

THIRD EDITION

**A
COMMUNICATIVE
GRAMMAR
OF ENGLISH**

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A Communicative Grammar of English

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Preface

To the student

A *Communicative Grammar of English* is a new kind of grammar. In writing it, we have borrowed the slanting grammar, for the *user's reference*, makes more sense if one starts with the question 'How can I use grammar to communicate?'. Thus the main part of the book is devoted to the *USES* of grammar, rather than to *grammatical structure*.

The book is intended primarily for the fairly advanced student, for example the first-year or worse student. If you are such a student you will have studied English grammar in one form or another a number of times so that you will be prepared on the subject, which enables grammatical structures generally to *meanings, uses and situations* – in this way we hope you will increase and extend the range of your communicative skill in the language. The book also supplies the essential descriptions about grammatical forms and structures which you will need, and can therefore be used as a general reference basis or a handbook on English grammar.

The plan of the whole book is as follows:

Part One – Varieties of English

Here we explain briefly the characteristics of varieties of English, such as 'dialect English', 'written English' and 'American English'. We make extensive use of such books as the *Atlas* and *Map* of the book, because it is important for communication to know in what contexts a particular form of language will be used. Part One ends with a list of references to variety labels, which enables you to follow up the range of grammatical constructions and uses associated with a given variety, such as 'dialectal English'.

Part Two – Intonation

Much of the book deals with intonational English, and effective communication in speech depends to a great extent on intonation. So in this part, we introduce the most important features of English intonation, together with the intonation symbols which are used in Part Three.

Part Three – Grammar in use

This is the central part of the book, which you will want to use most. In it the different types of meaning and different ways of regarding meaning are discussed in systematic order.

Part Four Grammatical competence

This part is a reference guide to English grammatical forms and structures, arranged in alphabetical order. It is a necessary complement to Part Three, in that it explains the grammatical terms used there.

There is a comprehensive index at the end of the book which will give you convenient access to the information contained in the various parts.

To the teacher

A *Communicative Grammar of English* is a fresh departure in grammar writing, in that it employs a non-linguistic rather than a structural approach. There are several reasons for introducing the communicative aspects of teaching English grammar. Here, let us consider two.

The type of student we have had in mind when writing this book is fairly widespread, for example a European student at a university or training college. Usually, he already has a grounding in the grammar of the language (the second year or school English). Yet his proficiency in actually using the language may be disappointing. Thus, we believe, may be partly attributed to 'grammar fatigue'. The student may therefore benefit from a book which presents grammar from an angle, where grammatical structures are systematically related to meanings, uses and varieties.

The conventional method of presenting English grammar in such a fashion may also have a certain drawback in itself. For example, in such a grammar textbook of time may be spent with one or other of four different phrases under the form of the verb, under time adverbs, under prepositional phrases denoting time and under temporal conjunctions and clauses. The student who is primarily interested in making use of the language rather than in learning grammar structures (and this is true for the majority of foreign students) is not likely to find such an arrangement particularly helpful. The organization of a *Communicative Grammar of English* as central part of which deals with grammar in use makes it possible to bring similar notions, such as time involving time together at one place.

The book is divided into four parts:

Part One Varieties of English

While English gives us a choice of grammatical structures for a particular purpose, the different grammatical structures available are often not equivalent, since they belong to different 'styles' or 'varieties'. We believe that the appropriate choice is as important as it is difficult for the type of student we have in mind. Throughout the book, therefore, we make use of 'stylistic labels' such as (formal, informal, written, spoken). Part One realizes what these labels mean and supplies in 22-30 the detailed list of their uses in the rest of the book.

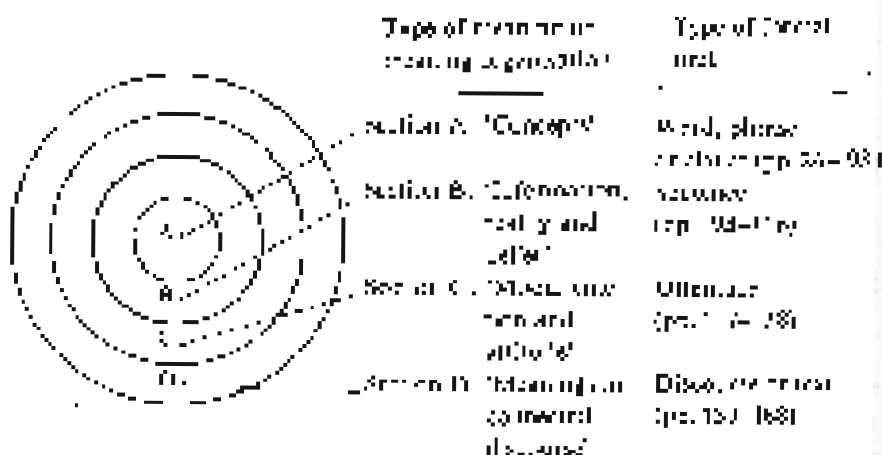
Part Two Structures

Location is clearly important in a communicative treatment of second language English. In Part Two our object is to provide assistance with the basic grammar

London, England, in 1976. Other models in order to understand the relationship between form and function.

Part Three: Grammar in use

Consideration of the various models proposed in the 1970s. Some attempts to define of surface and deep structure, the former representing the different types of meaning and different ways in organizing meaning. The four models in six figures (1969) and in Sections A, B, C, and D.



The first and others, varying in types of structural associated with each section, would not be being given the same or as useful to see the relation between the different levels of meaning and methods of grammaticalization, but their function as type categories and their function would be allowed for. For example, grammaticalization in a primary form in the organization of meaning in Sections B, C and D.

Section A. Concept

The first level of the model is concept, of meaning. This is defined for these reading categories of primary language has function. Both its meaning, structure, form, function, degree, etc. is considered mainly aspects of the organization of the world. The environment also dealt with here are more than the structure of the world (pp. 96-98).

Section B. Information, text and self

The second level, especially by the environment, there are a number of the categories of Section A to make judgments about the form, structure, and to give and take. This is the level of the world. Such categories of information, structure and response, grammaticalization, degree, 'text' and 'self' (pp. 99-107).

Section C. Meaning, intention and attitude

The third level where relational dimension of a person concerns the attitudes and values of speaker and hearer. At the structure level, grammaticalization, structure and dimension of the reading level, but the person control a influence a reading and the other in the hearing. This is the 'linguistic aspect of communication'.

NOTE on phonetic symbols

Phonetic symbols are used only occasionally in this text, mainly where they are needed to illustrate a subtle or total distinction between two. We have tried to use a system of the IPA (1976) which is not based on a particular kind of speech, but this is not always possible. In British and American English, the /r/ is pronounced with or without a noticeable rhoticity, and /l/ often has a noticeable rhoticity, but in any other respect, /r/ is simply /r/ and /l/ is simply /l/. We have also used a few non-standard symbols: /w/ for /ʍ/ as in /ʍ/ in RP, /ɹ/ for /ɹ/ as in many northern accents, /ɹ/ for /r/ in such varieties as /ɹ/ in British and General American pronunciation, /ɹ/ for /r/ in the USA, and /r/ for /r/ in the rest of the English-speaking world, and /ɹ/ for /r/ in Canada. The differences between these symbols may be summarised under the following headings:

- a. English varieties are used for the same reasons. In most cases, a phonetic or phonological symbol is used to illustrate a difference between two varieties, but in some cases we choose to use a limited number of GAs, very many of them, to illustrate the category. For example:

- (1) /r/ in /red/ is /r/ or /r/ in central GA but in GA.
- (2) /r/ in /red/ is usually /r/ or /r/ in GA but in GA.
- (3) /r/ in /red/ is usually /r/ or /r/ in GA but in RP.
- (4) /r/ in /r/ is usually /r/ or /r/ in GA but in RP.
- (5) /r/ in /r/ has a more rhotic and rhoticity than /r/ in RP and in GA (which is why many British speakers use the symbol /r/ for /r/ in GA, the latter symbol is close to /r/).
- (6) /r/ in /r/ is /r/ or /r/ in GA but in GA, and often the same in GA, with the target /r/ or /r/ in the rest of the world.
- (7) /r/ in /r/ is /r/ in GA but in RP.

There are many other differences of this type which we do not present here for the sake of space.

- b. RP and GA are different systems of phonemes. Where RP has the same phonemes as GA, /r/ and /r/ in GA have only /r/ or /r/ in RP. There is, however, a difference between /r/ and /r/ in these varieties. For example:

- RP has /r/ in /r/, /r/ in /r/ with /r/ or /r/ in /r/, /r/ in /r/, /r/ in /r/.
- GA has /r/ in /r/, /r/ in /r/ with /r/ or /r/ in /r/, /r/ in /r/, /r/ in /r/.

In this text, we use the standard form of RP and GA pronunciations whenever necessary. The form of the standard form is RP, with that for the GAs. For example:

see /r/, /r/, /r/ (RP) /r/ (GA)

In other cases we present RP and GA examples in separate lists:

see /r/, /r/ (GA)

A word which we present may be omitted in the other. For example, RP does not present /r/ or /r/ in /r/ or /r/.

see /r/, /r/ (GA) /r/ (RP) /r/ (GA) /r/ (RP)

At the end of the text, a pronunciation in RP is always given together with a word, but not always with a GA pronunciation. In GA, the word /r/ is used.

see /r/, /r/ (GA) /r/ (RP)

Part One

Varieties of English

Variety label

1
As used a language professor, we of course have to know the syntactical structures of the language and their elements (1998) are the subjects of Part One and four of the book. But we also have to know what forms of a language are appropriate for given situations and, for this purpose, you will find in this course 2000 (and many other) examples of variety labels such as AmE (for American English), BrE (for British English), SCS (for Scottish English), NZE (for General American), (FrEng) (for French), and so on. (1998: 10)
These labels are reminders that the English language is, in a sense, not a single language, but many languages, each of which belongs to a particular geographical area, as well as a particular time or situation. The English used in the United States is somewhat different from the English used in Great Britain or the English used in formal written communication and it shows ways different from the English used in informal communication. (1998: 10) Usually, in a general context of the kind we are using now, many of the labels in particular refer to the variety of BrE. Our aim in this unit is to look at the variety of BrE which you will use, and to introduce the varieties of English you refer to. If you wish to refer to a particular variety in writing you may do so by means of the words for variety used in the text in the course. This then is 1998: 10.

The American one!

2
I think for the learner, more of the features of English are found in all varieties of English. We are that general feature of this kind belong to the 'grammar' of the language. Take, for instance, the three words *children*, *offspring*, and *kids*. *Children* is a common word, *offspring* is a more formal language and is used by children (e.g. in a story), *kids* is informal and familiar. It is interesting to note that we do not normally use *kids* in formal contexts. The word you would want to use most often. But part of 'learning English' is knowing to what situation it is most appropriate to use *offspring* or *kids* instead of *children*. Let us take another example, this time from grammar:

- | | |
|--|-----|
| The boy (that) John went to bed early | [1] |
| John went to bed early because he (that) was | [2] |
| John (that) went to bed early because he | [3] |

Sentence (7) is a formal and a colloquial. It could (for example) be used in both spoken and written. (1) is more formal in construction, typical of written exposition. (7) is informal, and is likely to occur in a relaxed conversation.

In this lesson you can explore some features of English which are often no longer found in the 'mainstream'.

Geographical and national varieties - (11) & (12) (see 20-32)

3
English is spoken as a native language by nearly three hundred million people in the United States of America, Canada, Britain, Ireland, Australia, the Caribbean and many other places. The range and variety of English used in the United Kingdom is striking for the most important in terms of population and influence. The reference grammatical material dealing with this book are American English (AmE) and British English (BrE). In general, (1) to (6) in the book applies equally to AmE and BrE. The grammatical differences between the two varieties (in comparison with differences of pronunciation and vocabulary) are not very great.

Here are some brief examples of how (AmE) and (BrE) can differ.

4
(1) (AmE) You've just got to be in the form of each player in 'get' whereas (BrE) has only one 'get' line (04). The 'just' is the form 'a' just in both varieties. For example:

(AmE) Have you got 'get' the tickets for the match?

(BrE) Have you got the tickets for the match?

5
(2) There is also a difference in the expected subject of the verb 'see' (see 06). In (1) it is the subject:

The cricket crowd makes the noise heard.

In (2) it is the verb:

The crowd heard makes and they heard.

6
(3) The second language often shows a difference in (AmE) but from (4) sometimes in (BrE).

(AmE) This house is different from mine.

(BrE) This house is different from mine.

7
(4) The use of the subjunctive after verbs like demand, require, suggest, suggest, etc. is more common in (AmE) than (BrE), where the construction is restricted to formal contexts (see 822):

They suggested that Smith be dropped from the team.

(AmE) and (BrE)

They suggested that Smith should be dropped from the team.

(AmE) and (BrE)

8
While each English-speaking country there are many differences of regional dialect (for example, between the English spoken in New England and in the

Southern States of the USA). These differences hardly affect grammatical usage in written English or institutional spoken English, so we shall ignore them in this text.

In representing pronunciation, we shall distinguish where necessary between General American (GA) and Received Pronunciation (RP), and indicate the pronunciation associated with GA and RP respectively. See the Note on phonetic symbols.

Written and spoken English - written 'spoken' (see 23-24)

The English in speech tends to be different from the English of writing in some fairly obvious ways. For example, in writing we tend to have more or plan our message, to think about it carefully while writing, and to revise it if it is weak if necessary. In speech (unless it is, say, a lecture prepared in advance) we have no time to do this, but most spoken messages are written.

We have just come back from New York where it was pretty clear that this was a general trend with young people there - and not from Texas either. I might describe your use of *remember* as 'a bit kind of surprising' when I know the fruits instead of *of*, the traditional *a* *fruitful* being forced to be *in* these days. I think if you were an *in* man, maybe you are very good person and they - these machines - will see or they look after their young and, obviously, these you put *in* together you and them - and they need to make that point.

Often we use in speech words and phrases like *well*, *well*, and *kind of* which add little information, but tell us something of the speaker's attitude to his audience and to what he is saying. We also often use *well* in reply with the top of *well*, *oh*, *oh*, and *oh*, and *oh*, with the bottom of what we think of what we are saying. Writing full *is* complete a sentence, or less than of our sentences and the up one grammatical sentence with another. All these features do not necessarily occur in writing.

In general, the grammar of spoken sentences is simpler and less strictly articulated than the grammar of written sentences. It is different in focus, easier to understand, and easier to process, and the connections between one clause and another are less clear. As far as the speaker is concerned, the focus is on the meaning of content (see 23-24) and on the ability to understand if he fails to understand. It is in general simpler to process, the speaker is able to rely on features of morphology, which tell us a great deal. That cannot be given in written punctuation.

In this book we treat written and spoken English as of equal importance. But sometimes, when we give illustrative marks (see 21-23) or present examples of dialogue, it will be clear that we are writing in spoken English.

Formal and informal English (see 25-26)

Formal language is the type of language we use publicly for some serious purpose, for example, in official reports, business letters and regulations. Formal

English is partly always written. Especially it is used in speech, for example in formal public speeches.

Informal language (or colloquial language) is the language of private conversation of people – wives, etc. It is the first type of language that a native speaking child learns, familiar with. Because it is more pleasant to understand than formal English, it is often used nowadays in public communications of a popular kind, for example, advertisements and popular newspapers, using simple and colloquial or informal style.

11

There are various degrees of formality, as these examples show:

- | | |
|---|-----|
| When his dad died, Peter had to get another job. | [1] |
| After his father's death, Peter had to change his job. | [2] |
| On the occasion of his father's death, Mr Brown was obliged to seek alternative employment. | [3] |

These sentences mean roughly the same thing, but would occur in different contexts. Sentence [1] could be part of a radio conversation between friends of Peter Brown. [2] is a fairly neutral (formal or colloquial) style. [3] is very formal, is fact-styled, and would only occur in a written report.

12

In English there are many differences or variations between formal and informal English. Much of the vocabulary of formal English is of French, Latin, and Greek origin, and we can often translate these terms into informal language by replacing them by such phrases of Anglo-Saxon origin as *grass-roots committee*, *bottom*, *workshop* (formal) and *Anglo*, *keep* (colloquial), etc.

- The government will (commence at 4 p.m. (formal))
(begin at 4 minutes)
concentrate its struggle against inflation.
- The government will (formal)
(begin in its fight against inflation,
(other informal)
- The government contend with a gallop of Northman's bill.
(informal)

They united the cause with Northman's son. (informal)

Many plural and prepositional verbs (see 848-853) are characteristic of the formal style.

FORMAL OR COLLOQUIAL CORE WORD	FORMALLY SPECIALIZED
argue	dispute
explore	probe
examine	inspect
learn	study
run	go in (to)
teach	put up with
investigate	look into
consider	give in

Are there to be always a direct "translation" between formal and informal English? This may be because the informal term has limited applicability (not present in formal language, or because formal language is often based on greater precision). The informal word *ok*, for instance, has no formal equivalent; instead, we have to choose a more precise and rounded term, according to the context: *agreement*, *consent* (1911); *provisional agreement*, *provisional consent*, etc. (1)

There are also some structural differences between formal and informal English: for example, the use of *where* and *when*, and the placing of a preposition at the beginning or at the end of a clause (see 579, 70, 1):

- (She looked for a friend who she could confide in. (formal),
- (She looked for a friend in whom she could confide in. (informal),
- (In what country was he born? (formal),
- (What country was he born in? (informal))

Impersonal style - impersonal

Formal written language often goes with an impersonal style: it is one in which the speaker does not refer directly to himself or his readers, but *it* stands for someone (1, etc.). Some of the common features of impersonal language are passive (see 678-82), sentence beginning with *it* (see 687, 71), and abstract nouns (see 74, 6). Each of these features is fully illustrated

by the text from *The University*:

It has been noted with concern that the stock of books in the library has been decreasing alarmingly. Students are asked to control themselves at the time for the borrowing and return of books, and to bear in mind the needs of other students. Penalties for overdue books will in the future be strictly enforced.

The author of the notice could have written a more informal and less impersonal message of this kind:

The number of books in the library has been going down. Please make sure you know the rules for borrowing, and don't forget that the library is for everybody: convenience for them now on, will be going to enforce the rules strictly. You know how things go!

Polite and familiar language - polite - (formal) (see 1-281)

45

Her message tends to be more polite when we're talking to a person we do not know well, or a person foreign to ourselves in terms of age or social position.

The opposite of "polite" is "familiar". When we know someone well, or intimately, we tend to drop politeness of language. For example, making a long (hepatic) mistake (6), *howdy* (6), *see ya* (6), *see you later* (6), *see you soon* (6), or even a nickname (155). Such English can be seen in familiar partners, like some languages for French or German (6), but familiarity can be shown in other ways. Compare, for example, these requests (see 777, 6 and 7):

Shut the door, will you? (formal)

Would you please shut the door? (polite)

I wonder if you would mind shutting the door? (more polite)

Wink the place and *hope* have the one function of indicating politeness. One can't be familiar in referring to a third person:

Peter's old woman let her soul when he came home with that
god damn the dick, very familiar. (17)

Peter's wife was very angry when he came home with the girl
from the deantheque. (contaminated zone) (18)

We judge Judge (17) to be (impolite) in that it fails to show proper respect to Peter's wife and the girl. In other words, impoliteness is actually a question of being familiar in the wrong circumstances.

16

Sentence (17) is also an example of slang. Slang is language which is very familiar, unstyle, and is rarely restricted to the accents of a particular social group. For example 'kanga slang', 'brum slang', 'theatre slang'. Slang is not usually fully understood by people outside a particular social group, and so has a value of showing the intimacy and solidarity of its members. Because of its restricted use, and that it is, we shall not be concerned with slang in this book.

Polite and sensitive language: (socially sensitive)

17

Politeness is connected with tact or diplomacy. To be tactful is to avoid causing offence or distress to someone. Sometimes tact means disguising or covering up the truth. In the following sentences, *gave* and *passed away* are ways of avoiding mentioning the unpleasant fact of Peter's father's death:

Peter's father has gone at last.

Peter's father has passed away at last.

Here is a social imperative said by Mr Brown to his new typist, Miss Smith:

Would you like to give this letter for me?

It may be Miss Smith's job to do what Mr Brown tells her to do. But by disguising his order, in the form of a question about Miss Smith's wishes, he may win her co-operation more easily.

18

A request, suggestion, etc. can be made more tactful by making it more tentative. Compare:

I suggest that we postpone the meeting until tomorrow.

May I suggest that we postpone the meeting until tomorrow?
(tentative)

Could I suggest that we postpone the meeting until tomorrow?
(tentative, more tactful)

In other cases tentativeness is not connected with tact. This is simply an indication of the speaker's reluctance to commit himself to a given question. For example, people in a more tentative way of answering possibly embarrassing questions may have made a mistake, sometimes.

Someone may have made a mistake.

Someone might have made a mistake, sometimes.

Library: Standard or Traditional language (mainly) - 'classical' - historical

19

Some features of English do (more) use have a history of widespread use before being mainly to the literary language of the past, but can still be used by a writer or public speaker to convey a sense of timelessness or to refer to the security or commonness of what he has to say. An example of such a word became common in the language of President Kennedy (1961):

Let the world gather from the sun and globe to friend and foe
alike, that we seek not to excel in a new generation of
American...

