typical errors, 82, 86
 - uses, 83, 84, 85
 - with numbers, 81
- at all*
 - and politeness, ●

- at first*, 206
- at last*, 205
- at least*, 265
- at the*, 82
- at the beginning*, 85
- at the end*, 85
- at work*, 603
- attributive adjective, ●
- Australian English, 3
- auxiliary *be*, 514
- auxiliary *do*, 488, 514
- auxiliary *have*, 514
- auxiliary verbs, 192–3, 235, 312, 485, 514, 562, 563, ●
 - be*, 89, 551
 - contractions with, 157
 - do*, 179
 - have*, 231, 551
 - in verb phrases, 563, 564
 - subjects and, 192
 - with no main verb, 551
 - with passive voice verbs, 132
- awaken*, ●
- away*, ●
- away from*, ●

B

- back*, 86
- back-formation, 597
- bang*, 524
- be*, 514, ●
 - as an auxiliary verb, 89
 - as a main verb, 87–8
 - forms, 87
 - modal expressions, 89
 - typical errors, 89
- be able to*, 90
- be about to*, 89, 219
- be afraid*, 487
- be due to*, 90, 219
- be going to*, 102, 211–12
- be like*, 271
- be likely to*, 90
- be meant to*, 91
- be on the point*, 219
- be supposed to*, 91
- be to*, 219
- be used to*, 536–7

- be yet to*, 610
- bear*, ●
- because*, 76
- emphasise with *just and simply*, 92
 - meaning and use, 91
 - short form, 92
- because of*, 92
- been to*, 92
- before*
- and adverbs, 95
 - as 'in front of', 95
 - as adjuncts, 94
 - as an adverb, 93
 - as a conjunction, 94
 - as a preposition, 93
 - to refer to point of time, 93
 - typical errors, 95
 - with *ing*, 94
 - with past tenses, 94
 - with present tenses, 94
- before long*, 95
- beforehand*, 95
- begin*, ●
- believe*, 487
- below*, ●
- in formal writing, 96
 - meaning, 96
 - typical errors, 96
 - with numbers, 96
- beneath*
- as a preposition, ●
 - as an adverb, ●
 - meaning, ●
- beside*, ●
- besides*, ●
- between*
- and prepositional phrases, 97
 - meaning and use, 97
 - nouns and verbs followed by, 97
- beyond*
- as a preposition, ●
 - with expressions of time, ●
- bore*, ●
- born*, ●
- borne*, ●
- borrow*, ●
- both*
- as a pronoun, 98
- both* – cont.
- as a verb, 99
 - in short answers, 99
 - typical errors, 100
 - with *and* as linking expression, 99
 - with nouns, 98
 - with pronouns, 98
- both of*, 99
- bought*, 102
- bring*, 100, 102, ●
- British English, 172, 177, ●
- adjectives and adverbs, 106, 107
 - any more*, ●
 - be going to*, 102
 - past simple, 102, 103
 - prepositions, 105, 106
 - present perfect, 104, 105
 - present simple form, 103
 - shall*, 104
 - sort of*, 263
 - spelling, 499
 - substitute verb *do*, 104
 - usage of *downward*, ●
 - well*, 571
 - whilst*, 579
- burgle*, ●
- but*, 62
- as 'except', 108
 - as linking word, 108
- but for*, 109
- buy*, 102
- by*, ●
- and measurements and amounts, 111
 - and place, 110
 - and the passive, 109
 - and time, 109
 - as 'during', 111
 - as 'how to do something', 110
 - as 'written' or 'composed', 111
 - typical errors, 111
 - usage for emphasis, 110

C

Cambridge International Corpus (CIC), 2

can

- forms, 111, 112
- past of, 114
- referring to permission, 115
- referring to possibility, 115

can – cont.

- referring to requests, 115
- typical errors, 114, 116
- uses, 112, 113, ●
- with *always*, ●

can see, 475

capital letters, ●

chunks

- as frames, 117
- in speaking, 116
- in writing, 117

classic

- as an adjective, ●
- as a noun, ●

classical, ●

clauses

- comparative forms, 136
- coordinated, 118, 119
- declarative, 121
- definition, 120
- exclamatives, 123
- finite, 119
- imperative, 122, 248, 249, 250
- interrogative, 121
- introduction, 117, 118
- main and subordinate, 118
- non-finite, 119, 120
- relative, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454
- reported, 461
- that*-clauses, 517