The sentence has a historical (and/or) sense just in use, and does not refer to an elevated or formalized use (20)

In addition to the various labels (library and 'classical') we sometimes use for the word label 'historical'. This signifies the best use of language when it is spoken or written, often a word or phrase that is an example of creative effect. A good example of this is the so-called 'historical question', which is meant to be interpreted as an emphatic statement:

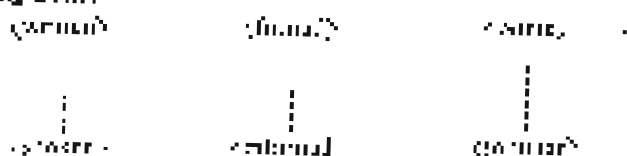
Is it my work that I like to use or intend? Is there an
answer out? (21)

Although we often find these in the literature of the past, the literary standard and historical forms of language are the quality for a speaker of the everyday language of today, and we shall only refer to them occasionally in this book.

Levels of usage

20

Apart from the historical words of 'ArdE' and 'ModE', the diachronic types of English we have discussed belong to diachronic levels or ranges. We might attempt to show them on a scale, from the least to the most, as follows: to 'classical' of the main systems. That is, primarily below, in the main, to think of the range of contrasting levels:



This diagram represents only the most important levels of usage, and ignores the many other and varied labels (such as 'literary', 'modern', and 'classical'). The features at the top of the diagram tend to get higher, and likewise those at the bottom. But this need not be the case. For example, it is possible to express oneself politely in spoken English, and it is possible to express oneself informally in written English.

21

In this book we shall use the more liberal terminology for levels of usage, because we had it a long time ago, and we give you a useful guide to the usage of the language of English grammar. In fact, we do not use the same word for all of the English style changes, or for some of our uses of these labels. This is because the

register, the 'style of usage' is very much a subjective matter, depending on the intuition of individuals who use the language. For example, an older English speaker might regard as 'familiar' a form of language which might not occur to a younger English speaker. We would like to see, as these 1998 examples in particular use of the language, not so much to consider them as examples of particular varieties as 'representations'.

Again, we emphasize that examples and constructions which are not marked for variety taking may be considered to belong to the common core of English.

Selected list of variety references

23

In these sections we try to explain the characteristics of different varieties of English. In every case, we give a list of references to sample texts in the rest of this book. For this purpose we must sometimes use the right most important variety above, and for a selection of the more important references to *Cambridge Reference Online* editions.

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Part Two

Intonation

21

You will need some knowledge of English pronunciation to fully understand English grammar. This is because features of intonation are important for denoting grammatical differences such as that between statements and questions. Here we concentrate on explaining those intonational ideas and intonation which play a significant role in grammar, and which therefore need to be discussed and explained in Part Three. The features we have to explain are:

Stress	(symbolised by ')
Intonation	(symbolised by underlining)
Word and Tone	intonation boundaries (as marked by)
	a) falling tone (symbolised by ')
	b) rising tone (symbolised by ')
	c) 'up-bow' tone (symbolised by ' or ')

22

23

The rhythm of English is based on stress. In unmarked speech, we feel the rhythm of the language in the sequence of stresses exhibited. Between one stressed syllable and another there may occur one or more unstressed syllables. The stressed syllables in these examples are preceded by ', and the unstressed syllables are underlined:

We've **de**cided to **go** to the industrial exhibition
Can you **t**ell me the **ex**act time of **trav**el?

This means that the syllables in certain bold words are stressed

We've **de**cided to **go** to the **ex**hibition.
Can you **t**ell me the **ex**act time of **trav**el?

24

The normal rules for pronunciation are as follows:

- The *stressed* syllables which are stressed are:
 - one-syllable words of major importance (you, **go**, time, **trav**el, **ex**act, **trav**el, **ex**hibition, **ex**hibition, **ex**hibition)
 - the unstressed syllables of words of more than one syllable of major word class, e.g. **de**cided, **trav**el, **ex**hibition.
- The *unstressed* syllables which are unstressed are:

- c) words of three syllables (see 664-6), eg *pronounced* (prɪn'əʊnst) *pronounced* (prɪn'əʊnst) *pronounced* (prɪn'əʊnst)
- d) the unstressed syllables of words of more than one syllable, eg *disturb*, *excuse*, *honest*.

There is no easily-learned rule as to which syllable of a word of more than one syllable is accented. As we saw above, many words have word stress, so that the first syllable of *appear* is accented, not the second syllable of *appear* (the second syllable of *appearance*), but the first syllable of *appear* below. The placing of stress is also variable according to sentence context, emphasis, speed of utterance, etc., and all the rules above are not without exceptions.

24

One point to notice is that a prepositional phrase (see 7-9) belongs to a verb, adjective, and/or infinitive clause, whereas a concessive proposition (see 744) is usually unstressed. Contrast:

The head has not been kept in (prepositional)

The fingered man was laughed in (prepositional adjunct)

The same contrast is sometimes seen between the particle of a prepositional verb (see 649) and the particle of a phrasal verb (see 698-9):

He's settling in on our fact (prepositional verb)

He's putting on a fine (phrasal verb)

But the particle may also be unstressed:

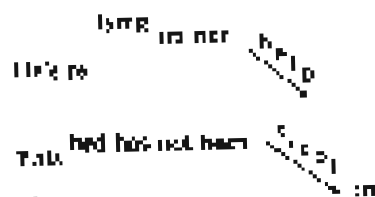
Make up your mind

In the examples in my book, stress will be marked only where it is necessary for the point illustrated.

Accent

25

Not all stressed syllables are of equal importance. Some stressed syllables have greater prominence than others, and form the nucleus, or focal point, of an intonation pattern. For intonation purposes we may describe a nucleus as a strongly stressed syllable which marks a major change of pitch direction, or where the pitch goes up or down. The change of pitch on the nucleus is indicated by an arrow in these and other examples:



In both these examples, the nucleus marks a decisive fall in pitch towards the end of the sentence. (The stem *up* is given on the first one as *up* and *down*, is something which will not concern us in our analysis.) A nucleus is always stressed, hence it is marked in my 7 syllable mark before it. Often, in our examples, we simply indicate the nucleus without indicating the other stressed syllables:

He's settling in on our fact.

This had not been settling.

Footnote

36

The basic unit of intonation in English is the tone unit. A tone unit, for our purposes, will be defined as a stretch of speech which contains one nucleus, and which may contain other stressed syllables, normally preceding the nucleus. The boundary of a tone unit is marked by the symbol

↑ (rising on our be)

This sea has not been discovered.

In these examples, a tone unit is the long nucleus, one element. But a nucleus may contain two or more tone units. The number of tone units depends on the length of the sentence, and the degree of intonation given to its parts of it. The two, if possible, tone units in the previous example would be

This sea has not been discovered.

In addition, if intonation is not expressed in the nucleus, the boundary between two tone units is not marked. The following sentence might be pronounced with a nucleus of three tone units, as indicated.

Last August I planned to go with my parents to France.

I planned August to go with my parents to France.

Of course, a nucleus does not necessarily contain an even number of tone units, as we saw in the greater example than usually set over there.

Tone

37

By tone, we mean the pitch of the voice which stresses pitch on the nucleus. The basic intonation contours in English, and the only ones we need to discuss here, are the contour \uparrow and \downarrow ; if we mark tone (\uparrow and \downarrow) for the first three of our 12

↑ How's a cup of tea for you?

↑ Are you all in the west time again?

↓ I can't follow you to be thin.

The business can be stress fringe | so they is one.

These can be used to give the nucleus a

↑ Business | cup of tea | for you

↑ Are you | all in the west | time again?

↓ I can't | follow you | to be thin |

↑ The business | can be stress | fringe | so they is | one

33

The second number determines the part of the rest of the sentence following it. That's often a fairly long time, the rest of the turn until you start the phrase. So you're using time, the rest of your turn, and moves in order, so you need direction. Complete

(the number, the number) | but he's not really ¹ interested in it |

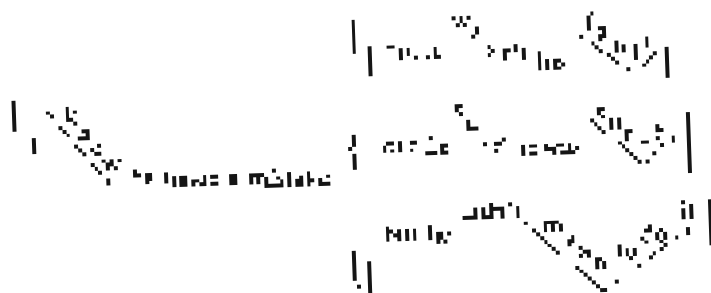
| but here ²are, really ³the ⁴most ⁵valued ⁶in it |

(the number, the number) | Are you really interested in it? |

| Are you really ¹interested ²in ³it? |

34

The third case here, as it is to be expected, is an off a fall or rise followed by a rise. This is usually the low syllable of the treatment, or the full number built into the rise of the syllable—the one, clear syllable. In this case, the low syllable is the remainder of the tone unit. Complete



We symbolize these three forms

1) $L \rightarrow \text{mid} \rightarrow \text{high}$

2) $L \rightarrow \text{mid} \rightarrow \text{high}$

3) $L \rightarrow \text{mid} \rightarrow \text{high}$

Where the use of the letter L occurs in a diagram symbolizes the mid-level, so in the first example, we are going up at the same pitch level as we go on the high and in the middle of the low, so we go up. This is the same as the one in the first example, but it is the same as the one in the first example.

The meaning of tone

40

The meaning of tone is not difficult to specify in general terms. Roughly speaking, the various tones we need for 'tone' (in the sense of 'intonation') are: 'straightforward statement', 'question', 'surprise', 'interest', 'disbelief'. This / straightforward statement normally goes with a fall in tone, since it is a statement of fact or opinion, and it is a statement of fact or opinion.

A word is new on the main level, especially if it comes in the English version of the sentence. A word is new on the 7th level, usually in a different way, as the speaker is already familiar with it, though it is strikingly new:

A: *Wasn't Kristen in the class? (Cris. = she was.)

Even when the subject is familiar, the 7th level can be often strikingly new, e.g. *Wasn't she in the class? because this is the first occasion when the speaker shows his full understanding of the main situation:

A: You like going on the air and being on the air?

42

Take a word or words from the commands, imperatives, e.g. *Don't forget to call me, or the actually spoken utterances, e.g. *Don't forget to call me:

(A) Don't forget to call me? (B) Don't forget to call me and not forget to call me.

Don't forget to call me.

The Don't forget to call me falling tone would sound impolite.

The type of rising tone has a more striking effect, it seems to imply that in other cases, and especially during adult life, the speaker cannot remember something. We do not distinguish, however, between falling and rising tones in the 7th level.

43

A word may come as an object, e.g. *Don't forget to call me, meaning 'I forgot to call you, and I want you to call me again' and 'Don't forget to call me, I forgot to call you'. As the falling intonation is characteristic of the object, the falling intonation is also characteristic of the subject. This suggests that there is something new in a 7th level:

Don't forget to call me and not forget to call me? (It may be somebody else's.)

(A) Don't forget to call me? (B) Don't forget to call me and not forget to call me.

(C) Don't forget to call me? (D) Don't forget to call me and not forget to call me and not forget to call me and not forget to call me.

At the beginning or in the middle of a sentence, it is a more successful alternative to the rising tone, especially the variation of the rising tone, together with the intonation of the whole, particularly in focus:

[Don't forget to call me and not forget to call me]

Don't forget to call me and not forget to call me and not forget to call me.

Part Three

Grammar in use

Section A: Concepts

Referring to objects, substances and materials

41

It is through nouns and noun phrases that grammar expresses the way we refer to objects. We begin with a simple noun, or nouns referring to objects and substances with physical existence. (We shall use the word 'object' to refer generally to things, animals, people, etc.) Our first example will be a word used to designate nouns, and the various constructions in which they are linked by *and*.

Singular and plural: one and many

42

Count nouns refer to the singular to one object, and to the plural to more than one object:

Apple

Pine



an apple

two apples

a pine tree

two pines

three pines

some pine trees

Groups of objects

43

We may refer to objects as belonging to a group of size:



1 group of 3 stars

1 small group of 5 stars

1 large group of 10 stars

Group nouns

47

Nouns like *group*, which refer to a set of objects, are called **group nouns**. Group nouns, however, can be singular or plural. For instance, they go over of *groups*.

Often a special plural noun is used with certain kinds of objects:

an army (of soldiers)	a crew (of sailors)
a crowd (of people)	a group (of friends, business, etc.)
a handful (of rice)	a team (of people)
a pack (of sheep)	a consultation (of time)

Many group nouns refer to a group of people having a special relationship with one another, or brought together for a particular reason (e.g. *parliament, parliament, club, audience, jury, committee, administration, team, etc.*). With these nouns, there is a choice of whether to use a singular or plural verb, depending on whether you mean the group as a whole or the sum of its members (see 53):

The audience <u>is</u> enjoying the show.	(1)
The government <u>have</u> / <u>make</u> up its mind.	(2)
(make up its mind) / <u>is</u> in a hurry.	
(make up their minds)	

Nouns like *rice* differ from nouns like *tea* because its whole is singular but its parts are plural.

Note

Rice is actually not a group noun, but the plural of *rice* (see 67).

Portion: part and whole

48

Parts of objects can be referred to by noun phrases like *part* (collocated with *of*), *bit*, *a quantity*, *one*, *slice*, *cup*; also by noun phrases like *piece*, *bit*:



one (whole) cake



a slice of the cake



bit (of) the cake



one quarter of the cake

part of the cake

Mass nouns

49

Mass nouns (sometimes called 'uncountable' nouns) typically refer to substances, whether liquid or solid (e.g. *water, butter, sugar, jam, milk, coffee, etc.*) (see 54). Mass nouns are *things* (not *things*) (e.g. *pieces of rubber, iron*). The quantity of a mass substance which is not naturally divisible into separate objects. You can say:

- There's some milk in the refrigerator.
- There are two bottles of milk in the left gutter.
- There are some milks in the refrigerator.
- There are two bottles in the left gutter. (see 50)

but not:

Some materials we might expect to be 'solidly' discrete, because the 'substance' is divisible into separate things: for example, a mass of 'pieces of furniture', grass, or separate pieces of grass, soil of separate strands of hair (or leaves), a mass of separate pieces of wood. But factually, naturally we think of such things as in divisible when we use a mass noun.

On this basis, 'counting' count nouns (two eggs, several months) etc. are 23.

Division of objects and substances

25a) mass:

50

As with single objects, masses can be subdivided by the use of nouns like *part*:
Part of the time, the matter

In addition, there are many countable sub-units, as we saw last time, which can be used to subdivide naturally a mass into separate 'pieces', *pieces of* etc. (informal) - are general purpose unit nouns, which can be combined with mass nouns:

a piece of wood a piece of paper a piece of land

There are also unit nouns which typically go with a particular mass noun:

a bundle of grass a sheet of paper

a block of ice a piece of iron

a pile of rubbish a bar of chocolate

a lump of sugar a loaf of bread

As with pair nouns, unit nouns are linked to the other noun by *of*:

Measure of mass:

51

The way to divide a mass into separate 'pieces' is to measure it off (see length, weight, etc.):

measure a cup of water weigh a lump of lead

measure a yard of cloth

weigh an ounce of tobacco measure a pint of beer

a pound of butter a quart of milk

a can of oil a gallon of oil

Quality of mass:

52

Here is another type of division: nouns like *type*, *kind*, *sort*, *species*, *class*, *category* can divide a mass or a set of objects into 'types of things':

There is a type of wood.

A Ford is a make of car.

A tiger is a species of mammal.

You can use either the singular or plural of a count noun following a plural special noun:

I like three kinds of {
 food. (countable)
 food. (uncountable)}

We usually prefer the special noun (rather than the noun which follows):

24 a Japanese make of car will be made in (Japanese car)

- a different kind of sound
- a change of place of material

Note that the second form, when used, may be used as *indefinite article* or *change of place of material* rather than *a change of place of material*.

In *infinitive*'s English, there is a *not* construction in which the *not* is *not* (i. e.) and the verb is plural, although the person *not* is singular:

- Three kind of dogs are easy to train. (ironical)
- The kind of dog is easy to train. (square female)

Some words use the *not* construction:

53
Quite a number of nouns can be both count and non-count (24). Three for instance is count after a *not*-type following of these (a *not*), and non-count when it refers to the number of items used (the compound).

- We went for a walk in the woods.
- Especially many of the houses are made of wood.

Many food forms are count when they refer to an article or a whole item but are non-count when they refer to the food in the *not* type as water or milk:

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| She has a glass of | Will you like green tea? |
| We grow our own carrots. | A good example of a noun is an |
| I bought a bunch of eggs. | There's some egg left in the |
| | pan. |

It is also a *not* when a *not* is present, or

On the other hand, in many cases English has a separate count noun and a separate non-count meaning of the same noun or meaning:

- | | |
|-------|-------|
| noise | noise |
| noise | noise |
| noise | noise |
| noise | noise |
| noise | noise |
| noise | noise |
| noise | noise |

Some of the words which are usually made count or 'recounted' into count and non-count nouns are:

- May I have two sugars in my coffee? (two lumps of sugar)
- Some of the best coffee is made in Turkey. (kinds of beans)

Others are to the opposite happens count nouns are 'unrecounted' into non-count after a kind of *not* or a few other *not* words which are *not* count.

Abstract nouns

54
Abstract nouns are nouns which refer to things, ideas, feelings, etc. Just like the count nouns they can be used with *a*, *one*, *many*, *some*, *more*, and *most*. Abstract nouns can be either count or non-count, although these nouns cannot be counted in a physical sense.

occasional nouns.

Meaning referring to events and things (e.g. *grad, exam, class, meeting, lecture, study, course*):

- ① had a talk with him
- ② There was a first lesson at the door
- ③ The committee had six meetings

But not with other nouns like *school, thought, answer, or a mass noun*:
④ *She has a school* (not OK).

- ⑤ *He has a place to better himself*
- ⑥ *He was deep in thought*

Other nouns tend to be mass nouns: *history, geography, mathematics, physics, etc.*

- ⑦ *His speech is often a product of his own and hard work*
- ⑧ *His speech was followed by an epidemic*
- ⑨ *Every man has a sense of duty*
- ⑩ *He is engaged in scientific research*

58

Notice that the following nouns are mass nouns: *English, bar, net, in some cases for languages, nations, anger, behaviour, stress, weather, change, activity, love, anxiety, news, poverty, water, light, shopping, travelling, marriage, science*.

But again, not all such nouns (by reputation, definition, or common use) will have the same difference of meaning:

- ① *We had little argument concerning art*
- ② *As a result of his financial difficulties*
- ③ *He is a politician of many years' experience*
- ④ *As a result of his many years' experience*
- ⑤ *I have some work to do this evening*
- ⑥ *They stayed last week by an unknown English comedian*

Some abstract nouns which are usually mass nouns become count nouns when their meaning is limited by specific reference to a person, etc.

- ⑦ *He has had a good education*
- ⑧ *She pays Mozart with a rare grace and delivery of which no other female*

59

Definition of abstract nouns is illustrated by

Part of his education was in Cambridge

Meaning: *Education in these places:*

education	a (good) piece of time	a (small) bit of time
education	a (small) part of	an (interesting) lesson or class
education	a (small) piece of	work
education	a (small) piece of work	an (interesting) lesson or class
education	three months of hard work	work
education	five different humans	a (small) part of education
education	land work (see 56)	(informal)

Amount or quantity

Amount words (or quantities) are 70% of

57

Amount words like all, some and more can be applied to both count and mass nouns:

(A) **APPLIED TO COUNT NOUNS**, they are equivalent to part nouns.



all of the cake
(= the whole of
the cake)



some of the cake
(= part of the cake)

none of the cake

(B) **APPLIED TO MASS NOUNS**



all (of) the mass



some of the mass

none of the mass

(C) **APPLIED TO MASS NOUNS**



all of the land



some of the land

none of the land

Note these relations of meaning between all, some and none

- { some of the class were available
- { not all (of) the class were available
- { none of the class were available
- { = all (of) the class were available

88

Other important words closely associated with the meaning 'some'

	WITH COUNT NOUNS	WITH MASS NOUNS
A LARGE AMOUNT	many (count) (thousands) a lot (uncount) a large amount	much (count) (thousands) a lot (uncount) a great deal
A SMALL AMOUNT	a few a small amount	a little
NOT A LARGE AMOUNT	not many few	not much little

Note that few and little without a large negative are stronger (a few = a small number) in their usuals posed for examination (few = not many) of the students passed the examination.

The number *three*, *two*, *one* and the fraction words *half*, *third*, *one-fourth* and *one-fifth* are among words whose definite form is formed by *of*. Most of the *of* and *some* words, however, another quantity word, meaning slightly more than 1/200. The comparative words *smaller*, *larger*, and the speculative words *over*, *under*, and *ballooning* and *one-fourth* is generally transferred to the noun form *one-fourth*.

3. The structure of the majority of (both formal) and informal English and group nouns.

The majority of these nouns are group nouns, e.g. *collection* of the *one-fourth*.

A majority of the administrative nouns were referred to the noun *collection* with the *of*, in a similar manner, e.g. *one-fourth*.

Meaning and use

59

Many and *much* can be treated words of quantity, used, for example, in comparative and superlative forms, as questions, e.g. *How much?* Compare the usual and most words in:

	COMMON		FORMAL
(A)	How many of the milk have you, <i>many</i> ?	(A)	How many of the formal have you, <i>many</i> ?
	A lot of them		A lot of it
	Most of them		Most of it
	A bit of them		A bit of it
	Half of them		Half of it
(B)	Several of them	(B)	A few of it
	A few of them		A few of it
	Three of them		Three of it
	None of them		None of it

Informal use of amount words

60

Amount words are very frequent used with the phrase *a definite number* for 'quantity' (expressed by the number of the thing) and with *how many* to ask a question. Now, as much as the phrase *a definite number* is not used with *many*, when the phrase is a unit, the phrase *a definite number* is used as a determiner (see 57) and *of* and *the* are omitted (as in *a few of a great deal of, a number of* etc.):

<i>many</i>	<i>How</i>
<i>a few</i> (as in <i>a few of</i>)	<i>A few</i> (as in <i>a few of</i>)
<i>a lot</i> (as in <i>a lot of</i>)	<i>A lot</i> (as in <i>a lot of</i>)
<i>many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)	<i>Many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)
<i>many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)	<i>Many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)
<i>many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)	<i>Many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)
<i>many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)	<i>Many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)
<i>many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)	<i>Many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)
<i>many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)	<i>Many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)
<i>many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)	<i>Many</i> (as in <i>many of</i>)

On {problem 1, problem 2} problems. As soon has been noted, it

in informal style a *choice of two* is preferred to *a set* or *such* in such contexts:

These people have much pleasure in examining music records.
(formal)

These records give a lot of fun to lots of people. (informal)

But in questions and after negatives, *such* is more and much are not restricted in (formal) English:

He doesn't smoke *such* cigars.

Do many people attend the race *such*?

Words in general in the extra reading:

41

50. *Such* (with *such*, *such* and *such* used) can be an adjective words of the *such* meaning.

With count nouns, *such* is used for quantities of more than one, and *such* for uncountable nouns:

The club is *such* a group of both sexes and of nationalities.

42 *Such* (with)

41

Words like *such* and *such* can be used simply, not, because they pick out a member of a set of given single nouns that look at them all together. Apart from this difference, *such* has the same meaning as *such*:

1. *Such* good teachers are the best of their subjects. (formal) [1]

2. *Such* good teachers are the best of their subjects. (informal) [2]

The difference in the meaning of *such* shows in the use of singular forms *teacher*, *chair*, *tea* in [2].

43

Such is like *such* except that it can be used when the set has only two members, *such* and *such* and *such* can be used, replace *such*.

51. *Such* (with *such*) of the parents.

Note also the difference between:

1. He gives his mother love to all the girls. [1]

2. He gives his mother love to $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{each} \\ \text{every one} \end{array} \right\}$ of the girls. [2]

[1] may mean that the girls shared one box of chocolates. [2] may mean that there were as many boxes of chocolates as girls. Like every in making the copy and compare, everything and everything.

44 *Such* (with)

42

The most common use of the sentence here and *such* is in negative sentences and questions (see 41. 1), but here we consider the use of *such* in the *such*.

52. *Such* can sometimes replace *such* and *such* in positive sentences:

Any good teacher should be able to handle both. [1]

31

Positions on a scale of amount can be expressed not only through the words already discussed (which are determined, of, particular) but by pronouns like *many*, *several*, *quite*, and by adverbs of frequency such as *often*. We show some of the correspondences between different areas of meaning in the following table:

量词	数量	程度	频率	频率	数量	程度
(see 265-271)	(see 272-275)	(see 276-277)	(see 278-281)	(see 282)	(see 283-284)	(see 285-290)
all	all, every, each	everyone, everybody	every-thing	always	always, forever	absolutely, entirely, all
most (majority)	most, a first, majority	many, people	many, things	often, frequently	often, very often	very, most, much
some	some	some, a few, somebody	some-thing	often	often, very often	many, several, quite
a little	a few	a few, people	a few, things	occasionally	often, very often	a little, a bit
little	few	few, people	few, things	rarely, seldom	rarely, seldom	rarely, seldom
none	no one, nobody	no one, nobody	nothing	never	never	not at all, not a bit
any	any	any, a, anybody	any-thing	ever	—	at all

Definite and indefinite meaning

Uses of the definite article

69

When we use the definite article we presume that both we and our hearer know what is being talked about. This is not the case when we use the indefinite article. Most of the words we have considered so far are indefinite, but if we want to express indefinite meaning without any coded meaning of amount, etc., we use the indefinite article *any* (with *anybody*, *count*, *namely*) or the zero indefinite article with *mass nouns* or *plural count nouns* (see below: *benefit* vs. *benefits* or *any* vs. *anyone*? Or *was* / *the* / *decision*?)

There are some circumstances in which definite meaning arises

70

We use the definite article:

- (A) When identity has been established by an earlier mention (often with an indefinite article):

John bought a TV and a radio, but he regretted the radio.

FIRST

PARAGRAPH

DEFINING

FUNCTION

We call this the cross-reference use of the

71

- (B) When identity is established by the postnominal use 71a; that follows the noun:

John returned the radio he bought yesterday.

The string $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{of France} \\ \text{which I never possessed} \end{array} \right\}$ and the loc. in the
word,

The discovery of radium marked the beginning of a new era
of scientific.

This is the reference use of the.

72

- (C) When the object or group of objects is the only one that exists or has existed: *the stars, the earth, the world, the sea, the North Pole, the equator, the Arctic region, the Antarctic etc.*

The North Pole and the South Pole are equally distant from
the equator.

This is the unique use of the, and it also means or is referred to as 'unmarked' or 'basic' with the context: *the sea, the ocean, the kitchen, the street, the Queen, the President, etc.* We could, if we wished, make the definite meaning clear by postnominal use even belonging to the same: *the Arctic of old times, the Queen of this country, etc.* but this would normally be unnecessary and tedious.

73

- (D) When reference is made to an institution shared by the community: *the radio, the television, the telephone, the papers; his car, your car, the train, etc.*

What's in my paper(s) today?

He went to London on the train - by train.

Sometimes even *the* the article may be omitted: *get into your car, my car, etc.*
What's on the telly on tonight?

Generic

74

The definite article also has a generic use referring to what is generic or typical for a whole class of objects. This is found with count nouns:

The tiger is a beautiful animal. [1]

Here we indicate the class of tigers, not one individual member of the class. Thus [1] expresses essentially the same meaning as [2] and [3]:

Tigers are beautiful animals. [2]

A tiger is a beautiful animal. [3]

[2] is the general use of the plural indefinite form; [3] is the generic use of the indefinite article. Thus when we are dealing with a whole class of objects, the differences between definite and indefinite, singular and plural, tend to lose their significance. There is, however, a slight difference in the fact that the *tiger* tiger and tigers in the species as a whole, while a *tiger* (generic) refers to any member of the species. We can say:

The tiger is in danger of becoming extinct.
but *any* tiger is in danger of becoming extinct.

71 Notice that the unstressed use of some items (see 55) cannot be used with nouns in the generic sense:

I find *some* eggs and *hason* for breakfast.
but *Eggs* and *hason* are good for you

Specific versus generic meaning

72 [1] normally is the generic use of the definite article, all the other four uses (see 70-3) may be called *specific*. For most nouns, there is only one specific form that with the same article:

Water is composed of hydrogen and oxygen.

The ways of expressing generic meaning can be summarized in the table:

	count	mass
indefinite meaning	the eggs	
	a tiger	water
	tigers	

As the table shows, the definite article with mass nouns, and also with plural nouns (for the recognition of generic/plural use, see 67-4) always evokes. The following examples illustrate generic meaning with countable mass nouns, plural mass nouns, and plural nouns:

- I like *the wine*, French *plum*, *Swiss* *cheese*, ...
- I like *the music*, English *literature*, contemporary art, ...
- I like *the dogs*, horses, classical *languages*, ...

In specific use, *some* nouns take the definite article:

SPECIFIC USE	GENERIC USE
a) <i>The butter</i> is delicious.	<i>Butter</i> is expensive nowadays.
b) <i>The group</i> was poor, but we enjoyed <i>the music</i> .	<i>Groups</i> have <i>weak</i> and <i>strong</i> .
Before you visit Spain, you ought to learn <i>the language</i> .	<i>The</i> versatility of <i>language</i> is called <i>linguistics</i> .
c) Come and look at <i>the horses</i> !	<i>Horses</i> are my favorite animals.

73 Notice that English tends to treat mass nouns and plural nouns as generic when they are unmodified. But when they are post-modified, especially by an *as*-phrase, 37

The definite article normally has to be present. This is especially the case with abstract masculine nouns:

the French nation	the history of France
the French society	the politics of the House of Lords of Britain
every individual in France	the architecture of the early middle ages
the individualism	the behaviour of animals

The identity of a noun marked with the definite article is not put in doubt. We can say:

the house of the king of France	(the) furniture of the cathedral
the king of France	(the) king of the kingdom

Collective nouns and group nouns

36

We never use *un* with persons. The lack of a class of masculine nouns for collective nouns poses the following problem: to denote the presence of this or that class, the masculine definite article (see 34-5). Some nouns are by themselves (mostly the plural) marked as being plural, the context is not relevant for a particular class: the nation, the people, the masses, the nation (Held 1980: 77). In the former instance, we do not generally use the definite article, we say *the Middle Ages*, *Karl the Great*, *the king*.

- The Middle Ages (well known by their dating) } masculine
 the king (well known by their dating) }
 The Middle Ages (not dated) } feminine

Most group nouns use the masculine, like *the king*, *the administrator*, *the Government*. Some can be used with either a masculine or a plural noun (see 47):

Other words of definite meaning

37

Apart from certain nouns for women, the only nouns with *de*, the full being, words, denote a unique or plural-unique meaning:

the name of the law (1971), the name of Europe, the name of Africa, etc.
the name of the king (see 18: 17, 30, 31, 34), the king
the name of the man who was arrested (see 24: 5), the king, the king, the king, etc.

The definite article is used in a limiting sense of the types of reference we have already discussed (see 30-32).

Proper nouns

38

Proper nouns are distinguished by a unique reference. In all cases, unique reference is context-dependent: *Africa* refers to the particular continent, and *France* to a given conversation refers to one particular person. Usually we do not use articles (except before the singular proper noun (see 35: 9)).

But some may prefer nouns that **do not** change into uncountable ones. This applies, for example, when there is a possible contrast to be seen between things of the same nature, and in such a case *the* is used:

the Soviet *and* west *doctors* (not the Soviet *and* west *workers* in your office) (4)

the New York *of* very *books* (not the New York *of* reading) (5)

In (5), as in many cases of proper nouns requiring no article, it is usual to distinguish between two things of the same nature, but two aspects of the same thing. The book sometimes used with pronouns is the *young Shakespeare*, like that of Kennedy, but with (1) it comes from generally from a *London* (there is a, naturally, every *London*, where there is one).

In the same way proper nouns sometimes change to plurals:

I know several Mr Williams (= people called "Mr Williams").

He was a friend of the Kennedys (= the family known as "Kennedy").

A proper noun may also sometimes follow the indefinite article:

The prize was given by a Dr Rosenham.

This means to mention Dr Rosenham, to whom you won't have heard of.

Third person pronouns

BE

Third person pronouns (he, she, it, they) are usually definite because they refer back to a previous mention. In a sense, they 'replace' an earlier noun, at least

I played tennis *and* *she* *was* *very* good. (= *she* = *the* *player*) mentioned.

HE SHE IT	PERSON	SINGULAR	PERSON
-----------------	--------	----------	--------

Concrete nouns are replaced by he, she, it, or they as follows:

he (he, he) refers to a male person (or animal);

she (she, she) refers to a female person (or animal);

it (it, it) refers to an inanimate object or animal;

they (they, they) refers to anything plural.

BE

He and *she* are used for people when we think of them as having the personal qualities of human beings (by family name).

How *do* you *know* Rover *the* dog's name?

It is otherwise used for animals, and sometimes for babies and very young children, especially when their sex is unknown or unimportant.

The dog *was* *barking* in *the* kennel.

The baby *was* *crying* in *the* ^{nest.} (B+E)
 _{pram.} (A+B)

She is sometimes used for inanimate objects (especially ships) where we think of them as having animate qualities.

What *a* lovely *ship!* What *is* *she* called?

She can also be used of countries seen as political or cultural units, rather than as geographical units:

Last year *the* *US* *was* *increased* *for* *accounts* *to* *10* *per* *cent*.

Where *but* is used, it is replaced by a preposition, the use of the preposition varies, but it is used rather than *but*.

A mother **for** someone who gives up his life for his beliefs.

Where *and* is used, singular nouns and nouns are replaced by *it*:

The washed my hair **and** it won't keep it.

Where *it* is used, *it* is used.

First and second person pronouns

85

The 2nd and 3rd person pronouns have reference in the singular as follows:

<i>you, you, you</i>	the speaker
<i>he, he, he, etc.</i>	a group of people, including the speaker
<i>you, you, you</i>	'the hearer' (single)
	'a group of people, including the hearer, but excluding the speaker' (plural)

Sometimes a distinction is made between 'inclusive we', where it includes the hearer (= you and I) and 'exclusive we', where it excludes the hearer:

Let's go to the dance tonight, shall we? (inclusive we)

We've arranged meeting you (exclusive we)

Let's go to the cinema. (I and Mrs Robertson, to their guests)

Inclusive *we* (2) is often used by writers of texts:

We must be careful in page 200 (inclusive)

Let us now turn to another topic

Note

(a) It is sometimes used in order to be more formal, especially in writing, where it would be equally appropriate. As we discussed in Chapter 2...

(b) There is a playful, teasing use of *we* referring to the hearer, eg a doctor talking to a child's parent: (this is a way of saying 'I'm not going to do this!')

Inclusive use of pronouns: *we, you, etc.*

86

There is a narrow use of *we* to mention three persons with inclusive generic reference to people.

One (singular) is another (generic and impersonal) pronoun, meaning 'people in general' (including you and me). This is a (formally) equivalent:

One never knows what may happen. (formal)

You never know what may happen. (informal)

They can also be used indefinitely in (informal) English, but with a different meaning from *one* and *you*. It means roughly 'people generally' (you and me):

They say it's going to rain tomorrow. (= 'People say...')

Note

In (formal) and (formal) AmE, *one* is used to refer back to a previous use of *one*: In (formal) AmE, *he* can also be used instead. In (informal) AmE, *you* is used

One should always look after $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{one's BrE and formal AmE} \\ \text{one's (formal AmE)} \\ \text{one's (informal AmE)} \end{array} \right\} \text{ money.}$

Pointer words

87

We use the same pointer words for words like the demonstratives *this* and *that*, which refer by pointing to something more abstract. They can have three different uses:

88

(A) Pointer words can be used to point to something mentioned earlier:

I don't like to force the door open, but *it* often was a mistake.

(B) Pointer words can be FORWARD-POINTING if they are used to something to be mentioned later:

This is how you CAN do it: you make sure the gears are in neutral, and then the handbrake first, then turn the ignition key.

(C) Pointer words can be OUTWARD-POINTING if they can point to something in the context outside the speaker:

Would you like to sit in the chair (=the one by the door) or in the car? (=the one by the main door there.)

This is such a nice town and so close to the sea (=in geographical, or even in social, or psychological terms). *This* identifies something outside the speaker.

89

On this page, we first separate these uses of pointer-words, then return to the generalising use of these meanings and their related to the (more frequent) 'forward-pointing' meanings. Most members of each class are:

The <i>this</i> -type:	<i>this</i> (singular)	<i>here</i> (=in this place)
	<i>these</i> (plural)	<i>anywhere</i> (=in this zone)
The <i>that</i> -type:	<i>that</i> (singular)	<i>there</i> (=in that place)
	<i>those</i> (plural)	<i>there</i> (=in that zone)

(usually in the past)

This contrast of meaning is less clear in back-pointing and forward-pointing uses. *This* and *that* can replace each other with no difference in meaning in back-pointing, but not in forward-pointing. For forward-pointing, only *this*, and the *this*-type words *these*, *here*, and *anywhere* can be used (but see 89):

This is what I thought. (forward-pointing only)

That is what I thought. (back-pointing only)

Notice the opening and closing of a radio news bulletin:

Here is the news... (forward-pointing)

... And *that's* the end of the news. (back-pointing)

90

You use forward-pointing when the meaning is defined by a postmodifier: *those who use *this** (= 'people who use *this*') (see 348).

share and that is 'familiar' and that 'goes back' to a common way to share shared knowledge of the speaker and hearer. Have you seen the report about smoking? (= 'a report I know about'). It gives you the great feeling of shared and common space (= 'the feeling we all know about'). The cat also behaved (familiarly) as appropriate commenting now in a narrative: I was walking along the area, when this perfume was on me ... (= 'I got it from going to the shop about')

Relations between ideas expressed by nouns

Relations expressed by *of*

71

The basic idea of *of* used in phrases of partition, division, and amount

the top of the house

a roof or one

a group of stars

a lot of difficulty

Of is also used more generally as a means of indicating semantic relations between the meanings of two nouns.

the roof of the house

(the house has a roof; the roof is part of the house)

a friend of my father's

(my father has a friend)

the courage of the dreamer

(the dreamer has courage, the dreamer and courage)

the end of the world

(the world ends ...)

the end of the rope (there are signs of it)

(someone uses the rope until it is a sign)

a glass of wine

(the glass has wine in it, the glass contains wine)

people of the Middle Ages

(people who lived in the Middle Ages)

the house of my dreams

(the house which I see in my dreams)

the College of Surgeons

(the College to which surgeons belong)

The 'from' relation

92

Both *of* and *with* can indicate a relation of 'having'. From the sentence 'Henry has money' we can get

money of Henry

the roof of the house, the courage of the man

roof of money

roof of (great) courage

money with a roof

a house with a roof

In the English noun 'money' construction, *of* is used where money is abundant (in judgement of abundance, a man of wealth) and *with* is used where money is scarce

The uses of the genitive

83

A genitive ending in an apostrophe only, (as 370-2) can often be used with the same meaning as an *of* phrase:

Mr Brown's car (Dr Brown has a car)

Mr Brown's son (definite):	{ the son of Dr Brown { a son of Dr Brown's (as 377) { (definite)
the castle's gentry	

the castle's gentry	the gentry of the castle (more usual)
---------------------	---------------------------------------

THE SUBJECT-VERB RELATION ('He passed a parcel')

his parcel's arrival	the arrival of his parcel
the reply's departure	the departure of the reply (more usual)

THE VERB-OBJECT RELATION ('They released the prisoner')

the prisoner's release	the release of the prisoner
a city's destruction	the destruction of a city (more usual)

THE SUBJECT-COMPLEMENT RELATION ('Everyone is happy')

everyone's happiness	the happiness of everyone
the country's beauty	the beauty of the country

84

In the following cases, the *of* phrase is not used:

THE ORIGIN RELATION (The girl told a story, etc)

the girl's story (= a story that the girl told)

John's telegram (= a telegram from John, a telegram that John will

VARIOUS DESCRIPTIVE RELATIONS

a woman's college (= a college for women)

a doctor's degree (= a doctoral degree)

Choice between an *of*-construction and the genitive

85

In general, the genitive is preferred for human nouns (the girl's car) and to a lesser extent for animal nouns (the cat's house) and British group nouns (the government's policy). *Of* is used for most nouns and abstract nouns (the discovery of oil, the progress of science). In general also, the genitive is preferred for the subject-verb relation and *of* for the verb-object relation.

Livingstone's discovery (= 'Livingstone discovered something')

the discovery of Livingstone (= usually 'Somebody discovered Livingstone')

The subject function can also be introduced by an *of*-phrase. Hence the action 'The army defeated the rebels' might be expressed in three ways:

the army's defeat of the rebels

the defeat of the rebels by the army

the rebels' defeat by the army

(But the verb *defeat* of my army has to mean that the rebels defeated the army!) 43

The *of* construction is also preferred (especially in (formal) English) to the *genitive* when the modifying noun phrase is long. We can easily say:

the departure of the 4.30 train for Edinburgh

but not: *the 4.30 train for Edinburgh's departure (see 2.61)

Here two special cases of the *genitive*. These nouns are frequently used in the *genitive*, and also place nouns when followed by a superlative:

one year's trip

the town's main path (or the

two weeks' holiday)

oldest pub in the town)

a moment's thought

Norway's greatest composer

today's menu (or the menu

the world's best chocolate (or

for today)

the best chocolate in the

world)

Relations between people: *with*, *for*, *against*

97

With often means 'together with' or 'in company with':

I'm so glad you're coming with us. (1)

Sheila was at the theatre with her friends. (2)

Sentence (2) is not very different in meaning from

Sheila and her friends were at the theatre.

With is the regular preposition in this sense:

Sheila was £1, so we use it to the theatre without her.

For *concern*, the idea of support (= in favour of), and, like *with*, contrasts with *against*:

Are you for or against the measure?

With, in a number of contexts of competition, means 'on the same side as':

Remember that every one of us is with you (= on your side)

Face each other with *against*: 'on the opposite side'

Are you with us or against us?

So also the fight against pollution, the campaign against smoking, etc. However, with *concern* the idea of opposition between two people or groups is more common: *with*, *over*, *with*, *between*, *against*, *with*, *to*, *with*.