cleft sentences, 123, 124, 600

- and *it*, 260

collocation, 125

come

- describing movement, 126
- informal expressions, 126
- meaning 'arrive', 126

come in, 127

come to, 126

comma, 508

commands, 127, 478

commentaries, ●

complements, 32, 595

- adjuncts, 138
- object, 138
- subject, 138

composed of, ●

compound adjectives, 139

compound nouns, 139

compound sentences, 140

compound verbs, 139

compound words, 139

compounding, 596

comprise, ●

concord *see* subject-verb agreement

conditional clauses, 141, 590

conditional sentences, 140

conditionals, 144, 145

- imagined conditions, 141, 142, 143

- in speaking, 145

- mixed, 145

- other expressions, 146, 147, 148

- real, 143, 144

- typical errors, 148

- with *will* and *would*, 145

conjunctions, 1, 148–57, 397, 594

- and*, 62

- as if* and *as though*, 74

- but*, 108, 109

- but* and *although/though*, 153, 154

- coordinating, 148, 149

- describing causes, reasons, results and purpose, 152, 153

- either*, 190

- even though* and *even if*, 154

- for*, 207

- if*, 244

- neither*, 317

- once*, 352

- or*, 355

- subordinating, 149, 150, 156

- time, 156, 157

- typical errors, 154, 155

- uses, 150, 151

- when*, 573

- where*, 576

- yet*, 610

consider, ●

consist, ●

content, ●

contents, ●

continuous form, 567

contractions, 157, 158, 159

contrasts in English, 159, 160

conversion, 596

copy-tag, 107

cos, 77, 92
 could, 115
 forms, 160
 to explain the past, 161, 162, 163, ●
 uses, 161
 with *always*, ●
 countable nouns, 327, 602
 countries and regions, ●

D

dare, 292, ●
 date
 speaking of, 164
 typical error, 164
 writing of, 163, 164
 dead, 524
 declarative clause, 598
 definite article, ●, *see also the*
 degree adverbs, 42
 despite, 254
 detached impersonal styles, ●
 determiner, 507
 determiners, 1, 9, 46, 55, 57, 164, 329, 340, 594
 and modifiers, 171
 another, 357, 358
 any, 64
 any more, ●
 as pronouns, 171
 before pronouns, 168
 common types, 165
 each, 187
 either, 189, 190
 enough, 195
 every, 199
 functions of, 165
 list of, 165
 neither, 317
 other, 356
 own, 362
 position and order, 168, 169, 170
 some, 488, 489, 490
 such, 507
 that, 517
 the other, 357
 this, that, these, those, 521
 typical errors, 172
 used as pronouns, 419
 what, 572

determiners – cont.

 with nouns, 167, 168
 with plural countable nouns, 167
 with singular countable nouns, 166
 with singular uncountable nouns, 166
 dialect, 1, ●
different from, 172
different than, 172
different to, 172
 diminutives, ●
 direct objects, 559, 561, 589
 direct speech, 461, 462, 464, 468, 469
 discourse markers, 172–7, 277
 okay, 349, 350
 well, 570
 divorce, ●
 do, 183, 184
 as a main verb, 178, 179
 as a substitutive verb, 181, 182
 as an auxiliary verb, 179, 180, 181
 forms, 178
 typical errors, 181
 uses, 178
do the same, ●
don't or do not, ●
 double negatives, 184
 down, ●
 downtoners, 184, 185
downwards, ●
 dummy subjects, used in English, 185, 186
 during, ●

E

each, 187
 to refer to the subject, 188
 with plural pronouns and possessives, 187
each of, 187
each other, 188
early, ●
east, ●
eastern, ●
economic, ●
economical, ●
 -ed participle, 251
effect, ●
effective, ●

efficient, ●
either, 189, 190
elder, ●
eldest, ●
ellipsis, 1, 191
 situational, 192, 193, 194
 textual, 191
else, 194
email messages, ●
emails, ●
emphatic auxiliary, 536
enable, ●
end, ●
enjoy, ●
enough, 195
equality, comparisons of, 137
equipment, ●
especially, ●
evaluative and viewpoint adverbs,
 42
even, 195, 196
even if, 197, 245
even so, 197
even though, 197
eventually, ●
ever, 197
ever since, 198
ever so, 198
ever such, 198
every, 55, 56, 66, 189, 199, 200
every day, 56
everybody, 201
everyone, 200, 201
everything, 201
except, ●
except for, ●
exclamations, 201, 202
expect, 202, 203
experience, ●
experiment, ●
explain, ●

F

fairly, ●
fall, ●
fall down, ●
far, ●
farther, ●
farthest, ●

fast, 204
fell, ●
felt, ●
female, ●
feminine, ●
fetch, 101
few, 273
fewer, 266, ●
fill, ●
filled, ●
finally, 205
finish, ●
first, 206
firstly, 206
fit, ●
focusing adverbs, 42
following, ●
for, 186, 207, 208, 525
for + -ing, 208
forget, ●
formal language, ●
formal writing, 14
formality, 1
from, 172, 209, 210
fronting, 210, 211, 598, 599
full, ●
fun, ●
funny, ●
further, ●
furthest, ●
future, 211–19
future continuous, 215–16
future in the past, 216
future perfect continuous, 216–17
future perfect simple, 217–18