Ingredient materials: *with*, *of*, *out of*, *from*

98

With, in the sense of 'making', *with* and *from* are ingredients, whereas *out of* and *from* indicate the material of the whole thing.

A fruit cake is made *with* fruit, not *of* (just as a made meal is *of* meat).

From is used to indicate a substance from which something is derived:

Beer is made *from* hops.

Paper is made *from* wood-pulp.

Of there is used in post-modifying phrases: a cup *of* coffee (not *with* ... made out of solid gold, a table *of* polished oak (not *with* ... consisting of solid oak), but also a table *of* oak (not a table *of* oak legs).

99

Modifiers of a noun usually add meaning to the noun by helping to specify its meaning more exactly:

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------------------------|
| (A) the children | (H) the children who live near here |
| (B) a king | (I) a king of Denmark |
| (C) married men | (J) his married best |
| (D) the books | (K) the American ones |

In each case, phrase (E) tells us more precisely than phrase (A) what its noun refers to. In each case there is no need, in the meaning of the noun, by saying what kind of children, king, or the speaker is talking of. This type of modifier may be called *restrictive*.

100

There is a second, non-restrictive type of modifier, which does not limit the noun in this way. Compare:

- Children who have early should start school as early as [1]
possible (non-restrictive)
- Children, [who have early], should start school as early as [2]
possible (restrictive)

In [1] the relative clause is restrictive and allows *only kind* of children to be in the school early, in [2] where the relative clause is non-restrictive, the speaker is talking about all children in general. This is signalled by a line and boundary (see 35) in [1] (speech), and comma in [2] (writing), separating it from the preceding noun. The clause does not in any way limit the reference to children. The speaker tells us that all children learn early, and is that all children *do* learn when they can.

Non-restrictive adjectives

101

Adjectives, as well as relative clauses, can be non-restrictive. The clearest case is adjectives modifying proper nouns: since a proper noun already has unique reference, it cannot be limited any further by the adjective (*but see 91*) (see 88), as in the first of the following examples (contrast 102).

Non-restrictive adjectives are not *necessarily* marked, like non-restrictive relative clauses, by punctuation or intonation, and so analogical use occurs:

- The patients of medicine have great respect for their country's
 traditions. [3]
- The hungry workers attacked the houses of their own
 employers. [4]

We might refer to [3] as if it meant that 'all Americans have great respect' (not restricted)? Or does it mean that 'only some Americans (those who are patriotic, as opposed to those who are not) have great respect'? Does [4] refer to *all* the workers and *all* the employers, or *not* to the hungry workers (as opposed to those

with *arrivato* in (6)), and in the rich example set applied to the *gioco* context? These sentences could have other meanings.

Note

The ambiguity of (7) exists because the determiner can be either generic or non-generic (see 687). We do not find an example of ambiguity with *giocatore*, because the noun *giocatore* (although with *del* before it) must be generic.

102

Non-restrictive relative clauses usually precede restrictive modifiers, and so the ordering of modifiers can make a difference to meaning:

(i) *Il grande giocatore* [5]

(ii) *Il grande (per) novel* [6]

(i) [5] *giocatore* is a *novel* while in (ii) *giocatore* is non-restrictive. The meaning of [5] is 'the (big) top of the great player' and the meaning of [6] is 'the big novel', which was great.

Time, tense and aspect

103

We must look to find uses of *essere* and *avere* governed by the verb phrase. These are illustrated in 840. To show the supposition provided by the verb in time in the past, present, or future.

States and events

104

Since *essere* relates the meaning of the verb to a time state, we must first distinguish between the different kinds of meaning a verb may have. Broadly, verbs may refer either to an event (i.e. a happening thought of as a single occurrence, with a definite beginning and end), or to a state (i.e. a state of affairs which can usually occur a period and need not have a well-defined beginning and end).

This distinction may however only be considered from *essere* and *avere*, *avere*, *avere*, *avere*, *avere*. This distinction is striking to the distinction between *cominciare* and *iniziare*, and *finire* and *terminare* (cf. for example, *cominciare* and *iniziare*). It is to some extent a conceptual underpinning of a real distinction. The verbs *avere* can change from one category to another, and the distinction is not always clear: *Stefano si accende* *la pipa* (he could refer to it to a situation in an *avere*).

To be more accurate, then, we should talk of 'state uses of *essere*' and 'event uses of *essere*', but it is convenient to refer to the simpler terms 'state verb' and 'event verb'.

105

The distinction between 'state' and 'event' gives rise to the following three basic kinds of *essere* clauses (illustrated in the past tense):

- | | |
|--|--|
| (1) <i>Stefano</i> | <i>Narratore</i> was a Communist. |
| (2) <i>Stefano</i> <i>era</i> | <i>Columbus</i> discovered America. |
| (3) <i>Stefano</i> <i>era</i> <i>stato</i> <i>ammazzato</i> <i>per</i> <i>una</i> <i>volta</i> | <i>Paganini</i> played the violin brilliantly. |

The habit meaning qualifies 'event' in going with 'habit' meanings (habituals) is asserted. A more common use of a range of events. We often specify 'habit' meaning by adding an adverbial of time and (less often) a range of frequency for some: We specify 'habit' more precisely by adding an adverbial of frequency or an adverbial of duration: *He played the violin every day from the age of five* (24). Three types of meaning can be denoted by an adverbial of time when we use (40-50):

To these three a further type of habit meaning can be added, one expressing meaning expressed by the progressive aspect (see 24, 88, 2): *She was reading the paper*

Present time

106

The following are the main ways of referring to something which occurs at the present moment.

107 *work* (verb) (The Simple Present Tense)

The temple.

Do you like coffee?

The state may extend indefinitely into the past and future, and so the use of the simple present is especially useful to general truths such as *The sun rises in the east*.

108

109 *work* (verb) (The Simple Present Tense)

Take up the meeting chair.

Turn the piano the left to face me

This use is rather specialised, being limited to formal ceremonies, sports and rituals, etc. demonstrative, etc. In most contexts, use usually has the meaning to refer to an event begun and ended at the very moment of speech.

110

111 *work* (verb) (The Simple Present Tense)

The writer in London every day.

A (pink) man should for me {helpless 'BCE'
{suspicious 'AUE'

It rained a lot in the part of the world

By 'habit' habit, we mean a sequence of events.

112

113 *work* (verb) (The Present Progressive)

Look, it's raining!

The children are sleeping now.

They are being repaired better at the moment.

The meaning of the progressive aspect is limited context. Compare the meaning of the simple present in the parallel examples:

It rains a lot in the district. (habit)

Children usually sleep very soundly. (habit)

They lay in a long line. (continuous)

For single events, which in any case involve a limited time-span, the effect of the progressive is to emphasize the situational aspect of the event.

Nothing is real! (at this very moment)

Nothing is really, (the same as is a meaningful sentence)

With some the effect of the programme is to put emphasis on the limited nature of the state of affairs.

They like to attend some memorabilia of

✓ They are busy at a regular house temporarily!

110

101) memorabilia from The Project Projects etc

I'm taking sharing some this winter

He's talking in words which he can't hear myself.

This one connects the company's meaning of its gasp/size with the relative meaning of the system involved.

111

The so-called key-implication, especially referring to the present may be added.

11) After an hour the project becomes a mere recommendation by doing so, mainly in order to cause not being a new, but continuous use

My children are always a continuous and always

This use of ties with a sense of being of a approval

✓ 102) Temporary and half-maintained, or a continued, is a different way of an 103) to include a recommended temporary components:

He's working in his own, self-governed see him,

104) In special circumstances the past tense can be used to refer to the present.

She was always good in the 105) The past tense is a

I suggest whether you would help me (I wonder...)

Here the past tense is an indirect and more thoughtful solution to the simple present tense (see 10410)

Past time

112

The present time remains a 106) if it is used in past tense, but some past-time meanings, we have already illustrated some of these (see 105)

But there is also a section of past-time, often a English language, or a question of how to choose between the use of the past tense and the use of the present tense.

By a past-time happening, we mean a happening taking place in the 106) but not necessarily in the present time. The usual use is when, when it is a happening is related to a definite time in the past, so, let us say, in 107)

In contrast, the present tense is used for a past happening which is seen in relation to a later point of time. Thus, the present perfect means "past-time-relevant-and-present" (see examples)

He has to put on his coat, (I know he's out)

He has been in prison for ten years, (I think he's there)

The past tense

113

The past tense refers to a past occurrence in the past, which may be identified by 45 a) a past time adverbial in the same sentence,

b. the preceding language context, or

c. the context outside language.

(14) These aspects of definiteness are (14-2). Examples of the three types are

a. Heydrich was born in 1912.

b. Juan has become engaged, it took us completely by surprise. (Here the past tense need is real, because the event has already been identified in the first clause.)

c. Did the policeman bring any letters? (Here we can use the past tense without language context, because it is understood that the policeman will not appear again in the text.)

Note:

(14) A proper noun can, because of its definite meaning, provide the conditions for the past tense. (Juan was a good singer. When he is implied that Juan is dead, or at least is no longer a practicing singer.)

(14) The past tense can sometimes be used when it does not have a clearly apparent function. They said we had time. Perhaps this is the situation when the speaker 'in his own mind' is thinking of a definite time.

(14)

The past tense also implies a gap between the time referred to and the present moment:

My sister was on the 17th of her flight (she's now dead).

His sister has been an invalid all her life (she's still a beg).

Adverbials referring to a past point, or period of time usually go with the past tense:

The money got out early in the 19th century, in fact 1191.

The present perfect

(15)

Four related uses of the present perfect may be noted.

(15) HAVE BEEN USED UP TO THE PRESENT TIME

They have got married by ten ages.

(16)

(16) HAVE BEEN USED UP TO A POINT LEADING UP TO THE PRESENT TIME

Have you (ever) been to America?

All my family have had measles in the last year.

(17) HAVE BEEN USED UP TO THE PRESENT TIME

He has attended school regularly (this term).

(18) HAVE BEEN USED UP TO THE PRESENT TIME

The bus has stopped by the new hotel.

Her doll has been broken (it's still in the box, but)

(Compare: Her doll was broken, but now it's mended.)

In these instances (except for (16)) the dates, habits, or events may be understood as continuing to represent time. (For example, 'was' tense: 'I've never had a holiday'.)

Note:

- (a) In some (16), the present perfect often refers to the entire indefinite past: *Have you ever been to America?* (The usual way of referring to the past, when there is a tendency for 'And' to precede the past tense: *She was married*.)

- (6) There is an alternative for both the past tense with *would*, *could*, and *should* to refer to a state of habit leading up to the present. For example, I always read (I never said that he would do it) up to now.

The perfect progressive

116

The present perfect progressive form was brought into the standard of grammar as the simple present perfect, and it has the period leading up to the present for *PRESENT PERFECT*.

I've been writing a letter to my nephew.

He can be swimming, or he can be there.

The perfect progressive, like the simple perfect, can suggest that the results of the activity remain in the present: *you've been singing!* (I can see that you have been singing because you have a red face, your clothes are all wet, etc.) or the activity has continued up to the present, just up to the present. Unlike the present perfect, the present perfect progressive with *was* or *were* only suggests an action continuing from the present:

I've read your book (= I've finished it).

The team *was* reading your book (= they're still reading it).

The past perfect

117

The past perfect (simple or progressive) indicates 'past in the past', that is, a state 'before' in the past to which there is definite reference in the past:

The boxer had been a champion for several years (before he fought me).

The goalkeeper had injured his leg, and couldn't play.

I had been solving and the answer was out of it.

In *activity*, the past perfect is natural as regards the difference expressed by the past and the present perfect. The more that we put the events near each other, (1) and (2) further into the past, they both end up by the past perfect:

They will tell me that	(1) The parcel arrived on April 25th.	(2)
	(3) The parcel <i>had</i> already arrived.	(4)
They had told me that	(5) The parcel <i>had</i> been sent on April 15th.	(6)
	(7) The parcel <i>had</i> not only arrived.	(8)

When dealing with time events before us, whether in the past, we can show that nothing has yet, the past perfect for the earlier event, or else we can use the past tense for both, and rely on the conjunction *before* or *after*, which is more useful, as it looks plausible:

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{After} \\ \text{when} \end{array} \right\}$ she finished $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{before} \\ \text{had finished} \end{array} \right\}$ she found the children started talking.

All four of these ways are possible, equally correct, and it is clear that the teacher for *before* the children started talking.

Perfect aspect in non finite verbs

118

For all our verbs (e.g. *SEE*, *DO*, *GO*, *TEACH*, and *WORK*), we express the difference between past tense and perfect aspect through the perfect aspect expression:

past meaning. In the third instance below, each of the auxiliaries can be replaced by the non-finite *have* + *been* + *past* + *copula*:

After some three chapters last month, he's now taking a holiday
he has written nine chapters already; he's having a holiday.
After he had written three chapters, he decided to take a holiday.

The same is true for the perfect infinitive following a modal auxiliary.
He may have left yesterday (ie Perhaps he left yesterday).
He may have left already (ie He has left already).

Auxiliaries in relation to the past and the present perfect

188

Some auxiliaries go with the past and others with the present perfect. For example:
The man (point to picture of a man) (which finished) in the past;

I have him	}	yesterday (pointing)	
		last night / last Monday	
		a week / some time ago;	
		in the morning.	
		on Wednesday; in June; in 1934...	
		at four o'clock	
the other day.			

The present perfect (perfect having up to present, or recent past time)

I have him	}	since Tuesday (ie, week)	
		since I met you.	
		so far / up to now	
		lately.	

LINKS THE PAST AND THE PRESENT PERFECT

I (have) } him	}	today	}
		the week/month/year.	
		lately.	
		{ He always / never / often /	} my wife's birthday.
		{ He's always / never / often /	

State or habit in the past (used as *was* + *verb*):

189

Was is used to express a state or habit in the past, or a situation with the present.

He *was* not very happy, but now he can't stand it.

Ireland *was* to belong to Denmark if Ireland were brought to Denmark.

Would can also express a past state with the particular sense of 'habit or state, predictable behaviour':

He *would* have her interfere (ie often have a say)

Would is typical of narrative style, but is also a very characteristic of popular English.

The simple present tense with post meaning

121

There are two possible realisations in which the simple present tense is used with post meaning:

(A) The 'historic present' is sometimes used to narrate events as if they are happening in our presence:

That is **crosses** the **bridge** and **goes** to **stop** the **train**.

(B) The present tense with verbs of communication, where an exactly the present perfect would be appropriate:

I **hear** you **have** changed your job.

They **will** me you **have** changed your job. (indirect)

I **was** **divorced** after your appointment **has** been terminated.

fixed

The progressive aspect

122

The progressive aspect (see 104, 175-17) refers to activity in progress, and therefore suggests not only that the activity is TEMPORARILY (i.e. unfinished) but that it is in progress at a particular time or during a particular period in the past or in the present perfect:

- { He **was** **reading** a novel several years ago (i.e. finished it)
- { He **was** **writing** a book several years ago (i.e. I don't know whether he finished it).
- { I **have** **missed** the car this morning (i.e. the job's finished)
- { I **have** **been** **reading** the car this morning (but the job may not be finished)

Similarly, with verbs referring to a changed state, the present progressive indicates movement towards the change, rather than completion or continuation with:

The girl **was** **divorcing** that is, she **has** **divorced** her.

When tribal or a non-progressive event verb, or in a point of time, the progressive normally indicates that at that point the activity is **under** or **in** progress by the verb is still in progress, whether started but has not yet finished:

- { At eight o'clock
- { When I **was** **divorcing** } they **were** **already** **having** breakfast.

This means that the breakfast had started before 8 o'clock on the time that I **was** **divorcing**, and that it continued after that time.

Verbs taking and not taking the progressive

123

The verbs which most typically take the progressive aspect are verbs denoting activity (i.e. walk, read, think, write, work, and so on) and verbs of change (i.e. sleep, grow, widen, recover, etc.) Verbs denoting a state or a position (i.e. work, jump, read, sleep, stay, etc.) are used with the progressive, suggest repetition:

He **was** **nodding** (repeated movements of the head).

He **was** **nodding** (repeated movements of the head).

Some verbs often cannot be used with the progressive at all, because the notion of 'something in progress' cannot be easily applied to them. The verbs which normally do not take the progressive include:

- (A) VERBS OF PERCEPTION (*feel, hear, see, smell, taste*). To express continuing perception, we often use these verbs with *am* or *are*:

I *was* *seeing* someone through the window, but I *can't* *hear* what he's *saying* now. (= I am saying...)

Verbs which have an *in* subject (the thing perceived), such as *grow* and *look*, can also be included here:

He *is* *looking* *at* it. (= He's *examining* himself. *See* "He is looking...")

- (B) VERBS REFERRING TO A STATE OF MIND OR SENSATION (*believe, desire, dislike, dislike, doubt, forget, hate, hope, imagine, know, love, love, miss, prefer, remember, respect, understand, want, wish, etc.*):

I *forget* his name. (= I *am* forgetting...)

The verbs *seem* and *appear* may also be included here:

He *seems/appears* to be *enjoying* himself.

- (C) VERBS REFERRING TO A RELATIONSHIP OR A STATE OF AFFAIR (*be, belong to, concern, consist of, contain, cost, depend on, describe, equal, fit, have, include, include, join, join, join, remain, require, resemble, suggest, etc.*):

This *map* *belongs* to the *land*. (= It *belongs* to it.)

Notice that all these verbs are used without the progressive even when they refer to a temporary state:

I'm *hungry*.

I *forget* his *date* for the concert.

Notes

The verb *have*, when it is a state verb, does not go with the progressive: *He has a good job* (not **He's having a good job*). But *have* can go with the progressive when it denotes a process or activity: *They were having a row*.

125

Verbs of a fourth group, those referring to mental activities (*know, feel, see, see, see, see*), can be used either with the progressive or the non-progressive with little difference of effect:

My *heart* *is* *beating*. *is* *beating* *is* *beating* *is* *beating*

Exceptions

126

Although the types of verb (A), (B), and (C) above may be labelled 'non-progressive', there are special circumstances in which you hear them used with the progressive. In many circumstances one may say that the state verb has been changed into an 'activity verb' (referring to an actual form of behaviour). Instead of *see* and *hear*, we have the equivalent activity verbs *look* (127) and *listen* (128):

I'm *looking* at your drawings.

He *was* *listening* to the news when I entered.

But for *see*, *feel*, and *know*, there is no special corresponding activity verb, so these verbs have to do duty for the state meaning and the activity meaning:

The doctor is feeling better. He says I don't need it.
You've been taking the medicine. It's a new substance.

In the same way, *shǐ*, *dòngxiàng*, *chūxūwèi*, etc. can form passive constructions:

By *dòngxiàng* about what you said.

The verb is always with the progressive when the subject or some other influence indicates a type of behavior, or a continuous process (e.g. *shǐ*, *dòngxiàng*, *chūxūwèi*), causing difficulty. *shǐ* is always merged with the auxiliary *zài*.

127

Another important question is about the progressive with *bēi*, *wǎng*, etc. to express present intentions, and *chūxū*. How do you say "I'm going to take a holiday" or "I'm going to go to school"?

Future time

128

There are five chief ways to express future time in the final *shì* verb phrase. The most important for now are: (1) *zài* (going to), (2) *qù* (going to), and (3) *de* (going to), (4) *de* (going to), and (5) *de* (going to).

129

(A) *zài* (going to)

zài (going to) is a free particle which can express the neutral form of intention.

Tomorrow's weather will be cold and windy.

It is particularly common in the main clause of a sentence with an *if*-clause or another conditional auxiliary (see 108-112):

If you press the button, the door will lock back.

Whichever you run, you will find the real culprit eventually.

In the end, I'll go to change my plan.

The *shì* personal subjects, *zài* (going to) may suggest an element of intention:

I'll meet you at six o'clock.

She'll make a cup of coffee for you at 10.

130

(B) *qù* (going to)

qù (going to) is normally used to indicate the future as a fulfillment of the present. The construction may refer to a future event or to a present intention:

What are you going to do today? (intention to do or done and with *le*)

I'm going to be a doctor when he grows up.

In *qù*'s reference, the future resulting from an other causative factors in the present:

I think I'm going to have a cold already (see ill).

It's going to rain in a minute (see *hēbā* (soon) *gǎn* (rain)).

In sentences like these the verb is going to also carries the implication that the event will happen some

- 111 (C) **progressive form**
 The present progressive is used for future events resulting from a present plan, programme, or arrangement.
 We're leaving school people for a month.
 They aren't're enjoying a place by Somerset.
 We're having 551 for dinner.
 (also be used to talk about future especially when there is no time set as in (b)) often implies the verb is used: You aren't're leaving (on 2001)

- 112 (D) **simple present tense**
 The simple present tense is used for the future in certain types of subordinate clause especially conditional time clauses and conditional clauses:

$\left. \begin{matrix} \text{When} \\ \text{If time} \\ \text{If} \end{matrix} \right\}$ he comes, the band will play *It's National Anthem*

Noting, however, that the verb in the state of use (type (d)) some of the conditions which go with the present tense in this way are affected, i.e. before, we must, when, as soon as, if, even if, unless, as long as

When clauses following *hope*, *wish*, *suggest*, etc. can also contain verbs in the present tense referring to the future:

Choose the suit $\left. \begin{matrix} \text{that} \\ \text{you'd like} \end{matrix} \right\}$ like

- 113 Apart from these cases, the simple present is used (but not for *when*) to refer to future events which are seen as absolutely certain, either because they are determined in advance by calculation, timetable, etc. or because they are part of an unchangeable plan:

Tomorrow is a Sunday.
 The train starts at the Legion at 9 o'clock.
 The match takes place on Thursday.
 He always goes to school.