G

game, ●
gender, ●
 nouns and gender, 335, 336
geographical names, 1, 10, ●
get, 220
 and go, 222
 cause something to happen, 221
 describing negative events, 221
 on/off, 221
 passive form, 222
 usage with adjective, 220
 usage with objects, 220

get up, 222
go, 127, 221, 223
 usage of and after, 223
go + an adjective, 223
go + *ing*, 223
go in, 127
going to, 224
gone, 92
gonna, 212
 gradable adjectives, 31, 33
 gradable adverbs, 40
grateful, ●
 greetings
 expressions for celebrations, ●
 goodbye, ●
 hello, ●
 group words, 385
guess, 487

H

had best, 225
had better, 224, 225
had you, 146
half, ●
happen, ●
hard, 226
hardly, 226, 228, 322
 word order, 227
hardly any, 227
hardly at all, 227
hardly ever, 227
hate, ●
have
 as an auxiliary verb, 231
 as a main verb, 229–31, ●
 forms, 228
 typical errors, 229
 uses, 229
have + object + *-ed* form, 234
have + object + infinitive form,
 235
have + object + *-ing* form, 235
have got, 231
have got to, 232, 233
have to, 232, 233, 234
have yet to, 610
 headers, 236–7, 599
 heads, 235–6
hear that, ●

hearing, 238
 hedges, 239
hello, ●
help, 253
help, with or without an object, ●
her, ●
here, ●
hers, ●
hi, ●
high, ●
historic, ●
historical, ●
holiday, ●
holidays, ●
home, ●
hope, 203, 383, 487
 as a verb, 239
 as a noun, 240
hopefully, ●
house, ●
how, 202
 in exclamations, 241
 in indirect questions, 240
 in questions, 240
 typical errors, 241
how about, 241
how is, 241
however, 62, 243
human beings, ●
humankind, ●
hyperbole, ●
 hyphens, 243, 244
 hyphens, rules and guidelines for, ●

I

identical, ●
if, 141, 244–8, 388, 575, 590
 with *should*, 145
if ... not, 532
if + *were to*, 147
if necessary, 244
if not, 244
if only, 247
if possible, 244
if so, 244
if-clause, ●
ill, ●
 imperative clauses, 248–51
imply, ●

- in*, 82, 83, 106, 254, 255
 - before time expressions, 85
 - typical errors, 86
 - uses, 84, 85
- in as many*, ●
- in case*, ●
- in case of*, ●
- in fact*, ●
- in front of*, 355, ●
- in order that*, ●
- in order to*, 253
- in spite of*, 254
- in the beginning*, 85
- in the end*, 85, 205
- in the way*, ●
- in time*, 524
- incorrect English, 3
- indefinite article, 602, *see also a/an*
- indefinite articles, 357, 507, 508, 592, 602, ●
 - positions of, 34
- indirect object, 561
- indirect speech, 462
 - and direct speech, comparison, 468–9
 - changes to adverbs and demonstratives, 470
 - changes to pronouns, 470
 - past continuous reporting, 468
 - present simple reporting, 467
 - reporting commands, 467
 - reporting questions, 466
 - reporting statements, 465–6
 - typical errors, 471
- individual words, 1
- infer*, ●
- infinitive, 474
- infinitive forms, 251
 - of a verb, 252, 253
- informal language, ●
- information*, ●
- ing* form, 237, 501, ●
- initials, ●
- inside*, ●
- instructions, 128
- intensifiers, 34, 255–6, 484
 - intensifier *that*, 518
- interjections, 256
- into*, 254, 255
- intonation, 256–7, 436, 439, 443
- intransitive, 559
- inversion, 146, 257, 464
- invitation, 258
- irregular adjectives, 130
- ish* and *-y* suffixes, 259
- it*, 185–6, 259–60, 601
 - in paragraphs, 261
- it's time*, ●
- it*-cleft sentences, 123–4
- its*, 262

J

- joke*, 474
- just*, 262–3
- just because*, 92

K

- kind*, 492
- kind of*, 263
- know*, ●

L

- languages, ●
- largely*, ●
- lastly*, 205
- late*, 264
- lately*, 264
- lay*, ●
- least*, 264
- leave*, ●
- lend*, ●
- less*, 265, 266, ●
- less and less*, 266
- less of*, 266
- let*, 253, 267–8, ●
- let us* or *let's*, 267
- letters, ●
- lie*, 474, ●
- like*, 75, 268–71, 383, 508
- likely*, 107, 271
- linking adverbs, 42
- listening, 238
- little*, 272–4
- loan words, 597
- lonely*, ●
- lonesome*, ●
- long*, 274–5
- longer*, ●
- look*, 276–7, ●

look at, 277–8
 look forward to, ●
 look like, 271
 lots, 278, 302
 lots of, 301
 love, 383, ●
 low, ●
 luck, 589, ●
 lucky, ●