- (114) **present tense**, we may say that one speaks about the content of a fact, and puts into the sentence normally facts about the future: Compare:

When $\left. \begin{matrix} \text{it's} \\ \text{1970} \\ \text{we} \\ \text{will} \\ \text{be} \end{matrix} \right\}$ get there?

- 115 (C) **conditional progressive**
 Conditional progressive can be used in a similar way to add the temporary meaning of the progressive in the future meaning of the conditional construction: *They'll be having a party*

In addition, we can use the will + Progressive construction in a special way to refer to a future event which will take place as a matter of course:

When will you be working?

The train will be working soon.

The construction is particularly useful for avoiding the suggestion of intention. The first two will be *will* (future) and can therefore be more (polite)

When will you be working? (4)

When will you be working again? (5)

Example (4) is not likely to be a question about the 1970s's intentions, while sentence (5) simply asks him to predict the time of his next visit.

Be to, be about to, be on the point of

125

Some other ways of expressing future meaning are illustrated by:

The Vice-Chancellor is about to leave for the States.

The chairman is on the point of leaving.

We are on the verge of invading the country over the wage and interest.

We mention 'be to' as a suggestion for the future (especially an official arrangement) which both be about to and be on the point of imply the nearness of a future event.

The future in the past

126

If we put the future conditional clause normally formed (e.g. *if I am present*) into the past tense, we arrive at a kind of future in the past meaning (e.g. *if I were to be present*) in the past. But a different meaning, as illustrated by the given example, is also possible, usually under the knowledge that the anticipated happening did not take place:

They were just going to visit him, when he died.

The phrase *were to* is also used in *would* clauses, but no longer (e.g. *I would go to the States*) are the only examples of them. Of clauses which refer to the future in the past, but in the context of a true and rather 'flowery' style

After discussing Ptolemy's opposition, Ptolemy then, in a noble and presiding manner, dismissed the parliament. Strongly, of course, he was to preside for the session of the council and parliament held by his best friend, Marcus Bruller, made out a successful part of Ptolemy's plan.

However, for a writer of *be to* like this, the ordinary *will* form can be used throughout (e.g. *was to*, *will have been*).

The past in the future

127

The past in the future is expressed by *will be* (e.g. *will have*):

Therefore I am not sure I will have been married twenty years.

Summary

128

In conclusion, here is a table summarising some of the commonest meanings we covered thus far, with their aspect. The symbols used are worked out on page 59.

THINK! P-0001 T-0001

Past time Present time Future time

A. PRESENT TIME

1. State time (see 107)
2. Single verb (see 107)
3. Infinitive (see 108)
4. Compound verb (see 109)
5. Temporary habit (see 110)

6. Other things:
 (reason)
 (do something early)
 (be waiting to do sth.)
 (be coming to work)
 (celebrate)

B. PAST TIME

1. State up to present time (see 115)
2. Indefinite result (see 114)
3. Build up to present time (see 115)
4. With present result (see 115)
5. Temporary state up to present time (see 116)
6. Temporary habit up to present time
7. Temporary verb present result (see 115)

8. Preparation for work
 (do something for work)
9. Be finished when starting for sth.
 (be ready when you start)
10. Be doing something for sth.
 (be doing something for work)
11. Be doing something (but not for sth.)
 (be doing something)
12. Be doing something (but not for sth.)
 (be doing something)

USE THESE

THE PRESENT
 TENSE

THE PAST TENSE	THE PAST PROGRESSIVE	THE PAST PERFECT	THE PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE	THE PAST PROGRESSIVE PROGRESSIVE	THE PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE	THE PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE	THE PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE
	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
	36	37	38	39	40	41	42
	43	44	45	46	47	48	49
	50	51	52	53	54	55	56
	57	58	59	60	61	62	63
	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
	71	72	73	74	75	76	77
	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
	85	86	87	88	89	90	91
	92	93	94	95	96	97	98
	99	100	101	102	103	104	105
	106	107	108	109	110	111	112
	113	114	115	116	117	118	119
	120	121	122	123	124	125	126
	127	128	129	130	131	132	133
	134	135	136	137	138	139	140
	141	142	143	144	145	146	147
	148	149	150	151	152	153	154
	155	156	157	158	159	160	161
	162	163	164	165	166	167	168
	169	170	171	172	173	174	175
	176	177	178	179	180	181	182
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	988	989	990	991	992	993	994
	995	996	997	998	999	1000	

Single event	.
state	- _____
habit or state of being	- - - - -
temporal state of being	- - - - -
temporal limit	- - - - -

The time dimension is expressed by a left to right arrow above:

[.]

A definite point of time (date) or 'moment' is expressed by a dotted vertical line (|). The broken arrow (---) indicates an interval of continuing happening or duration.

Time-words

140

Times or time when are expressed either by tense, aspect, and modalities in the verb phrases, or by adverbials. The adverbials can be of a number of types:

The boys played as	{ <table> <tr> <td>intensity</td> <td>(ADVERS)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>certainty</td> <td>(CERTAIN F.W. PHRASE)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>frequency</td> <td>(FREQU. PHRASE)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>time/when</td> <td>(TEMPORAL PHRASE, etc)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>method/manner</td> <td>(MANNER PHRASE)</td> </tr> </table>	intensity	(ADVERS)	certainty	(CERTAIN F.W. PHRASE)	frequency	(FREQU. PHRASE)	time/when	(TEMPORAL PHRASE, etc)	method/manner	(MANNER PHRASE)	{ <table> <tr> <td>intensity</td> <td>(ADVERS)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>certainty</td> <td>(CERTAIN F.W. PHRASE)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>frequency</td> <td>(FREQU. PHRASE)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>time/when</td> <td>(TEMPORAL PHRASE, etc)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>method/manner</td> <td>(MANNER PHRASE)</td> </tr> </table>	intensity	(ADVERS)	certainty	(CERTAIN F.W. PHRASE)	frequency	(FREQU. PHRASE)	time/when	(TEMPORAL PHRASE, etc)	method/manner	(MANNER PHRASE)
		intensity	(ADVERS)																			
		certainty	(CERTAIN F.W. PHRASE)																			
		frequency	(FREQU. PHRASE)																			
		time/when	(TEMPORAL PHRASE, etc)																			
method/manner	(MANNER PHRASE)																					
intensity	(ADVERS)																					
certainty	(CERTAIN F.W. PHRASE)																					
frequency	(FREQU. PHRASE)																					
time/when	(TEMPORAL PHRASE, etc)																					
method/manner	(MANNER PHRASE)																					

Such time expressions normally have an adverbial position in the sentence (see 139), but occasionally they can act as the subject or complement or postmodifier of a noun phrase.

The *day after tomorrow* will be *Friday*.

Time Adverbials answer the question 'When?'. Thus all the adverbials listed above should answer the question 'When did she get out of bed?'

It is most useful to begin the study of time when with prepositional phrases.

At, on, during during

141

At is used for points of time and *on* is for periods of time. In general, *on* is used for days, and *at* (*at night*) for periods longer or shorter than a day.

at 11 o'clock	at 11 o'clock, at 11 o'clock, at noon
on 1st May	on Sunday, (a) the following day
in the morning	in the morning, in the afternoon, in the nineteenth century

For periods identified by their beginning and ending points, *between* is used:

Between 1978 and 1989 . . .

At and during

142

At and *during* are more or less equivalent, but *during* tends to be used where the verb phrase denotes a state or habit, and so implies duration.

He was injured in the war.

Many people suffered hardship during the war.

Only *during* can be used to mean 'in the course of' before nouns like *war*, *trip*, *meal*, etc., referring to an event lasting some time:

We went to the zoo *during* our stay in Washington.

During the meal we talked about our plans.

Restrictions

143

It can be used for periods identified as *years*, as *last* or *this* time, or *before*, *last* time, or *next*; also for short holiday periods (as Christmas, or Easter). It (*during*) is the preferred form used, but in *AmE* it is the preferred form used before *morning*, *afternoon*, *evening*, and *night* when these periods are identified by the day of which they are a part: *on Monday evening*, *on the following morning*, but *in the evening*. (In the omission of the definite article in time expressions see 195.)

Note

By day and *by night* are idiom which can replace *during the day/night* with some activities such as travelling: *We travelled by night*.

Limiting the preposition

144

We should always leave out the preposition before phrases beginning *last*, *next*, *this*, *that*, *one* before *year*, *year(s)*, *tomorrow*:

Did you go to the meeting *last Thursday*?

I'll meet you *next day* / *two days*.

Plans are more practical *this year*.

That day I had nothing important to do.

(The phrases *at this/that time*, in *AmE* at least, are however normal.) In (informal) English, we also usually leave out the preposition in phrases pointing to a time related backwards in the present, *recently*, or to a time before or after a certain time in the past or future:

I saw her {the January before last.
{the day after her birthday.

The festival will be held {the day after tomorrow.
{on the following spring.

The preposition is also sometimes omitted directly before days of the week:

I'll see you *Sunday*.

Next year we go into the country.

This is especially common in (informal) *AmE*.

Time relationships

145

Before and *after* (as prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions) indicate relations between two times or events, as in

They were married *before* the war.

We ate *after* / *before*

They have opposite meanings:

- He arrived after the play started.
- The play started before he arrived.

By refers to the time at which the result of an event is in existence:

- By Friday I was exhausted (or I became exhausted before Friday, and I was still exhausted on Friday).

Please send me the tickets by or before work (or I want to have the tickets not later than now/week).

Already, and, yet, and any measure related in meaning to by-phrases, after, and you require the perfect aspect when occurring with an event verb. They have already left; they haven't left yet. With state verbs and with the progressive aspect, they can occur with the present tense. I knew that already; it's not yet working. Note the negative relation of these adverbs to any and any more:

He **any** works here. = He hasn't stopped working here yet.

He's **already** stopped working = He isn't working any more.

We use by very often when we are not certain that the event has happened:

He should have arrived by now ('... but I'm not sure').

Others use the perfect to use already:

He has arrived already.

146

Our prepositions in time within (format,) can have the meaning 'before the end of':

He travelled around the world in **eighty days**.

Phone me again **within a week**.

147

Here, for comparison, are some examples of these phrases with a particular noun, night:

I woke up in the **middle of the night**. (see 141)

(On) **Sundays** / **nights** we'll have a party. (see 141)

She's **still** **sleeping** **the night**. (see 142)

Sometimes I can't sleep **for** **the night**. (see 143)

We'll **be** **going** **by** **night**. (see 145/146)

We **travelled** **by** **night**. (see 145/146)

I'll be there **by** **Friday night**. (see 145)

For **several** **nights** he had no sleep at all. (see 141)

We **stayed** **up** **all** **night**. (see 152)

Will **you** **stay** **all** **night**? (see 153)

Measuring time

148

Age following a noun phrase of time measures refers to a point of time in the past as measured from the present moment. We use a past age for a similar measurement into the future: we use a measure phrase followed by *from now*, or *in + measure phrase*, or *in + spend the measure phrase + after*:

'In three hours'

I'll see you **in three months** from now.

'In three minutes' after.

In contrast to *stop* verbs from a point in time in the past, only one form is normally available:

He finished the job by then, *whether* (or from when he stopped) it's before and after. And the usual be perfect and *have* was in, *whether* and *ever* can also follow a measure phrase:

I had met them *three months* before/after.
For some time she *didn't* be/oddly became lame.

Time-when phrases

149

There are two main groups of time-when phrases (see 174):

(A) *when* (as in 'at this very moment'), *etc.*, *consider*, *from*; 'at that time', *until*, *etc.*

(B) *afterward*, *after* (usually *from* *forward*), *back*, *and* (a very short time *and* before), *before*, *later*, *later*, *later*, *previously*, *recently*, *since*, *until*, *subsequently* (*since*), *since* (= 'after that'), *subsequently* (*to that*), *etc.*

Group (A) identifies a certain period of time exactly; Group (B) identifies a time indirectly, by reference to another point of time understood in the context. Examples:

(A) *Whenever* people are difficult to please,

when he's leaving.

(B) The guests *arrived* *later* for

Elise *got* *born* in the *late* *twenties*.

However, (B) *Christina*, *had* *never* *heard* *from* *him* *since* (= *from* *last* *year*).

Time-when conjunctions

150

The main time-when conjunctions are *when*, *up*, *by* (see after 142), *while* (see 144), *as* (see 20 *above*), *as* (see 141):

When I last *heard* *from* *him*, he was *living* in *Paris* *and* *Miami*.

By your *ticket* *as* *well* *as* *you* *can*.

Once you *have* *seen* *the* *decoration*, you'll *be* *able* *to* *relax*.

Duration

151

Phrases of duration answer the question 'How long?' Compare

(A) *When* *did* *you* *stop* *there*? (B) *Is* *she* *always*?

(C) *How* *long* *did* *you* *stop* *there*? (D) *For* *the* *night*.

The time-when phrase in the question form indicates that the stop was concluded in the duration period; the duration phrase *for* (the answer indicates that the stop lasted as long as the duration period.

For *with* this meaning see the *recycle* phrases of time measurement, *eg* for a month, for several days, *for* two years.

The proposition is in effect an *if*-*then* construction before *if*:

- 1. I would like to see your garden in London.
- 2. The weather would have to be quite nice.
- 3. He's been gardening all day over the last days.

Note

For a grammar not aimed at children, it is better to use the *STATE* *WOULD* form, since you may need to specify the terms of address: a request to *John* is not the same as one for *John's*.

This can be used instead of *if* for short periods such as meetings:

- We agreed to see my parents over
 - 1. the 20th/21st.
 - 2. an evening.
 - 3. the weekend.

From ... is intended to identify a period of its beginning and end (*from* refers to the beginning and *to* to the end). The kind of period chosen can lead to make clear that the whole period includes the several periods mentioned. Thus *from* *John* through *December* means ... is to be one including December. It is normally assumed that the larger period does not include the period mentioned.

The second *to* in *Christmas* is not used (cf. *Christmas*).

Between (cf. 154, 155) can replace *to* in the construction above. It is used from Monday till Friday. But, with *from*, *until* only. We used *until* (not *to*).

While, since and until

The comparative *while* can mean either (a) 'time on' or (b) 'time when', depending on the kind of verb meaning (see 106, 5).

- a. I stayed with the teacher for a while for the duration of the meeting. (same verb)
- b. I realised while the meeting was in progress (a) in the course of the meeting, (b) at a meeting.

They also have their own meanings:

- a. He's lived (a) for a long time (a) for his whole life, (b) in his own apartment (a) a while.
- b. They've changed their car twice since 1970 (a), because 1970 and 1980 (a) a while.

Being *until* (cf. 154) is usually retained as the perfecter aspect in the verb of the main clause:

- Since 1970, Britain has been (a) a long time (a) "the car" (a) a while (a) a while.

Life

Life (or *live*) as preposition and conjunction has a meaning comparable to *while* in (a) above (the *STATE* *WILL* study, except that *live* is not 'to live' but the beginning part of a sentence):

- You're to see it (a) a while (a) Monday (a) from now to next Monday).

In the negative, *will* can occur with modal verbs, and is its positive equivalent in *ought*:

- He didn't start to read until he was ten.
- He doesn't start to read before he was ten.

Adverbs and phrases of duration

156

The following adverbs and phrases indicate duration:

- always, for ever* (used meaning 'for all time')
- since then, since then, ever* (both meaning 'since a short time ago')
- sometimes, for the moment, for a while* (all meaning 'for a short time')
- for ages* (informal) ('for a long time')

Since, lately, and recently indicate either time when or duration (according to the type of verb meaning):

- 'They got married *only recently*' (= 'a short time ago').
- 'He's *recently* been working at night' (= 'since a short time ago').

Frequency

157

Expressions of frequency answer the question 'How many times?' or 'How often?'

The upper and lower limits of frequency are expressed by *always* ('on every occasion') and *never* ('on no occasion'). Between these extremes, a rough indication of frequency (frequency or infrequency) can be given by:

- constantly* (= 'very often, almost always')
- usually, normally, generally, regularly* (= 'on most occasions')
- often, frequently* (= 'on many occasions')
- sometimes* (= 'on some occasions')
- occasionally, now and then, infrequently* (= 'on a few occasions')
- rarely, seldom* (= 'on few occasions')
- hardly ever, scarcely ever* (= 'almost never')

(Compare 67 5.)

A formal exact measurement of frequency (FREQUENCY PRODUCTION) can be expressed in one of the following three ways:

- (A) *once a day, three times an hour, several times a week* (sometimes *per* (formal), *officially*, is used instead of *a*) here: *once per day*;
- (B) *every day* (= 'once a day'), *every morning, every two years*;
- (C) *daily* (= 'once a day'), *hourly, weekly, monthly, yearly*.

Daily, weekly etc can act as adjectives as well as adverbs:

- He talks to $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{me a week.} \\ \text{every week.} \\ \text{weekly.} \end{array} \right\} = \text{He talks to me a week} \text{ly once}$

We can also try some adjectives that describe how often something happens, such as *often*, *usually*, *every day*, *every day or two*, etc.

158

A further type of frequency expression involves the use of quantifiers (like *some*, *any*, *most*, etc.):

Some days I feel like giving up the job altogether.

Quite and *sometimes* annoy me; you like

We play *some* very serious.

It's hard to know *how many* friends a reporter

159

Frequency phrases generally have *do* preposition. The exception is phrases with the word *usually* (rather formal):

Do even *usually* the President has refused to bow to the will of Congress.

160

Frequency phrases sometimes use *each* or *every* time referring, and get a more abstract meaning, referring to occurrence rather than time. *Every* *three* *days* (for example) can be interpreted 'in every case', 'in some cases', rather than 'in every instance', 'on some occasions':

Children *every* (in many cases) think *some*.

(roughly) = *Many children* *often* *think*.

Students *every* (in few cases) used to fail the course

(roughly) = *Few students* used to fail the course?

Place, direction and distance

161

Expressions of place and direction are chiefly adverbials and postmodifiers. They answer the question 'Where?', so that all of the following could be answers to the question 'Where did you leave the bag?':

I left it	{	<i>under</i> the car.	(COMMON USE 472, 480)
		<i>in</i> the street.	(FRENCH 304) (ENGLISH 716, 720)
		<i>two</i> <i>miles</i> <i>west</i> .	(SEE 6. 100-105— <i>west</i> , <i>bank</i> , etc., see 451, 5)
		<i>where</i> I found it.	(INTERESTING USES see 517)

Place and direction can also occur as *object* or *complement* of a verb (see *How far* in *How far you can walk*, *Confidential*):

You will see that the range of grammatical functions and functions for expressing place is similar to that for expressing time (see 141). You will also notice that some forms (eg the prepositions *at*, *from*, and *between*) have related meanings in the two fields.

Prepositions of place

162

Apart from the general adverbs *here*, *there*, *anywhere*, *anywhere*, *anywhere*, 65

and words, by the most important words for indicating place and propositions. The study of prepositions is often governed by an easy-to-use key, which we see in

- | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| (A) as a point in space | (C) as a surface | (E) as a volume |
| (B) as a line | (D) as a plane | |
- (A) as a point in space (C) as a surface (E) as a volume
 (B) as a line (D) as a plane
 (C) as a surface (E) as a volume
 (D) as a plane
 (E) as a volume

The difference between 'surface' and 'plane' will be explained below (see 165 f, 175).

We may distinguish 'a-type' prepositions, which indicate points (A); 'b-type' prepositions, which indicate lines or surfaces (B or C); and 'c-type' prepositions, which indicate an area or a volume (D or E). Some prepositions (such as several) belong to more than one of these types.

A-type prepositions

161







(A) The place is seen as a *point*, (or a place which is identified quite generally, without being thought of in terms of length, width, or height):

- | | | | |
|----|----|--------------|-----------|
| to | at | from the ... | away from |
| → | ✓ | ↘ | * |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
- 1 We went **to** the bank.
 We went **at** the bank.
 We went **from the** bank.
 We went **away from** the bank.
- 2 We covered **at** the fire.
 We covered **at** the ground.
- 3 We came **from the** bank.
 We came **from the** bank.
 We came **from the** bank.
- 4 We stayed **away from** the bank.
 We stayed **away from** the bank.
 We stayed **away from** the bank.

B-type prepositions

162

(B) The place is seen as a *line*, (or a class that is thought of in terms of length, but not breadth or height) (see 163):

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| on / at | on | at | at | across, over | along |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

- The ball rolled **on** the ground.
- Metropolia is a town **on** the Mississippi.
- We turned **at** the next road.
- Zanzibar is an island **at** the coast of Africa.
- They drove **across** the river.
- We walked **along** the river bank.

- 165
 (D) The place is seen as a surface, it is thought of in terms of depth and width, but not height (or depth). (The surface need not be flat or horizontal)



- 1 He led me *to* the door.
- 2 There's a pipe *on* the wall.
- 3 He took the picture *of* the wall.
- 4 That's a pipe *out of* the wall.
- 5 He took a walk *over* the fields.
- 6 He forced *through* the window.

The surface is often the top of some object (as the top of a¹). He was lying *on* the bed, in front of the table.

Note: —

- (a) On me is also used for public transport:
 There were three hundred passengers *on* the bus, on the ship.
 We can also say the number by bus, on (see 195-6)
- (b) Notice that we speak of a *top*, the *top* of the paper became (or was) *topical* (167)

3D-type prepositions

- 166
 (D) The place is seen as an *area* (usually an area of ground or territory enclosed by boundaries).



- 1 They crowded *in* the streets.
- 2 I have a house *in* the city.
- 3 They flow *out of* the island.
- 4 He stepped *out of* the dinner.
- 5 We went for a walk *through* the park.

- 167
 (E) The place is seen as a volume, it is thought of in terms of length, width, and height (or depth):



- 1 He ran into the house.
- 2 The food is not spoiled.
- 3 He stretched out of the water.
- 4 He was out of the room.
- 5 The wind blew through the trees.

168

Inside and outside are sometimes used around or in (in) and out of.

We went *inside* under the machine.

He was looking *outside* the room.

Within is a slightly more formal word than *in*, and often indicates a location bounded by limits, e.g. by a given distance (within 10 miles) and

Many prisoners had a view of the walls of the castle. (inside)

He has written a couple of books of the office. (not beyond)

169

Some verbs (transitive verbs) such as *cut*, *throw*, *dig*, *stand* are followed by *up* and is rather than *down* and *up*:

He put the cup *up* on the shelf.

He placed the pencil *up* on the table.

Also, verbs such as *cut*, *dig*, *stand* are used for the verb *cut* in the *Branches of ...*

Overlap between types of preposition

170

We can often use different prepositions with the same noun. But in such cases the meaning will be slightly different.

We can *cut* or *cut through* the passage. (cut is a verb, passage is a general location)

There is a very *narrow* passage. (passage)

There are two *beak* passages. (beak)

Overlap between on-type and in-type prepositions

171

On roads and villages rather than *in* is used, depending on parts of the road. In Suffolk means we are seeing Suffolk simply as a region on the map, in Suffolk means we have a closer up view of the place, as a town covering an area and including streets, houses, etc. A town large town or city is generally treated as an area in New York. In New York can only be used in a context of multi-level view:

We stopped to *take* in New York on our way to Chicago.

Parts of names also require *in*, *through* (part of London), *in* Alaska (part of New York).

172

For continents, countries, states, and other large areas we use *in* in Asia, in Ghana, in Mexico. However, the directions words *to* and *from* are preferred even for large territories, areas where the boundaries border one another:

He sailed *from* Europe *to* Canada.

Let's fly *from* (from) / *out of* (out of) France *into* Belgium

The holdings in groups of buildings *never* or *can* be used, but *is* preferred when the holding is thought of as an institution rather than its physical area. (Many such usages with *is* take no definite article at all; see 452.)

- {He works at the job *is* office.
 {You'll see my name *is* the job *is* office.
 {He studies at Oxford *is* the uni *is* study)
 {Joe. He lives with *is* Oxford *is* the city.

At and to

At is used instead of *to* when what the following noun refers to is being treated as a target:

- He threw the ball *at* me. (He tried to hit me.)
 He threw the ball *to* me. (He tried to give it.)

Note also a similar contrast between:

- Peer shouted *at* me because that Peter was angry with me.
 Peer shouted *to* me because that Peter was trying to communicate with me at a distance.

Other contrasts of *at* and *to* are given below:

- He pointed *at* me.
 He passed/handed a note *to* me.

- He *at* {threw the ball} *to* me.
 {shot}

Disturb between *at* and *to* in type precedences

There is a difference between 'disturb' and 'disturb' in

- We *at* at the grass. (disturb) (to the grass is short)
 We *to* at the grass. (disturb) (to the grass is short)

Another difference (between 'disturb' and 'disturb') is also in:

- Robinson Crusoe was *at* disturbed as a great island far away in the ocean is small.
 He was *to* disturbed as he lives on a large island, and a political and social scandal.

Disturb

Results of a relation between two objects can also be explained by a picture. Imagine that a car is standing on a bridge:



The river is below the car.	A bird is above the car.
There are clouds above the car.	A man is standing in front of the car.
The road is on either side of the car.	
The road is to the right of the car.	The road stretches in front of and behind the car.

177

The main difference between comparative and superlative is that one and only one can be said to have something in common with another. The man next to the car is taller than the other: 'He was leaning over the crowd and shouting down into their faces over a simply enormous height – a few feet taller than the other.' However, excellent means that one object is always better than the other. In this respect it is the opposite of excellent.

178

My car is the most beautiful one I've ever seen can also be said more generally to indicate the number of cars which are similar.

She sat in a chair that I had never seen before.

179

The following 11 prepositional adverbs for 700 or fixed phrases are normally the prepositions of position we have just dealt with.

overhead	(over)	above	(above)
underneath	(under)	below	(below)
in front	(in front of)	behind	(behind)
on top	(on top of)	in front	(in front of)

Example:

The lumber off the bridge into the water below it (below the bridge)

An architect designed a house (in front of it)

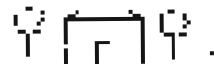
Would you like to sit on top? (On the front row of the car)

Some other phrases:

180

Because, *among* and *amid*. *Because* normally takes an object, two other inputs, and always means 'then that'.

The house stands between two trees



The house stands among trees.



The way we do relate more than two objects if we have a definite number in mind:

Switzerland (in) France, Germany, Italy and Austria

Among is only used for 'in the middle', and the verbs *surround* apply to an indefinite number of objects. 'The house stands *amid* trees.' *Amid* usage can also be followed by a mass noun.

181 A child's sled was found amid the wreckage of the plane

Opposite sides of a line:

His house is opposite mine. (Being on the opposite side of the road.)

Opposed refers to contrasting positions or qualities:

The police were standing on guard to resist the invaders.

Above and below (in reference to English) often have a vague meaning of 'in the area of' or 'in various positions in':

The guests were standing above and below the table.

There aren't many shops above or below it.

(The word 'above' is more and more common in this sense than 'over')

Within

131

In 162-3, these meanings illustrated by examples 1, 2, 3, and 4 in each sentence.

The prepositions in the other diagrams (2 and 4) do not mean

Different aspects of 'in' or can be partial exceptions.



The train sped towards me in the tunnel.

But the preposition used to indicate position in 131-50 can refer to a position in the position concerned.

1. The train was a good hiding place for a thief who hid in.
2. When it started to rain, we hid our umbrellas in the rain.

Through

132

The same prepositions can also be used like through and seem to indicate motion towards, even though it is a point (or position):

1. The prince sprang out behind the good man.
2. I crossed across the river.

Other prepositions can be used similarly:

1. We drove through the town hall.
2. We passed over the railway bridge.
3. We turned behind the corner.

Opposed can also refer more generally to various motion:

The earth moves towards the sun.

Direction

133

Up, down, along, and across/over represent motion with reference to a direction in axis.



HORIZONTAL AXIS



VERTICAL AXIS

He walked along from the east.

[1]

He ran up from the NW.

[2]

He strolled up down the street.

[3]

Sentence 1) does not necessarily mean that the person walked fully performed, i.e. we use up and down with practically the same meaning as above. (However, in fairly loose usage the actual or business part of a town.)

Repeated motion

184

We can express repeated motion by using two prepositions with verb:

He walked up and down the street in one direction and then in another.

The cars splashed in and out of the water.

They danced round and round the table.

Orientation (or direction)

185

The preposition before a verb reference may only be two others, but we could imagine the 'direction' at which the speaker is standing (or imagining her to stand):

I could see the trees by way of the river (i.e. from the other side of the lake) (down and?).

We can also express a similar meaning by using across, over, through, and, etc. in a sense related to their 'passage' or 'transition' sense (see 182-3):

the people over the road

the café across the corner

the bridge over the river

the garage over the garage door

the house across the way

the hotel down the road

the house through the wall

the man up a ladder

We can, if we like, specify the direction by using a *from*-phrase:

He came up from the ground, over the road, past the house.

Heading meaning

186

Prepositions which have the meaning of 'motion' or 'passage' have a 'state' meaning, including the sense of heading towards a particular destination:

The buses are over the bridge (i.e. 'have passed the bridge').

The clouds are over the mountain (i.e. 'are heading for it').

Formative meaning

187

Used through our own 'sense-of' meaning, especially when preceded by *with*:

He painted (ed) over the wall (i.e. 'he covered the wall with paint').

The noise made us hear (ed) all sorts of things (i.e. 'hearing').

Through is confined to natural sources (see 185-7). *Through* can be used instead of *all through*.

The epidemic has spread through out the country.

Abstract place modifiers

III

Many place prepositions are used in more abstract senses, which have a metaphorical relation to their basic sense. Some examples are:

IN (OUT OF) (transition or inclusion): *to change one's attitude* / *to put one's hat on / to remove it* / *to leave* / *to enter* / *to join* / *to leave a group*

People never behave in real life as they do in class.

ABOVE (below, beyond) (level):

The general idea about the average Soviet individual is harsh
(=not worthy of) him

OVER (UNDER) (power, surveillance): *wasn't subjected under torture*:

The King had absolute power over his subjects.

UP (DOWN) (movement on a scale): *up the party*, *down the social ladder*

DOWN (in) (giving and receiving):

I put a letter down for Jill.

I'm trying some means to put you.

BETWEEN (among) (relations between two or more people):

There was a great tension between the two.

They got to getting along with each other.

FAST (BEFORE) (preverb):

He's beyond (=too ill for) recovery.

I'm past (=beyond for) getting to work.

Place adverbs

III

Most place prepositions (except the above prepositions) are copular in form, to juxtapose nouns or verbs (see 710), and in general not marking an temporal as well.

Here are some examples:

We stopped the bus and got off (=off the bus).

Have you put the cat out (=out of the house)?

The child ran across in front of the car (=in front of the road).

When they reached the bridge, they crossed over, looking down at the water below.

199

But some prepositional adverbs have special uses:

They travelled on (=they continued their journey).

The thieves continued his hunting and ran off (=away).

A dog came up to (=approached) and introduced himself.

You don't get many things about nowadays (=informal BRIT) or about the place).

In this last example, *about* is so vague as to be almost meaningless.

In addition to *up* and *down*, the following adverbs of direction can be used: *upward(s)*, *downward(s)*, *forward(s)*, *backward(s)*, *inward(s)*, *outward(s)*, *homeward(s)*.

Answer

191

Distance can be expressed by means of phrases of measure such as *a foot*, *a few yards*, *five miles*, *about 100 ft.* etc. These phrases can modify a verb of motion:

He ran several miles.

They saw also phrases and mainly an adjective, of place:

They left a long way off.

The trucks lay two thousand feet back there.

Here the adjectives of measure modify. Notice the corresponding question forms:

How far did he run?

So, How far away do they live?

Answer, means and instrument

Answering the question "how?"

192

If you want to specify how an action is performed or how an event occurs, please, you can use an adjective of manner, or an instrument:

(A) How did he write the letter?

(B) He wrote it

{	carefully	(manner)
	by hand	(instrument)
	with a pen (point pen)	(instrument)

You can ask a more specific question about the instrument with which an action is performed as follows:

How did he write it *with*? (informally)

How did he write it *with*? (formally)

Answer

193

The first staff *was* expressing manner and (A) always usually ending in -ly).

(B) is, however, (in usage (C)) with a plural noun phrase. Most adjectives

have matching *in*-adverbs and many adjectives have matching abstract nouns.

Thus there may be three ways of expressing the same idea:

(A) *confidently*.

She spoke (B) *with confidence* (manner/way).

(C) *with confidence*.

When a manner-adverb is available, use the adverb, as it has the advantage of being shorter and "backwards" from the noun-construction. For two examples of manner phrases see

We'll let you know *in the usual manner* way.

The task was done *in a workmanlike manner* way.

She greeted us *with great courtesy* (or "with courtesy").

I arranged to leave *inconspicuously*.

He rode today *with* (or *in*) the style of a cowboy.

Like *the, the one* (or *the two, the key*) are put on with the verb (to show the manner):

You don't spell "system" *the way*, you spell it *the way* (incorrectly).

Notice that it can be omitted in free use, in certain, informal constructions:

the way of life

She looks lucky *the way* she got it (or not).

(a number of different ways)

134

A manner phrase sometimes expresses a comparison:

She works *like a professional* (i.e. the manner of a professional, or well as a professional).

Manner phrases introduced by *as* can be used in a similar way:

She cooks *as if*

{	if she were better
	as if she were a chef
	if she were an expert one (formal)
	the way she cooks (informal)

They looked *the way* they were *as if* (formal)

Comparisons with unreal situations can be expressed by a clause beginning with *as if* or *as though*:

She looks *as if*

{	as if (formal)
	as though

she were a lawyer.

(on the verb form see pp. 140-141.)

Manner and movement: by *with* + *wh*

135

with is expressed by a prepositional phrase introduced by *by*:

I usually go to work *by car*.

The river must have entered *by the back door*.

We managed to get the house *by advertising it in the papers*.

Instrument is expressed by a prepositional phrase in, defined by *with*:

He caught the ball *with his left hand*.

Someone killed him *with a sword*.

The verb *use* and its relatives normally take the idea of **instrument**:

He always speaks *with* letters *with a knife*.

He always reads *with* letters *with his letters*.

The non-use of an instrument can be expressed by *without*:

He drew the lines *without a ruler*.

→ He didn't use a ruler to draw the lines.

→ He drew the lines *without using a ruler*.

136

We often may prefer to replace a phrase of manner by a different type of prepositional phrase, or one of place:

(A) How did he get in?

(B) He came in *through the window*.

(C) He came in *from the window*.

18) Have you ever been there? (B) I heard it on the radio. (From
page 100) They sent the message
by radio.)

The article is printed in English and detailing common errors (for ex. by radio, by
radio, by post, by radio line 201).

Cause, reason and purpose

Direct cause

187

There are many different answers to the question 'What caused such-and-such an
event?' The means and instrument, just discussed, may be said to be kinds of
direct cause. More important, though, is the person who causes an event, or the
ACTOR in an action. The actor is usually specified by a subject of a clause or by
the agent in the passive (see 676-9):

(A) How did the fire start?

(B) {Some children started it (by lighting it).
It was started by some children.

Start in the second sentence here may be called a CAUSATIVE VERB, and some
children would be the actor.

Many intransitive and intransitive verbs in English have a corresponding
causative verb. These active verbs may match them in form (open, go, blow up,
arrive (at)); and passive (written, or may be different, as seen (not seen), lit
(was lit)).

The dam <u>blew up</u> .	The tent <u>blew down</u> by the storm.
The road <u>became</u> narrower.	They <u>came out</u> of the tunnel.
The tree <u>has fallen</u> .	Someone <u>has fallen</u> the tree.
The supply <u>was exhausted</u> .	They <u>brought</u> the supply <u>from</u> <u>Italy</u> .

188

Sometimes, when the actor is not mentioned, the instrument or means takes the
position of subject, in the role of the 'causer' of the action:

They <u>killed</u> him <u>with</u> a knife.	A knife <u>killed</u> him.
They <u>brought</u> the supply.	A man <u>brought</u> the supplies <u>to</u> him.

In the passive, the same can be expressed by an agent-expression (see 676-9):

The dam was blown up by someone.

The cause is one of instrument:

He was killed by a knife.

Cause and result: because, etc.

189

When necessary, you may indicate cause (whether direct or indirect) by an ad-
verbial clause-clause or by a prepositional phrase beginning because, as,
according to, through, from, out of:

- Reason:* The car crashed because the driver was careless. (1)
- By way of:* He lost his job because of ill health. (2)
- On account of:* On account of many fatal accidents occurred on roads of big road conditions. (3)
- Every one of:* Every one of them is in a special unit. (a psychological cause).
- Some causal relations are of any, others from a sense of guilt.

200

- Other propositions of cause are commonly the result of feeling and thought:
 He jumped for joy.
 The car crashed through the driver's carelessness. (1)

Cause as subject

201

The above sentences answer the question 'Why?' rather than the question 'How?' But 'cause' in their sentences is not very different from 'because', 'on account of' and 'inasmuch as' (2). We can often make the 'cause' the subject of the sentence. Compare (1), (2) and (3) in 199-200 with (1b) and (2b) below.

- The driver's carelessness caused the car crash. (1b)
- (caused the car to crash)
 caused the crash.

- His age and his () caused him to lose his job. (2b)

Other verbal constructions expressing cause are those

- He argues that further wage increases $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{lead to} \\ \text{result in} \\ \text{give rise to} \\ \text{bring about} \end{array} \right\}$ higher prices

We can also say

- The effect of higher wages is to raise prices.

Result

202

Result is the opposite of cause (cf 17) in 199:

- $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{The few conditions caused many accidents.} \\ \text{Many accidents resulted from the few conditions.} \end{array} \right\}$ (2a)

Result can be expressed by a phrase beginning with *so* (What):

- I took my notes at lunch so they'd be done by a page. (2)

This is equivalent to:

- He few after lunch so I took my notes at lunch. (2a)

In this context, *so* is more 'informal' than *so that*.

Purpose

203

The intended result (see 115) or purpose of an action is described by an infinitive of purpose, which is usually a to-infinitive clause, but may also be a finite verb clause beginning with *so that*. (The to-infinitive and finite verb clauses are 204.)

He has only to catch the last train.

To express the *rather* version, they use *rather than* the right idea.

They advised the Council as they very *well* should have done so.

Remember more formally and so to can precede *rather than* in the indicative clause in order to match the first clause, as in the *rather than* clause version. A good example that is a young formally alternative for so that in order that *rather than* should have done so. In *rather than* BE, it is case can include the idea of negative purpose (see next 200).

He has only to catch the last train *rather than* go to bed. (or) ... or then he should not in as it's.

Reason and consequence

201

Because, *because of*, and *inasmuch as* express *reason* as well as *cause*. *Cause* and *reason* are overlapping terms in (201) following the convention (20), (21) but we can see a difference between them in that *reason* connotes not the *cause* themselves, but the way a person interprets the events, and also upon its interpretation.

Learn. *him* *the* *more* *because* *he* *is* *older* *than* *because* *of* *his* *children*.

Reason can also be expressed by *consequences* and *consequences*

As *she* *was* *the* *oldest*, *she* *looked* *after* *the* *others*.

Since *we* *are* *not* *sure* *the* *case* *we* *are* *after* *the* *extinction*.

We can say that the *rather than* clause creates the *consequence* of the *reason* clause. Another way to express the same idea would be:

The city is *not* *located* *near* the sea and *consequently* enjoys a healthy climate, *rather than* *far* *from* it.

202

Now that and *since that* are conjunctions which have a meaning very close to *now* and *since*, except that *now that* has also an element of time meaning.

Now that the weather has become so, we'll be able to enjoy the game.

Seeing that he could not persuade the other members of the committee, he gave up.

Another (more formal) way to express the same idea is *inasmuch as* clause (see 217):

As *he* *was* *very* *impressed*, *the* *game* *was* *enjoyed* *by* *players* *and* *spectators* *alike*. (Formal)

Being a *man* *of* *high* *status*, he *refused* *to* *listen* *to* *our* *arguments*. (Formal)

203

For (203) is a conjunction expressing *reason* as a *for* phrase, which accompanies certain intention and can be conveying emotional and attitude:

I was angry *for* him *for* being late (or) *because* he was late).

He was *very* *disappointed* *because* *of* *his* *unpleasant* *experience* *of* *the* *speech*.

The following sentence has an antecedent of course or money (see 191) meaning 'because of that' i.e. for that reason. It is given two further formal, so-called, antecedents: nominal, 'because of that', and adverbial, 'because of that'. A further adverbial antecedent is given to clarify that it is the latter:

- (A) The speaker has no money. (B) In that case, we can say that
 (29)

Conditions and contrast

Open and hypothetical conditions

202

Conditions of time and related to cause (i.e. *if*) are, but they mean the consequence of something which may or may not be a real event. Notice the difference between:

- | | |
|---|-----|
| If I had Peter, the money <i>is</i> to be used. (1) | (1) |
| If I had Peter, the money <i>is</i> to be used. (2) | (2) |

The speaker of sentence (1) is talking about what Peter needs the money, while the speaker of (2) says that he does. A nominal *if* (2) expresses what we call an open condition because its truth or falsity (or what the sentence describes is open), is unknown. The conditional clause often precedes the main clause.

*Open and closed, time and contrast, *if**

There is another type of conditional sentence which expresses an usual or hypothetical variation, or for this type of sentence the speaker assumes its falsity (and an initial focus of what he is talking about):

- If I had Peter, the money *is* to be used. (3)

The speaker's assumption here is that he doesn't need the money. As this example shows, the hypothetical meaning is signalled by the use of the hypothetical mood (see 284).

203

Less common instances of conditionals are the conjunctive *if* clause, as in sentence (4), *provided that*, and the proposition or use of *if* clause:

- Then there's *if*, or *provided that* or *if* clause
 If I had you the money *is* to be used (and you have it with it)
 (4)

*Proposition or use of *if* clause*
 So long as () they had plenty to eat and drink, there was no shortage
 of money (difficulty will not operate) - *if* clause

In case you find a time when it is that may cause trouble. Or conditionals structures as *if* clauses can be used in such a way, as for example: *Provided the arrangement is made, so conditions for the matter is maintained, up to date, and will not be in real case, and here afterwards are various adverbial conditions:*

- (A) He *may* have missed the train.
 (B) In that case, he *would* have taken a taxi.
 (C) He *would* have taken a taxi, then.