M

made from, ●
 made of, ●
 made out of, ●
 made with, ●
 main clause, 1, 61, 62, 76, 77, 78, 91, 117, 118,
 119, 120, 121, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144,
 145, 146, 148, 149, 153, 155, 156, 157,
 245, 253, 260, 378, 378, 383, 428, 476,
 482, 514, 515, 516, 532, 533, 573, 574,
 574, 576, 577, 586, 599, 602, 604, ●
 make, 183, 253
 and do, 183
 make + object expressions, 279, 280
 male, ●
 man, ●
 mankind, ●
 manner adverbs, 41
 many, 300, 301, ●
 many of, 301
 marry, ●
 masculine, ●
 matter, ●
 as a noun, ●
 as a verb, ●
 typical errors, ●
 may, 115, 163
 forms, 280–1
 uses, 281, 282
 may as well, 75, 282
 may be, ●
 maybe, ●
 mean, 283
 mean by, 284
 means, 284
 measurements
 area, 285
 frequency, 286
 weight and volume, 286

mid-position, 537
 might, 163
 forms, 287
 typical errors, 288
 uses, 287–8
 might as well, 75, 282
 mind
 as a noun, ●
 as a verb, ●
 typical errors, ●
 miss, ●
 modal verbs, 289–95, 514, ●
 modal words and expressions,
 289
 modality, 288
 forms, 289, 290, 292
 meanings and uses, 292, 293,
 295, ●
 other modal words and expressions, 298,
 299
 other verbs expressing, 297
 tense, 295, 296, 297
 typical errors, 299, ●
 modern British English, 1
 more, ●
 with nouns, ●
 most, ●
 most of, ●
 mostly, ●
 much, 300–3
 much of, 300
 must
 and have to, 308
 forms, 305
 typical errors, 309
 uses, 305, 306, 307

N

names and titles, ●
 nationalities, ●
 near, 309
 near to, 309
 nearby, ●
 nearest, ●
 nearly, ●
 need, 292
 as a main verb, 311
 forms, 310
 semi-modal, 311

- need* – cont.
 - typical errors, 311
 - uses, 310, 311
- negation, 312
 - emphasising, 315, 316
 - in non-finite clauses, 314, 315
 - of think, believe, suppose, hope, 316
 - prefixes and suffixes, 315
 - two negatives, 313
- negative adverbs, 315
- negative clauses, 314
- negative ideas, connecting, ●
- negative imperatives, 313
- negative questions, 313
- negative statements, 312
- negative words, 312
- neither*
 - after negative clause, 317
 - as a conjunction, 317
 - as a determiner, 317
 - typical errors, 318
 - with auxiliary/modal verb + subject, 318
- neither do I*, 486
- neither of*, 99
- never*, ●
- new words, 598
- news, ●
- newspaper headlines, ●
- next*, 318, ●
 - as an adjective, 319
 - as an adjunct, 320
 - as an adverb, 319
 - as a pronoun, 320
 - typical errors, 320
- next to*, 320
- nice*, ●
- no*, 66, 320, 322, 323
- no doubt*, ●
- no good*, 324
- no longer*, ●
- no matter*, ●
- no more*, ●
- no one*, 321
- no problem*, 324
- no sooner*, ●
- nobody*, 322
- noise*, ●
- nominalisation, 333, ●
- none*, 320, 321
- none of*, 321
- non-finite clause, 253
- non-standard forms of a language, 3
- non-standard language, ●
- northern*, ●
- not*, 487, ●
 - before *-ing* clause, ●
 - contrast, ●
 - in negative statements, ●
 - in questions, ●
 - short replies, ●
- not ... ever*, ●
- not any*, 65, 323
- not any longer*, ●
- not any more*, ●
- not many*, ●
- not only ... but also*, 324
- not worth*, 324
- not ... either*, 318
- nothing*, 322
- noun modifier, 34
- noun phrases, ●
 - and verbs, 343
 - complements, 341
 - dependent words, 339–42
 - determiners, 340
 - order of, 342
 - post-modifiers, 341, 342
 - pre-modifiers, 340
 - two noun phrases together, 344
 - uses, 343
- nouns, 1, 324, 593
 - abstract, 331
 - adjectives with, 29, 30, 34
 - against* with, 51
 - and gender, 335, 336
 - and prepositions, 336
 - animal names, 336
 - as premodifiers, 340
 - back*, 86
 - both* with, 98, ●
 - classic*, ●
 - collective, 334, 335
 - comparative forms, 135, 136
 - compound, 326, 327

nouns – cont.

- countable, 327, 330, 331
- forming nouns from words, 333
- forms, 331, 332
- game*, ●
- half*, ●
- hope*, 240
- identifying, 325
- inside*, ●
- matter*, ●
- mind*, ●
- plural, 334
- singular, 333
- substitution for, 506
- types, 324, 325
- typical errors, 337–8
- uncountable, 328–31, 602, ●
- way*, ●
- work*, 602

now

- as an adverb of time, ●
- as a discourse marker, ●
- for emphasis, ●

now that, ●

nowhere, 322

number, 344

number of, ●

numbers

- first, second, third, etc.*, 344
- large*, 345
- one, two, three, etc.*, 345

O

object clause, 487

objects, 28, 346, 567

- direct, 346, 347
- indirect, 346, 347
- verbs and, 347

of, 348

of all, 133

of course, ●

offers, 348, 349

often, ●

oh, ●

okay, 349, 350

old, ●

older, ●

oldest, ●

on, 83, 351

- before time expressions, 85
- typical errors, 86
- uses, 84

on the way, ●

on time, 524

once, 351–2

one, 352, ●

one another, 188

one's, ●

only, 353, 354

only if, 245

onto, 351

open, ●

opened, ●

opinion, 354

opportunity, ●

opposite, 355

opposites, 20

- pairs of, 20

- ungradable, 21

or, 147, 190, 191, 355–6

or not, ●

other

- as a determiner, 356

- as a pronoun, 357, ●

otherwise, 147

ought to, 292, 359, 360, 481, 515

- forms, 358, 359

- uses, 359

out, 360

out of, 360

outside, 361, ●

over, 17–18

- as an adjective, 362

- as an adverb, 361

- as a prefix, 362

- as a preposition, 361

- typical errors, 362

own, 362, 363

P

paragraphs, ●

- particles, 167, 235, 298, 399, 400, 535, 546–9, ●

passive infinitive form, 251

- passive voice, 89, 109, 132, 261, 280, 363, 551, 600, ●

- passive voice – cont.
 - enable in, ●
 - it* with, 261
- passives
 - and verbs, 365
 - forms, 364, 365
 - other forms, 367
 - typical errors, 367
 - uses, 366
 - with an agent, 366
 - without an agent, 366
- past, 368
 - typical errors, 382–3
- past continuous, 368–70, 373–4
- past perfect, 105
- past perfect continuous, 375, 378–9
- past perfect simple, 376–9
- past simple, 371–3, 375, 379–82
- past tense, 590
- past verb forms referring to present, 382
- people*, ●
- perfect infinitive, 383
- perhaps*, ●
- permission*, ●
- permit*, ●
- person*, ●
- personal pronouns, ●
- persons*, ●
- phrasal verb, 276, ●
- phrase classes, 595
- pick*, ●
- pick up*, ●
- piece words, 384–6
- place adverbs, 41
- place names, 10, ●, *see also* geographical names
- play*, ●
- please*, ●
- plenty*, 279, ●
- plural, ●
- plural nouns
 - all* and *whole* with, 58
- plural-only noun, ●
- point of view*, ●
- policy*, ●
- politeness, 386–90
- political*, ●
- politician*, ●
- politics*, ●
- possessive, ●
- possessive expressions, 11
- possessive's, 390–2
- possessives with *of*, 392–3
- possibility, 513, ●
- possible*, ●
- post-head, 235
- post-modifiers, 235–6, 341–2, 595
- predicative adjective, ●
- predicative function, 28
- predicatively, ●
- prefer*, 394, ●
- prefix, 184
- prefixes, 395, 396, 595
- pre-head, 235
- pre-modifiers, 235, 236, 340
- preposition, 12, ●
- prepositional phrases, 236, 400
 - after verbs, 400
 - and their complements, 400
- prepositional verb, 276
- prepositions, 593
 - against*, 50
 - along*, ●
 - alongside*, ●
 - among*, 97
 - among* and *amongst*, ●
 - and abstract meanings, 398
 - and adjectives, 398
 - and nouns, 399
 - and verbs, 399
 - as*, 71, 72
 - as* adverbs, 398
 - at*, 80
 - before*, 92, 93
 - below*, 96
 - beneath*, ●
 - beside*, ●
 - besides*, ●
 - between*, 97
 - beyond*, ●
 - by*, 109–11
 - common single word, 397
 - for*, 207
 - from*, 209, 210
 - functions as conjunctions, 397

prepositions – cont.

- groups of words, 397
 - in* and *into*, 254
 - inside*, ●
 - near* and *near to*, 309
 - of*, 348
 - over*, 361
 - position and stranding, 399
 - to*, 527
 - up*, 534
 - uses, 396
 - with*, 591
 - within*, ●
 - without*, 592
- present, 213, 401–9
- typical errors, 410
 - verb forms referring to past, 409
- present continuous, 213, 401–3, 408–9
- present perfect, 380, 418
- present perfect continuous, 411–2, 417–8
- present perfect simple, 413–8
- present simple, 213, 404–9, ●
- pretend*, 383
- pretty*, ●
- price*, ●
- principal*, ●
- principle*, ●
- prize*, ●
- progress*, ●
- promise*, ●
- pronouns, 514, 594
- another*, 358
 - any*, 64
 - as subject complements, 504
 - both*, 98
 - determiners as, 171, 419
 - determiners followed by, 168
 - each*, 187
 - either*, 190
 - enough*, 195
 - generic personal, 423–4
 - indefinite, 200, 201, 419, 420, ●
 - it*, 259
 - next*, 320
 - object form of, ●
 - other*, 357, ●

pronouns – cont.