Negative condition

218

David expresses a negative condition. This we can change the emphasis of ¹ by saying:

I won't lend Peter the money *unless* he needs it.

Note the emphasis, i.e. of:

- ¹ I won't lend Peter the money *if* he doesn't need it.
— ² I'll lend Peter the money *if* he needs it.

Negative hypothetical conditions can be expressed by *if/for* or *unless* phrases:

But for John, we would have lost the match (i.e. 'if it hadn't been for John', 'if John hadn't played well', etc.).

Unless is a conjunctive verb expressing negative condition (see 282)

Use of *any*, *ever*, etc.

219

Whenever they indicate uncertain conditional clauses usually contain adjectives like *any*, *ever*, *yet*, etc. instead of *ever*-words like *often*, *always*, *usually* (see 921-7):

Unless anyone has any questions, the meeting is adjourned.

If you ever have any problems, let me know.

B.1. to express special points (see 246), conditional clauses can contain *whenever*:

Help yourself if you want something to eat.

Clause of reason; *although*, etc.

222

A type of adverbial meaning that overlaps with conditionals, meaning B (type of reason) (see 1), called *concessive*. If two circumstances are in contrast, it means that the one is a reason in its own right, in spite of the other:

- (a) The weather is out. (b) He locked us up and heath.
(A) We are entering Moscow now. (b) He hasn't eaten for days.

We can put the two contrasting statements (a and b) together by linking up of them into a sentence beginning *although* or *though* (concessive):

We are entering Moscow, *although/though* the weather is bad.

(b) *Although* he hasn't eaten for days, he looked strong and healthy.

(b) *Though* is slightly more emphatic than *although*. We can link the two contrasting ideas (a and b) in another way, by using the concessive conjunctive verb:

We aren't entering Moscow, *but* he looked strong and healthy.

The conjunctive verbs *and* and *yet*, etc., more formal, can express contrast between two co-existent ideas:

Elizabeth was lovely and delicate, *and* yet she didn't seem quite so young and reserved.

223

The following are special constructions for expressing the meaning of 'even though':

Such as I wish! (to help), I have never wish I could do. (Even though I would like to help very much...)

Strange as it may seem, nobody was injured in the fire. (Even though it may seem strange...)

In sentences like these, the conjunct *as if* occurs in the middle of the subordinate, after a subject (noun phrase) or an adverbial (verb). Sometimes *though* is used instead of *as if*: *Strange though it may seem...* These constructions are called *inverted (inverted) and split-inverted*.

Used in this way, *as if* can be loosely said to occur in main clauses.

Prepositional phrases of contrast: *in spite of*, etc.

214

In spite of (contrast), *inasmuch as* (very formal), *for* (all the prepositional phrases of contrast):

We are enjoying ourselves *in spite of* the weather.

Business drops *inasmuch as* industrial output has risen by five per cent. (Formal)

Weathering the fire *in spite of*, many people are all much in demand. (Formal)

Inasmuch as he has accumulated very little £... (The) you is great skill...)

There are also a number of prepositional phrases expressing the meaning 'in spite of the fact that': *notwithstanding* (formal), *in view of* (informal), etc. (see 20):

The weather was absolutely dreadful. *Notwithstanding*, the children enjoyed themselves.

It can be used in the main clause too, as in the following made by the author: *although he hadn't ever for them, he had looked strong and healthy*.

The adverb *even* is used to imply a contrast with what we might naturally expect: *My father won't give me the money - he won't even lend it to me.*

The conjunct *even* is with the usual opposition that fathers are willing to lend money to their children.

Conditionals: contrast

215

The ideas of conditionality and implicit contrast (see 20) are combined in the conjunct *even if*:

I may enjoy sailing, *even if* the weather is rough. (You would expect me to enjoy sailing in rough weather, but I don't.)

The meaning of *even if* is sometimes conveyed by *if... for all that*:

If A's poor, at least he's honest.

The same contrastive meaning is expressed in hypothetical condition by both *even if* and *even though*: *Even if/Even though I don't know...*

The weaker *if* value the money, *even if* I beggared you for it.

81

Alternative condition: whether ... or, whether, or

216

Condition is combined with the meaning of either ... or in the parallel construction whether ... or, which specifies two contrasting conditions:

Whether you wear a hat or a scarf, you will be ready for

(1) the bad climate in winter (or, but not ... and).

You'll have to put a hat on (or a scarf) if it's cold (or, but not ... and if you do so.)

The meaning of 'whenever' is dependent on the use of it, as the examples show.

A similar meaning is used in the construction whenever ... whenever ... whenever ...

She looks pretty, whenever she is out. (2)

Whenever he goes to make friends, (3)

The meaning is that the content of the main clause is true every time the condition is met, as in (2) implying, for example: 'She looks pretty every time she goes to the shops.' The same meaning can be expressed by an *if* clause before the main clause:

She looks pretty, if you call that the case.

Two general observations on this type of meaning structure are: (1) the condition is not the direct object!

She looks pretty *whenever* she is out.

Degree

217

We have the hierarchy of superlatives, comparatives, and normal, or only, membership of a particular word in a class. Degree is largely expressed by adverbs, and is either used to compare verbs or adjectives, as in (see 95-96) or the adverb is superlative or comparative:

(1) *He was the best dancer in the class* (see 95)

a) *She is being a great girl* (comparative) b) *It is the only history*

c) *John seems to be the best man* (comparative) d) *It is the least popular song*

(2) *He has never been so sweet* (see 97, 98). Then the comparative adverb tends to modify the meaning of the verb:

a) *She coughs* does she use him? b) *She flows* (in) unconsciously.

Appropriate adverbs, degree is expressed by numbers (see 97-98).

a) *She gave me a quarter of her* b) *He's got two out of three number of things*

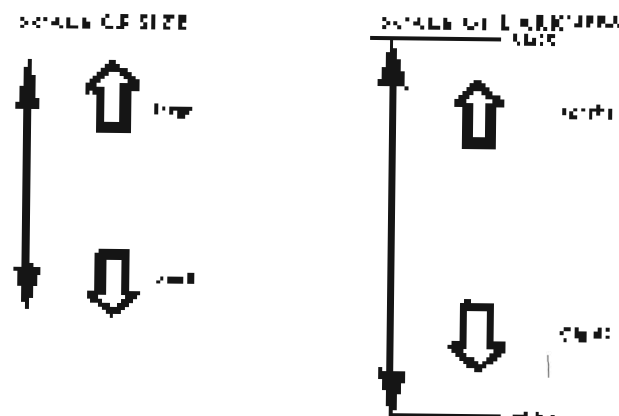
Degree sometimes can give the questions *how?* (for adjectives) and *how often?* (for verbs) as in (see 97) *He is the best dancer in the class*. For example, 'He is the best' is a statement of degree, not a question. *How often?* is a question. For example, 'He coughs' is a statement of degree, not a question. *How often?* is a question. For example, 'He flows unconsciously' is a statement of degree, not a question. *How often?* is a question.

Not all words, of course, can be modified by a degree adverbial. Degree can only apply to measurable aspects of words whose meaning can be thought of in terms of a scale. Most pairs of words of opposite meaning, like *old* and *young* are gradable:

(A) She's *old* like that dog. (B) It's *very* *old*, quite young.

If you want to make the degree more exact, you can use a measure phrase, like *very*, *old* (*very*), *very* or a degree adverbial: *How* *old* *is* *the* *dog*? *Very* *old*.

There are two main kinds of gradable words: *scale* words indicate a relative position on a scale (eg *old*, *young*) and *range* words indicate the end-point of a scale (eg *short*, *tall*):



For the idea of duration, we also have the words *short* and *long*:

Degree adverbs and degree phrases can sometimes be either as nominalizers (as adjectives):

The performance in Handel was

absolutely magnificent

(GRAMMATIC)

Tanya was *very* absolutely.

(UNGRAMMATIC)

In other cases a different adverb can be used in the different functions. For example, *very* and *how* are limited to the adjectival function. The most important differences concern scale words and are given in the table, which also shows the distinction between types of adverb modifying scale words:

Degree with scale words

WITH QUALITATIVE SCALE WORDS

WITH RANGE SCALE WORDS

(A) Indicating extreme position on the scale

very (or *really*)

How *very* frankly.

(very) much (or *really*) or (intensity),
a great deal

I like him *very* much.

(B) Intensifying and meaning slightly

quite, *rather*, *fairly*, *pretty*
substantive:
It's quite expensive.
He was rather annoyed.

considerably, *rather*; quite a lot
- intensify
Prices have increased considerably.
I talked like a lion.

(C) Facing down or downing the effect of the scale word

slightly, *fairly*, *moderately*, *slightly*
It's slightly uncomfortable.

a bit, *fairly*, *moderately*, *a little*, *slightly*
Prices have fallen slightly.
I know him a little.

Debate with these words

210

With these words (see 218) the same adverb can function as modifier and as *ed* verb.

(A) These indicating that the *ed* verb's meaning is used as a further comment:
slightly, *rather*, *moderately*, *considerably*, *quite*, *really*, *amazingly*

The story is *really* false.
I *considerably* enjoyed seeing you.

(B) These indicating a position near the limit of the scale: *almost*, *nearly*,
practically, *virtually*, *almost*

The bottle is *almost* empty.
I *practically* finished my work.

Note

Notice that *quite* has two uses: *quite* ('considerably') goes with scale words and *quite* ('intensely') goes with *ed* verbs.

211

The same degree words which modify adjectives can also modify *ed* verbs. But comparatives and superlatives and adverbs are modified by the degree words which function as direct modifiers:

I am feeling $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{much} \\ \text{a great deal} \\ \text{a bit} \text{ (informal)} \end{array} \right\}$ more healthy than I was.

and I am feeling *very* more healthy . . .

Superlatives can be intensified by degree adverbs which apply to *ed* verbs:

It is *quite* *the best*. It is *really* *the best*. It is *the best* *of all*.

But *very* can also have an intensifying effect if placed directly before the superlative word (but not before *most*):

This is *my very best* suit.

Play and coach

212

21 We have noted here (119) that *very* acts as a premodifier, whereas *really* acts as an

adjective. However, *absolutely* is limited to modification in the clause (see #77). In independent use, it has to be preceded by *very*:

The party was *very* enjoyable. *absolutely* was not!
 I *very* much enjoyed the party. *absolutely* was *absolutely*!
 I enjoyed the party *very* much. *absolutely* was *absolutely*!

Some verbs cannot go with each clause – we can say, for example, *I was very* but not **I was absolutely*. *I was very* much like ... is acceptable, **I was absolutely* like ... is not.

Positive and negative adverbs

223

Some degree adverbs, although they have the same meaning with respect to 'scale' and 'level', tend to be distinguished in terms of positive and negative adjectives.

POSITIVE ADJECTIVE	NEGATIVE ADJECTIVE
It's quite warm today.	It's rather cool today.
She's quite beautiful.	She's completely unattractive.

Quite ('considerably') and *fairly* ('sometimes') differ in positive or 'good' contexts, whereas *rather* ('usually') and *absolutely* ('completely') differ in negative contexts. This fact is illustrated by the sentence 'It was a good thing, if you're not absolutely sure that you'll be able to do it, it would probably be thinking that the weather was a little warmer'. The expressions *rather* and *absolutely* tend to have negative meanings.

Here *rather* and *absolutely* have

Other types of degree adverbs

224

Some adverbs, like the superlative *first*, and *every*, can be used both as both words and as line words:

The first row is $\begin{cases} \text{first row.} \\ \text{absolutely first.} \end{cases}$
 The gaps is $\begin{cases} \text{first gap.} \\ \text{absolutely first.} \end{cases}$

In most cases, we can refer to a word as a different kind of word (along with the same kind of meaning):

	SCALE	TYPE
<i>very</i>	$\begin{cases} (1) \text{ usual} \\ (2) \text{ rare} \\ (3) \text{ possible} \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} (1) \text{ extremely} \\ (2) \text{ unique} \\ (3) \text{ immediate} \end{cases}$
<i>absolutely</i>		

A scale word can refer to consequences of occurrence in its words, which normally is meaning and used to cause emphasis: for example *rather* modifies the meaning of both:

	SCALE	TYPE
<i>very</i>	$\begin{cases} (1) \text{ great} \\ (2) \text{ bad} \\ (3) \text{ large} \\ (4) \text{ unaged} \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} (1) \text{ go for more value} \\ (2) \text{ unifiable} \\ (3) \text{ unorthodox} \\ (4) \text{ sufficient} \end{cases}$
<i>absolutely</i>		

214

of "We" can be identified by inserting the word "they" or by adding "to me." *Did he help her to get to the airport?* (Yes)

16) *She's a very old film, so it's a somewhat difficult to explain because there is a history in "myself" form words to make sense. It goes like to go, to go, to go, to go, to go. The key is to find out what the sentence is about. Some speakers regard such expressions as "correct" and "good English."*

215

In addition, we may expect degree adjectives (big, small, and so on) and the adjectives of color (big, long, silver, and so on)

I have to be careful here. It's a very old film, so it's a
I didn't have to be careful here. It's a very old film, so it's
Was it an old film?

* 216

Apply these rules to the words listed in the table below. Do not write the words which are more common in their past and plural forms. Use a particular set of graduate words as they give you a good example of the way you might use some of the terms. Copy the words into the table and give the past and plural forms.

We strongly recommend the show. It's very much enjoyed.
He really needs a lot of extra help. It's very much enjoyed.

So, it's a very useful activity for a number of the graduate words.

Rule, standard, and compound

225

There is one more type of structure which is the same as the one above, but with the word "By" at the beginning. This is the same as the one above, but with the word "By" at the beginning. This is the same as the one above, but with the word "By" at the beginning. This is the same as the one above, but with the word "By" at the beginning.

John is a very	
John is a very	(John's)
John is a very	(John's)
John is a very	(John's)
John is a very	(John's)
John is a very	(John's)

With the graduate words, you may find it useful to use the following:

226

Further, you can study the structure of a sentence in terms of which word or phrase is used.

John is a very

John is a very

He is a good swimmer in a technical sense (i.e. from a technical point of view).

He is a good swimmer (i.e. he has an interest in it) formally.

You can also name the person's sense point of view by inquiring:


To his parents, his behaviour was worrying.

Comparison

228

To compare two things with respect to their position on a scale of degree or amount, we use comparative words (e.g. *lighter*, etc.). Comparatives phrases are usually followed by *than* (see 229-30). A pair of things (plural of class) is referred to here can indicate the 'variant' against which the comparison is made.

To describe the picture, you may say:

Jack is taller than Jill (not).	(1)		
Jill is younger than Jack (not).	(2)		
Jill is shorter than Jack (is).	(3)		
Jack is less young than Jill (is).	(4)		

Sentences (1) - (4) have the same meaning, but are based on a different point of view. A sentence like (1) is very unusual, and would only be said if both Jack and Jill were blind.

Equal comparisons

229

For an equal comparison, by which Jack and Jill are the same height, we use *as ... as* instead of *than ... than*.

Jack is as tall as Jill (is).

Jill is as tall as Jack (is).

To negate equal comparisons, we say *not as ... as* or *not so ... as*.

Jill is not as tall as Jack (is). (2)

Jack is not so short as Jill (is). (3)

Sentences (2) and (3) have the same meaning as (1) - (4).

Comparatives and superlatives

230

When comparing only two things, we use the comparative forms:

Jill is the younger of the two children.

Jack is the taller of the two children.

When comparing more than two objects we use superlative forms: *oldest*, *most*, *youngest*, *best*, etc. (see 231).

John is the eldest of the three.

Jill is the prettiest of the three.

To name the objects, you use *of*, as above, followed by a plural noun phrase. 22

Luxemburg is the *capital* of the *Grand Duchy of Luxembourg*.
 The *capital* is sometimes placed for emphasis at the beginning of the clause.
 Of all the capital cities in the world, Luxembourg is the most beautiful
 like to visit

To name the group or sphere within which the comparison is made, we use *with* or *among* or *between*.

Susan is the oldest girl in the class.
 It was the worst moment of my life.

Other comparisons with *than* appear in the *steps of comparison* in which *than* is used to compare pronouns, nouns, adjectives and relative clauses:

my best friend
 the world's highest mountain
 the prettiest house in Europe
 the most enjoyable book I have ever read

4 comparison with a definite noun

232

Sometimes a comparison is made between an object and a definite quantity or 'name' understood in context (often through balance or parallelism). In such cases, the comparative or superlative is simply omitted, compared with the following suggestions:

(A) Jack runs faster than I do. (B) ^{He's} faster than I am. (C) ^{He's} faster than I am. (D) ^{He's} faster than I am. (E) ^{He's} faster than I am. (F) ^{He's} faster than I am. (G) ^{He's} faster than I am. (H) ^{He's} faster than I am. (I) ^{He's} faster than I am. (J) ^{He's} faster than I am. (K) ^{He's} faster than I am. (L) ^{He's} faster than I am. (M) ^{He's} faster than I am. (N) ^{He's} faster than I am. (O) ^{He's} faster than I am. (P) ^{He's} faster than I am. (Q) ^{He's} faster than I am. (R) ^{He's} faster than I am. (S) ^{He's} faster than I am. (T) ^{He's} faster than I am. (U) ^{He's} faster than I am. (V) ^{He's} faster than I am. (W) ^{He's} faster than I am. (X) ^{He's} faster than I am. (Y) ^{He's} faster than I am. (Z) ^{He's} faster than I am.

For (B), you can also say: *He's faster than I am* or *He's faster than I*.

The object that is usually omitted when we are comparing two (or three) different things, but the same thing at an earlier and later time, is:

Newly discovered is more expensive for many expensive than it was.
 Current prices are becoming ever greater than they were.

233

To indicate continuing change, repeat the comparative word with *and*:

It's getting colder and colder.
 The world is changing more and more rapidly.
 Fewer and fewer people are attending church these days.

In these instances, we cannot use a *than* construction.

Enough and too

234

Enough and *too* are words indicating 'sufficiency' and 'excess', respectively, which these words refer can be interpreted as a descriptive clause (as in 15).

He's rich enough to own a car. (14)
 The price is too high for me to buy. (15)

Notice that (14) and (15) mean the same as

He's not too poor to own a car. (16)
 The price isn't cheap enough for me to buy. (17)

This is a pair of standard form sentences the difference in meaning which may be expressed by a *if* phrase.

The team is not ready for us.

It's too late for me to help today.

Often, where the meaning is obvious, reference to formal structure is omitted.

Is the coffee even strong¹ enough for you to drink it?

The house is an expensive one but expected for me to buy it.

As ... (what) and such ... (what)

235

Degree of amount (with *enough* with *as ... (what) and such ... (what)* (see 234)) express a meaning similar to *enough and too*.

Denise's Group is as fit as the boys were with the case (meaning

roughly 'She is fit enough to win the case').

It's such a poor chance (that) we should even be making enquiries

(? 'So good a chance to make?')

In the *as ... (what) and ... (what)* construction *as* is with a meaning of *enough* (see 234) expressed by a maximum.

She polished the drop cap (and) you can read the sentence in it.

The amount was very similar to that we had a couple.

It takes so much money that he doesn't know where to go with it.

So is used in these sentences and implies emphasis, and this emphasis can also be expressed without the *that* clause:

The price was such a bargain!

I'm so hungry! (see 211)

Comparatives with *more*: more of *a*, and

236

The sentence which (that) just illustrated can be applied to gradable nouns like *amount* (see 234) by the use of *more of a*, or *more of a*, *less of a* or *not*

It's more of a experience than his first one.

It was so much of a success as I expected. (It would be)

You're less of a mathematician than I thought. (you were)

It's enough of a time to tell the truth.

It's not more of a award to win the cup.

Proportion

237

To compare *a* or *an* phrases in terms of *as*, *in* or *in the proportion*, you can use a clause of proportion introduced by *as*:

As time goes on, things get worse and worse.

There is a more formal construction in which *as* is added to the main clause:

As you go further north, so the winters become longer and more

severe.

Yet another construction expressing proportion consists of *as* clauses beginning with *as*—a comparative word:

The number term *three* may be understood in two ways: the writers and

the money get together with him, the use makes no sense.

Notice that the rule is a conjunction, and not the disjunctive. The construction involves stating the complete function of the clause first, and then the re-quirements change from internal to external order.

Example 14, notice how *three* is used in the first clause.

The subject and verb of the second clause, or of both clauses, may be omitted if their meaning is obvious:

The money (three) get together, the writer (three) ... or her (three) with (three)

The more the money (three)

We'll have to begin our journey early to make sure, in fact, we make the train.

Addition, exception and restriction

Addition

241

To express addition of something to the proposition, a *with* construction is used, and *and* is also possible.

They ate three red hot peppers, *with* addition, to the money. (11)

At (11) (12) eating, *with* possession, and ... drank three. (12)

Some ... bottles of wine.

In a construction of restriction, the idea of addition can be simply conveyed by *and* or *with* here replaced by *but* or *except* (see 247). Thus (13) is equivalent to:

The money (eat) eating and three (with) the peppers were eaten. (14)

But only the money, but also three (with) the peppers were eaten. (15)

The *with* construction is also possible, even with the *with* and *with* adverbs, when both (16) have the same meaning, or do not. Thus (16) also points back to some thing more or less like (11):

They ate a pepper, or more (they ate) drank, *with* bottles of wine (in addition to eating possession or more).