- own*, 363
 - personal, 420–2, ●
 - possessives, 424, ●
 - reflexive, 425, 426
 - some*, 490
 - that*, 517
 - the other*, 357
 - this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, 521–2
 - uses, 418
 - what*, 572
- pronunciation, 130, ●
- providing*, 147
- punctuation, 1, 427–8
- capital letters, 427
 - colons, 429–30
 - commas, 428–9
 - dashes, 431
 - exclamation marks, 428
 - full stops, 427
 - numerals and punctuation, 431–2
 - question marks, 428
 - quotation marks, 430
 - semi-colons, 430

put, 433

Q

- quantifying, 166
- quantities of*, ●
- quantity of*, ●
- questions, 433–4, ●
- alternative, 439–40, ●
 - echo and checking, 441, ●
 - follow-up, 441–2
 - information, 437–9, ●
 - interrogative pronouns, use of, 444–5
 - rhetorical, 433
 - short forms, 446, ●
 - statement, 442–3, ●
 - tags, ●
 - two-step, 443–4
 - typical errors, 446–7
 - yes-no type, 434–6, ●
- quick*, 204
- quickly*, 204, ●
- quiet*, ●
- quite*, 447–9, ●

R

raise, ●
rather, ●
real, 106
really, 106, ●
reason for, ●
reason that, ●
reason why, ●
reason with a to-infinitive, ●
 receiver, 251
 referring, 165
regard, ●
 regional dialects, 3
 register, ●
 relative clauses, 449–50, 574, 576
 defining, 450–3
 non-defining, 452–4
 referring to whole sentence, 454
 typical errors, 454
 relative pronouns, 455
 ignoring of, 459, 460
 that, 459, 517
 typical errors, 460
 when, 574
 when, where, and why, 460
 where, 576
 which, 458
 who, 455
 whom, 456
 whose, 457
remember, ●
remind, ●
 reported speech, 461
 direct speech, 464, 465
 indirect speech, 465–71
 punctuation, 461–2
 reporting and reported clauses, 461
 reporting nouns, 471–2
 reporting verbs, 462–3, ●
 reporting nouns, 471–2
 requests, 472, 473, 605, 606
 response token, 175–6, ●
right, ●
rightly, ●
rise, ●
rob, ●
round, ●
rouse, ●

S

same, ●
say, 474–5
scarcely, 228, ●
see, 277–8, 475
 continuous forms, 475
 see that, ●
seem, ●
 semi-modal verbs, 292
 sentence, 120
 defined, 476
 structures, 476
 types of, 476, 477
 sentence adverbs, 49
 sentences, ●
 cleft, 123, 124
 sentential relative clauses, 450
 sexist, ●
 sexist language, ●
shall, 213, 214, 215, 588
 forms, 477
 typical errors, 478
 uses, 478
she, ●
short, ●
 short answers, 487
should, 360
 and *ought to*, 481
 and *would*, 481
 forms, 479
 uses, 479–80
should you, 146
sick, ●
similar, ●
simply because, 92
since, 77, 209, 481–3, 575
 typical errors, 483
since then, 482
since when, 574, 575
 slang, 1, ●
slightly, 185
so, 484, 507–8
 as a conjunction, 486
 as a discourse marker, 486
 as a substitute form, 484, 485
 typical errors, 488
 uses, 487–8

- so am I*, 485
- so do I*, 485
- so far*, 487
- so long as*, 74, 147
- so many*, 302, 484
- so much*, 302, 484
- so that*, ●
- some*, 491, ●
 - as a determiner, 488, ●
 - as a pronoun, 490
 - typical errors, 491
- some of*, 490
- somebody*, 491
- someone*, 491–2
- something*, 491, 601
- sometime*, ●
- sometimes*, ●
- somewhat*, 185
- somewhere*, 491
- soon*, ●
- soon after*, ●
- sort*, 492
- sort of*, 263, ●
- sound*, ●
- speak*, 493–4
- specially*, ●
- speech into writing*, ●
- spell*, ●
- spelling*, 1, 102
- spelling in English*, 494
 - and plurals, 495
 - and verb forms, 498, 499
 - British and American English, 499
 - doubling consonants, 496
 - dropping and adding letters, 497
 - ie* or *ei*, 497
 - prefixes, 494–5
- standard language*, 3, ●
- start*, ●
- steal*, ●
- still*
 - as an adjective, 501
 - as an adverb, 500
 - typical errors, 501
- stop + -ing form*, 501
- story*, 474
- stress*, 243
- stuff*, 521
- subject*, 253, 514
 - defined, 502
 - dummy, 502
 - position, 502
 - typical errors, 503
- subject and verb inverted*, ●
- subject complements*, 504
- subject–verb agreement*, 503
- subordinate clause*, 61
- subordinate clauses*, 77
- subordinating conjunctions*, 61
- substitution*
 - for nouns, 506
 - forms used, 505–6
 - purpose, 505
 - words and phrases as, 505
- substitutions*, 523
- such*
 - as a determiner, 507
 - meanings, 507
 - or *so*, 507
 - typical errors, 508
- such as*, 508, ●
- such ... that*, 506
- suffixes*, 508, 595
 - common, 509–10
 - spelling, 509
- suggest*, ●
- suggestions*, 511–13, ●
- suit*, ●
- suppose*, 513
- supposing*, 147–8, 513
- surely*, ●
- swearing expressions*, ●
- sympathetic*, ●

T

- taboo expressions*, ●
- tags*, 536, ●
 - form, 514
 - imperative, 516
 - question, 515, 516
 - statement, 516
 - universal, 516
 - uses, 513
- tails*, 237, 599
- take*, 101, 102, ●

- talk, 493–4
- tall, ●
- telephoning, ●
- tell, 474–5
- telling the time, 525–7
- text messages, ●
- thank you, ●
- thankful, ●
- thanks, ●
- that, 517, 521–3
 - as determiner and pronoun, 517
 - as relative pronoun, 517
 - uses, 518
- that much, 301
- that's why, 583
- that-clauses, 517, 518, 519, 590, ●
- the, 7
 - pronunciation, 8
 - usage, 8–10
- the following, ●
- the least, 264–5
- the most, ●
- the one thing, 601
- the other, 357
- the same, ●
- the thing, 601
- the very same, ●
- their, 519
- then, ●
- there, 186, 258, 519, 602, ●
- there is/are, 252
- there's, 519
- these, 521–3
- these days, ●
- they're, 519
- thing, 520
- think, 487, ●
- this, 521–3
- this much, 301
- those, 521–3
- though, 61
 - with -ing clause, 62
 - with meaning 'but', 62
 - with meaning 'however', 62
 - with reduced clause, 62
- through, 17, 106
- till, 93
- time, 524–5
- time adverbs, 41
- to, 82, 527–9
- today, ●
- to-infinitive, 501, 525, 589
- to-infinitive form, 252, ●
- too, 529, 530, ●
- too many, 302
- too much, 302
- toward, ●
- towards, ●
- truth, 474
- type, 492
- typical errors, in English, 2
 - above, 15
 - according to, 16
 - across, over, and through, 18
 - actual and actually, 19
 - adjectives and adjective phrases, 35–6
 - adverbs and adverb phrases, 49
 - after, ●
 - against, 51
 - all and whole, 58
 - all or every, 56
 - also, as well, and too, ●
 - any, 66
 - apostrophe, 69
 - ask and ask for, 80
 - at, 82
 - at, on, and in, 86
 - be, 89
 - before, 95
 - below, 96
 - both, 100
 - bring, take, and fetch, 102
 - by, 111
 - can, 114, 116
 - comparative adjectives, 133
 - comprise, ●
 - conditionals, 148
 - conjunctions, 155
 - consider and regards, ●
 - could, 116
 - dare, ●
 - dates, 164
 - determiners, 172
 - do, 181
 - during, ●
 - each other/one another, 188
 - early, ●
 - every, 200

typical errors, in English – cont.

everyone, 201
expect, hope, or wait, 204
funny, ●
future, 220
had better, 225, 226
have, 229
how, 241
if and whether, 247
indirect speech, 471
infer and imply, ●
infinitive forms, 253
-ing form, 237, 238
lay or lie, ●
lend and borrow, ●
likely and unlikely, 272
long, 276
look at, see, and watch, 277
matter, ●
may, 116
may be, ●
mean, 285
might, 288
modality, 299, 300
much, many, a lot of, and lots of, 303
must, 309
need, 311
neither, 318
next, 320
no, none, and none of, 321
nouns, 337, 338
or, 356
other, another, and the other, 358
over, 362
own, 363
passive, 367
past, 382, 383
plenty, ●
possession, 393
possessive pronouns, 425
prefer, 394
present, 410
present perfect, 418
questions, 446–7
relative clauses, 454
relative pronouns, 460
say and tell, 475
shall, 478
since, 483

typical errors, in English – cont.

so, 488
some, 491
speak and talk, 494
still, 501
subjects, 503
such, 508
suggest, ●
take, ●
too, ●
unless, 532–3
until, 534
usually, 537
verbs and verb phrases, 565–6
what, 573
when, 248
whether, 578
while, 580
whose, 582
why, 584
will, 589
with articles, 12
without, 592
would rather and would sooner, 608

U

ultimately, ●
uncountable nouns, 8, 52, 53, 56, 58,
64, 135, 136, 137, 166, 167–8,
172, 302, 328, 329, 489, 521, 529,
602, ●
all the with, 58
under, 531, ●
underneath, 531
ungradable adjectives, 32
ungradable adverbs, 33
unless, 146, 532
unlikely, 271
until, 93, 533–4
up, 534, 535
up to, 535
used to, 535–6
usually, 537

V

vague language, 538–40
verb, 593
verb phrases, 235, 562–4, ●

verbs, 540

- action, 552, 553
- adjectives after, 30
- against* with, 50
- and noun phrases, 343
- and objects, 347
- and passive, 365
- at* with, 81
- auxiliary, 551, 552
- back*, 86
- basic forms, 540, 541, 542
- be*, 87, 88
- begin*, ●
- both*, 99
- compound, 546
- event*, 553
- fill*, ●
- finite, 205
- formation, 545
- have*, 229, 230
- hope*, 239
- irregular, 544, ●
- linking, 550
- main, 550
- matter*, ●
- mind*, ●
- modal, 290, 291, 293, 552
- multi-word, 546–50
- non-finite, 206
- noun forms of, 602
- patterns, 554–62, ●
- phrasal, 546–9
- phrasal-prepositional, 549–50, ●
- prepositional, 548, 549
- regular, 542–4
- start*, ●
- typical errors, 565–6

very, ●*very few*, 227*very little*, 227*view*, ●

W

wait, 203, 566–7*wait for*, 567*wake*, ●*wake up*, ●*want*, 567–9

warnings, 569, ●

was going, 224*watch*, 277, 278*way*, ●*weather*, ●*well*, 570, 571*what*, 202, 568, 572–3, 578*what ... for?*, 573*what if*, 513*what is ... like?*, 242*whatever*, 243*whatsoever*, 243*wh-cleft sentences*, 124*when*, 77–8, 247–8, 568, 573–5, 580, ●*whenever*, 243, 568*where*, 575–6*whereas*, 576*wherever*, 568*whether*, 245, 246, 576–8*whether ... or*, 577*whether ... or not*, 577*which*, 194, 578, 579*which of*, 579*whichever*, 242*while*, 77, 79, 579, 580*whilst*, 579*who*, 580–1*whoever*, 243, 568*whole*, 57, ●*whole of*, 57*whom*, 581, ●*whose*, 581–2*wh-question-word*, ●*wh-words*, 444, 568*why*, 582–4*why don't*, 584*why not*, 584*why should*, 583*will*, 212–15, 605–6and *shall*, 588

forms, 584–5

typical errors, 589

uses, 585–6, 588

wish, 589–90*with*, 591–2*within*, ●*without*, 592*without doubt*, ●

word classes, 593

word formation, 595–7

word order, 598–9, ●
 structures, 599, 600
work, 602–3
worth, ●
worthwhile, ●
would, 481, 536, 590, 603–6
would like, 606–7
would or 'd with *hate, like, love, prefer*, ●
would prefer, 394

would rather, 607–8
would sooner, 608

Y

yes, ●
yet, 609–10
you know, 283, ●
you see, ●

428.24 ENG

English grammar today
(1 Book + 1 CD-ROM)

WARREN TWP LIBRARY
42 MOUNTAIN BLVD

NOV 07 2011

WARREN, NJ 07059
908-754-5554



System requirements

- Windows® XP, Vista or 7 and Mac OS X 10.4, 10.5 or 10.6

Use of this disc is subject to the terms and conditions printed in the User's Guide.

ISBN 978-0-521-73175-1



CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS
www.cambridge.org



English Grammar Today

English grammar as it's really written and spoken today

With extensive corpus research at its core, *English Grammar Today* is an indispensable reference guide to contemporary English grammar and usage. Ideal for learners of English at CEF levels B1-B2, it is also a valuable resource for teachers looking for clear explanations of natural written and spoken English.

Written by a team of leading experts in the field, this grammar reference book provides hundreds of clear grammar explanations with authentic examples of the way in which the grammar is used in real-life situations.

- *Over 500 entries organised into a simple and easy-to-use A-Z structure*
- *Focus on differences between standard and non-standard varieties of English*
- *Authentic examples of written and spoken English place the grammar in context*
- *Substantial coverage of spoken English and useful information on spelling, punctuation and word formation*



FREE on the CD-ROM:

- *Nearly 200 additional entries plus all the book content, all fully searchable*
- *Audio recordings for all examples and dialogues in the book*

Also available: *English Grammar Today Workbook* contains hundreds of grammar practice exercises for the key areas of *English Grammar Today*.

978 0 521 73176 8



CAMBRIDGE INTERNATIONAL CORPUS

The Cambridge International Corpus (CIC) is a collection of over a billion words of real spoken and written English. The texts are stored in a database that can be searched to see how English is used. The CIC also includes the Cambridge Learner Corpus, a unique collection of over 180,000 exam papers from Cambridge ESOL. It shows real mistakes students make and highlights the parts of English which cause problems for students.

www.cambridge.org/corpus



REAL ENGLISH GUARANTEE

www.cambridge.org/elt/grammartoday



CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

www.cambridge.org

ISBN 978-0-521-73175-1



9 780521 731751 >