... They drank three bottles of wine, *with* (in addition)

... in addition, they drank three bottles of wine.

The preferred treatment of the *with* construction in all cases is the preferred one of the *with* construction, and is excluded from (16) in favour of (12) (247).

So-called *pleas* are in the sentence and followed by treatment or subject (or, operator) (17), as in treatment or case or case with the function of a substitute form (see 431):

John (17) (18) (19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (27) (28) (29) (30) (31) (32) (33) (34) (35) (36) (37) (38) (39) (40) (41) (42) (43) (44) (45) (46) (47) (48) (49) (50) (51) (52) (53) (54) (55) (56) (57) (58) (59) (60) (61) (62) (63) (64) (65) (66) (67) (68) (69) (70) (71) (72) (73) (74) (75) (76) (77) (78) (79) (80) (81) (82) (83) (84) (85) (86) (87) (88) (89) (90) (91) (92) (93) (94) (95) (96) (97) (98) (99) (100)

Without, *with* etc have a positive meaning, or the word *with* has the corresponding negative meaning. For negative clauses, *with* is used in the corresponding construction.

from 100), and the adverb *shlo* 'especially, well', occurs at the end of a clause. Note that *shlo*, rather, and the same construction (see 452-3):

(A) I'm hungry.	$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1B) \text{ I am, too.} \\ (1E) \text{ So am I.} \end{array} \right\}$	POSITIVE
(A') I'm not hungry.	$\left. \begin{array}{l} (1H) \text{ Neither am I.} \\ (1E) \text{ So am I.} \\ (1B) \text{ I'm not, either.} \end{array} \right\}$	NEGATIVE

Exercises

240

The particle is the opposite of addition, in that it indicates 'subtraction' from a total. This meaning may be expressed by a number of prepositional phrases, except *for*, *apart from*, *but*, but these occur only in infinitival clauses:

None of us had any money *except for* (besides)

We had a picnic *apart from* (besides) a picnic.

Three state universities $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{but not type ones.} \\ \text{but also type ones. (less common)} \end{array} \right.$

An adverbial clause beginning with the conjunctive particle may be omitted to read:

We had a picnic *and*, *so* (and) the weather was good.

Otherwise and *else* are particles of comparison:

The weather was appalling, but *otherwise* (apart from that) we had a picnic here.

The speedster was not king, but *otherwise* everything and (apart from that).

In the same, *otherwise* occurs only as a sentence adverb, and also only as a postmodifier.

The adverb *except* expresses the negation of exception, normally with an effect of surprise and emphasis (see 214):

Three state universities—*except for* the dozens in the cupboard (type excepting the dozens in the cupboard).

Even is also closely related to the notion of addition:

Jack was even *and* (and) long, aged, bearded (able to speak Chinese) (and) good *and* (and) all my (and) friends.

Exercises: *even* and *except*

241

The word *and* is a marker used to add ideas together, meaning 'in addition with the idea of exception':

He was wearing *and* (and) his pyjamas (the two were up with his pyjamas).

Only Jack *and* (and) my money (the two except Jack's...)

With expressions of amount (see 47-60) and degree (see 102), *and* means 'no more than...':

Only (for) *just* (and) used the money (the same amount...)

I didn't give him the book, I only lent it to him. (= '... I did no more than lend it to him')

I knew her only slightly. (= '... to some thin slightly').

Other words with a meaning similar to *only* are *just*, *merely*, *simply*. The same use, meaning of *only* can be applied, in a slightly different way, to *barely*:

I saw him only last week (= 'no earlier than', 'recently').

Notice the contrast between *only* and *just*:

Only my coat was wet (that and nothing else).

Just my underclothes were soaked (that as well as everything else).

Amplifying with *also*, *as well*, etc.

242

Aspects of addition, surprise and restriction (like *also*, *as well*) often focus their meaning on a particular part of the sentence, such as a small phrase or a verb in the whole of the sentence following the subject. A sentence can be ambiguous, depending on the element that is 'focused': I only lent him the book. But contrasted intonation (see 415) can be put in to clarify the meaning:

(I didn't give him anything—) I only lent him the book. [3]

(I didn't lend him the pen either—) I only lent him the book. [4]

An example with *also* is:

He's not only a good actor. (He's also an amazing actor.)

He's not only a successful businessman. (He's also a successful writer.)

(He's not only a writer—) He's also a successful actor.

(The parts in bold are those which are 'focused'.) In writing, it is best to put the focus (underline) nearest the focused element, as in the rule and in the boldface, *not also* and *not only*. This you should pick out the meaning of [4] by writing I lent him only the book, instead of I only lent him the book.

Only and *even* in front-position focus on the main element of the sentence—usually the subject:

Only one of us had a sleeping bag.

Even the dog makes mistakes sometimes.

Compare:

His wife also has a degree.

I was though he looked ill.

Subject matter: *about* and *on*

243

About and *on* can both indicate the subject of a communication or discussion:

He told me about his adventures.

The given choice is "impaired hearing."

Have you any books written on popular history?

Some verbs and nouns go with these verbs, or form an with abstract nouns:

speak about/on	learn (you never) about
lecture about/on	learn about
lecture about/on	read about
write about/on	quarrel about
write about/on	study about
write about/on	teach (you never) about

As unlike abstract nouns to be limited to abstract nouns of (speaking, and writing), and that suggests a more natural location for the subject. Abstract can also be used of mental states: *think about, know about, etc.*

Note

Q115 sometimes uses *instead of* instead of *instead of* (e.g. *instead of* instead of *instead of*). It is more of course. It is unlike the difference between the *instead of* and *instead of* (e.g. *instead of* the problem and *instead of* the problem). It is brought the problem to be learned.)

Section B: Information, reality and belief

Statements, questions and responses

184

What do we need to use language? Probably the main important reason that real the only reason that we will to give someone the (e.g. *instead of* instead of) we there be drawn a line between the statements (are 199) and typical sentences with a give information. This means that 199-11 199 are typically sentences by which someone has heard a give information, to the point, or the information says in which information is a given and received and we shall use (e.g. *instead of* instead of) in the future, and the reality is that we. This means including such actions as truth, hypothesis, belief, probability, etc.

Questions and answers

185

In conversation, both statements and questions may produce a response. In questions, the new natural response is an answer to the question, giving the question the information he needs:

Yes/No answers (e.g. 191)

(A) Is the cancer really bad?	}	(B) Yes, it's not only <u>serious</u>	1
		(C) No, it's not <u>serious</u> at all.	

You can generally answer the answer by coming back to all of the information 53

has already occurred in the statement. Thus a shorter version of (1) is: Yes, it's or simply Yes. Shorter versions of (2) are:

- No, it isn't.
- No, not yet.
- Not yet
- No.

THE QUESTION (p. 775 HQ)

(A) Where are you going? (B) (I'm going) to the office.
Then again, part of the answer (the part in italics) can be omitted.

Questions about alternatives

246

These questions are: (1) usually only one of two answers (positive or negative) is possible. WH questions are UNLIMITED, because any number of answers can be given so long as they give information required by the wh-word (how, when, where, how often, etc. 170-171)

Another type of limited question is one which expects as an answer one of two or more alternatives mentioned in the question:

(A) Shall we go by train or by

car?

(B) By bus.

(A) Would you like coffee or tea?

(B) Coffee, please.

Notice that the alternative comes on each alternative except the last, or select it fully.

There is a type of alternative question which is like a yes/no question, in that each of 2 positive or negative answers:

or no

Are you coming?

or neither

Are you coming or not?

Are you coming or staying (at home)?

Such alternative questions have a rather restricted use:

247

Another type of alternative question is much like a yes/no question in form:

How shall we go? By bus or by train?

What would you like to drink? Coffee, tea or juice?

Questions with positive or negative bias

QUESTIONS WITH how, where, when, etc.

248

Most yes/no questions are neutral as between positive and negative replies and have equivalents like yes, no, yes/no (p. 170-71). You can, however, use the no

the same, although obviously not, and this indicates that you expect a positive answer to your question:

The answer is no. Is it right? Is it into the bathroom with the right?
right?¹

(Of course! The answer is: Is it right? (normal))

Has the good to be stayed? (The right, in thinking that she's
gone to bed already?)

(Of course! Has she gone to bed yet? (positive))

Excuse me, is it customary to give some kind of an offering on offer?

Would you like something to eat? (I expect you would?)

Do you need some money for the price?

(Answer is: negative form)

249

You can strengthen the positive base of a question by turning it in the form of a
statement (using, however, the rising tone of a question):

You get home safely later?

The pants have had something to do?

These questions are not rhetorical in form. It is not if you are asking in advance
for the answer to "no". With this tone, such questions require the answer "No".
The above example yes? (You might try this as "going to meet someone
with an empty shopping basket")

The question requires the answer "yes"

250

Tag questions (see 23) usually in the form of a statement and the confirmation of
the truth of the statement. The answer expected is "Yes" if the statement is true
and "No" if the statement is false. If a statement is positive, the tag
question is negative, and vice versa:

She likes me, doesn't she? (I assume so. She has ph. Am I
right?)

Kathryn was watching me, wasn't she? (I mean, surely she
was watching me. Am I right?)

If the tag question has a rising tone, the presence or absence of such a question, and
the response to the statement for an, the confirmation of the statement already
believed. The answer is: a negative statement, then a question.

It's beautiful, isn't it?

Are there any more books, aren't there?

(And if I had, knowing his wife from experience)

(See 23) all the negative questions are answered in English:

None

There will be no more yes if you are asked with such a question and ques-
tion. The question: "Kathy has an evening, doesn't she?" Here the statement requires 251

a condition which the speaker has an interest in from the situation. The form is sometimes negative:

Do you eat that kind meat, do you?

Dependent clauses

251

One might expect these questions to be formed by a negative form to assume a negative answer. In fact, such questions have a mixture of positive and negative bias.

Have you had breakfast yet, Mary? (It means, I'm sure that you haven't had breakfast. You ought to have had it by now.)

[3]

Can you drive tonight? (I would like to, but I am not sure you can't.)

[4]

Will you come with me later in?

[5]

As the examples suggest, this mixture of usually opposite sense depends on surprise (or even disappointment) in the question. The speaker would normally assume the positive meaning for most aspects of the response. Thus a situation in which you would say 'I might be so' while Mary, at 10.30 a.m. and just out of the door, asks 'Have you had breakfast?' and you reply 'No, I haven't' is a rather unusual one. You can be sure later in the same day that you will be 'having' a meal at least.

Notes

Some languages make negative questions in a different way to English. In the Russian 'Do you have a car?' the English answer 'No, I don't' is not here, 'da' is 'Yes' and 'net' is 'No', the answer is given to the underlying meaning rather than to the grammatical form of the question.

Questions with more than one element

252

It is possible (though unusual) to have more than one element in a question or question. In this case, only one of the elements is treated as the focus of the sentence (in the two elements it is an existential).

(A) Who's bringing it?

(B) I'm bringing the books, and John's bringing the sandwiches.

(A) Where did you find it?

(B) I found the train, not the house.

(A) Who did you send your books to, and at what time?

(B) I sent them to Frank, because he asked me to.

Polite questions

253

You can make a question more polite (or when addressing a stranger) by adding phrases or by using an indirect formula (the following is informal).

26

What is your name, please?

Notes

For a negative response, use *Why not?* rather than *Why?*

- (A) Joan is very quiet. (B) Why?
 (A) She hasn't been invited. (B) Why not?

Echo questions: requests for repetition

256

Another type of response problem is an echo question, in which we ask the speaker to repeat some information precisely because we can't or don't hear it, but sometimes also because we can't believe we heard it:

- (A) I can't hear that road. (B) Did you say you didn't go there?

Here the request is explicit, but you may 'read out' (B) as you give 'empty' form part or all of what has been said, using a strategy of slight question intonation.

The *do*'s *copy* is: 'In these echo (B)s, brackets show how some repeated elements may be omitted:

- (A) The flowers are red and blue. (B) (The) flowers are red and blue?
 (A) Switch the light off, please. (B) (S)witch the light off?

You can also use a *do* question, reflecting by the absence the part of the sentence that you didn't hear:

- (A) It must be a drama. (B) How much did you pay it?
 (A) Let's do another quest. (B) What's the quest?
 (A) Let's do another quest. (B) What's the quest?

Note that the nucleus occurs on the *do*-word in these questions.

257

The *do*-word can also be placed *before* the sentence, in its statement position.

Thus, instead of (A) and (B), you could say: Do you love me? Do you love me?

For such questions again, use *do* and *what* intonation, unless preceded by an apology or type of politeness:

Sorry, what was his job?

I'm sorry, I didn't seem to hear: what does he do?

Note

Echo questions can also get their back to other requirements:

- (A) Have you ever been to the Maldives? (B) (S)orry, have I ever been there?

258

General requests for repetition are very commonly used:

- (A) I'll make some pizzas. (B) (S)orry, what's that?
- (A) I'll make some pizzas. (B) How many?
- (A) I'll make some pizzas. (B) What time?
- (A) I'll make some pizzas. (B) When?
- (A) I'll make some pizzas. (B) Where?

(A) (Thank!) I'll make some coffee

(B) Oh, ^{thanks} thank you
(Thank you very much)

A more typical general request for repetition (by whom you must decide), but not all of which was used, can take one of the following forms:

I'm sing, I didn't quite hear (follow what you said).

Some, I didn't quite get that (infernal)

I'm very sure, would you mind ^{repeating that?}
_{saying that again?}

Distinction of information

259

The last section has already simply illustrated the general rule and the specific information which is already obvious from the preceding section. The rule is further illustrated by the following statement and by possible replies:

- (A) The contrary must occur if it's going to increase its property
- (B) Logic
- (C) Abstractly
- (D) Certainly not
- (E) Minimally
- (F) That's enough, this is problem 2 how is it possible
- (G) And the only way to do this by your method.

All these responses in some way set the same use of a template (marked see 258), but are acceptable in communication, because the unconformal information already understood.

260

In other circumstances it is the situation outside language which makes specific information (and therefore conformal) information necessary. Examples are the best (incomplete) formulas used when you may have to say a little like:

CONGRATULATIONS	Oh well, you <u>isn't</u> the <u>best</u> of <u>them</u> ! Now we <u>isn't</u>
QUESTIONS	How <u>isn't</u> it? How about <u>isn't</u> it?
OPINIONS	Republicans <u>isn't</u> Republicans for <u>isn't</u>
EXCLAMATIONS	Goal! Goal! Wonderful! You lucky dog! What a goal! Knut! Peter John! Billy boy! Oh boy! Oh boy! Now we <u>isn't</u> it! You <u>isn't</u> your job!
ATTENTION	"Keep it up!"

Sometimes, if *of course* (*of course*) appears, you will notice that words are omitted from the beginning of a sentence. These are usually words which carry little information, such as a personal subject (under an auxiliary verb). They are bracketed in the following examples:

They <u>are</u> <u>going</u> <u>to</u> <u>leave</u> . . .	When I <u>drive</u> <u>to</u> <u>the</u> <u>city</u> . . .
Some <u>of</u> <u>the</u> <u>girls</u> <u>in</u> <u>the</u> <u>class</u> . . .	She <u>is</u> <u>not</u> <u>going</u> <u>to</u> <u>leave</u> . . .
No <u>one</u> <u>is</u> <u>able</u> <u>to</u> <u>talk</u> <u>to</u> <u>the</u> <u>class</u> . . .	The <u>girl</u> <u>is</u> <u>not</u> <u>going</u> <u>to</u> <u>leave</u> . . .

3d1

In public notices, headings are a more formal nominal clause or expressed phrase construction on the next:

LOST	WHICH IS NOT A PERSON
MISSING DEPARTMENT	PERSON

Such headings are often put in the form of a nominal phrase, for example, *MISSING DEPARTMENT*, *MISSING PERSON*.

3d2

Also in some (or all) advertising situations, such as in commercialism, a great deal of grammatical structure is omitted. The construction of terms is often very brief and summary:

Doyle is Needway; a brilliant young talent. Add the good will.
 He is the best working in the field of the industry, but occasionally is not so good, and . . .

Reported statements and questions

Reported speech

3d3

In a text which contains (or says), you can either use quotation marks (under *speech*) or a *that*-clause (the *that*-clause is under *speech*):

He said that he was going to leave . . . He said that he was going to leave . . .

He said that he was going to leave . . . He said that he was going to leave . . .

Remember that (example) can be called the *reported clause*, and the rest of the sentence can be called the *reporting clause*. In direct speech, the reporting clause can also be placed before or in the middle of the reported clause and the subject (if it is not a pronoun) can be placed after the verb of saying:

‘I <u>was</u> <u>going</u> <u>to</u> <u>leave</u> . . .’		John <u>explained</u> . . .
		Jack <u>was</u> <u>going</u> <u>to</u> <u>leave</u> . . .
		He <u>explained</u> . . .
		we <u>are</u> <u>going</u> <u>to</u> <u>leave</u> . . .

Indirect speech

3d4

In indirect speech, the reporting verb is usually in the past tense. It can use *that* (under *speech*) or change its form as made in agreement with a verb chosen to fit the context:

- e. Change present tense verbs into the past tense (in most of the reporting verbs).
- f. Change 1st and 2nd person pronouns into the 3rd person.
- g. (Sometimes) change manner words (e.g. *He said, she said, he wrote, she wrote*) into *she said, she wrote, she wrote*, etc.

Examples:

'John said he was the speaker initially'	→	John said	
'I used to have two cats'	→	He explained that he had owned two cats	(1)
'Our team is now'	→	They claimed that we were defeated	(2)
'I will marry you tomorrow'	→	She predicted that she would marry the man	(3)
'They are going on the beach'	→	She suggested that they would go to the beach	(4)

Notice that the change to the past tense applies not only to ordinary present tense verbs, but to the present perfect (see text — see text (see 56), and to modal auxiliaries (e.g. *will, can, could, etc.*) (see 50).

The shifting of a verb to the past tense reference point only applies also to past tense verbs, which are often in the past perfect (the 'type 3' indirect speech). Thus:

'I was thirty-nine'	→	He said that he had been over the age of forty
---------------------	---	--

But sometimes the shift does not take place (see No. 17).

Exceptions

266

There are some exceptions to the shifting of tense in indirect speech:

- (1) Past perfect verbs in direct speech are not changed in indirect speech:

'I had left before they arrived'	→	He said that he had left before they had arrived
----------------------------------	---	--
- (2) Modal auxiliaries like *will, ought, should, etc.* do not normally change. But *will* can also be reported as *had* (see:

'You <i>will</i> go.'	→	She said you <i>will</i> go	(A) or (B)
		She said you <i>had</i> go	(C)

Should after *I* is not changed to *would*:

'I would be grateful'	→	He said he would be grateful
'I should be grateful'	→	He said he should be grateful

But the virtual all change rule does not necessarily apply to *should* after *I* (see text):

- (3) When the idea expressed in the reported statement can also be applied to the time of reporting, there is no need to change *will* to *had* or *would* (see No. 11):

The word *whether* is used in indirect questions to report that the words of the direct question are used.

With *whether* the question of whether the world is flat or round is reported as a matter for the present, and not as the time of the question. Similarly, usually, *whether* is reported. An indirect question is reported as if the person were reporting the question from the time and place of the original question.

- (4) Some verbs of saying, used in indirect speech, normally cannot be easily used in indirect questions. For example:

'The great leap' was a bad idea.

He *found* it.

'It was good to hear it' is more usual.

These verbs include verbs which *emphasise* such as *find* like *try*, *guess*, *know*, *look*, *seem*. Other verbs like *ask*, *show*, *tell* can be easily used in both direct and indirect speech. Verbs which describe the action, such as, *know*, *measure*, *is* or *indirect* speech.

Indirect questions

207

The rules for indirect speech apply to indirect questions as well as to indirect statements. The only difference is that for indirect questions a *wh*-word (see 164-5) is used instead of a *that* clause:

INDIRECT SPEECH

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

'He said, What time?' →

He asked him if it was

what time the train was. (2)

'They were asking how?' →

They asked (her) whether it

was how long the jour was. (3)

'Who would you ask me?' →

He asked her who she

would ask him. (4)

'When did she ask where?' →

He wondered when she

had asked where. (5)

Indirect *yes-no* questions (2), (3) are introduced by *if* or *whether* (see 144). Indirect *wh* questions are introduced by the *wh*-word which begins the question in direct speech.

208

Questions used *alternatively* (see 206-7) behave in the same way. The *wh*-word type of alternative question is generally introduced by *whether* in indirect speech.

'Did you ask me if I was?' → He asked me whether I was his
brother. (6)

There is also a type of indirect question in which the reported clause is a *wh*-clause beginning with a *wh*-word.

'I asked him what to do.' → I asked him what I ought to do? (7)

[Reprinted unmodified from 152.]

Denial and affirmation

Negative sentences

269

When a speaker wishes to deny the truth of something, he uses a negative sentence containing one or more negative items such as *not*, *no*, *never*, *any more*, and *no more*. A part of a sentence or clause which contains the negative word is called the scope of negation, and it is this part of the sentence that is negated. The scope of negation is here signalled by bold type:

He **felt** that they **hadn't** taken the job. (It's definite that he **did**!) [1]

He **hasn't** definitely taken the job. (It's not definite whether he **has**!) [2]

In these examples, the meaning is different because in [1] *definitely* is outside the scope of negation, while in [2] it is within the scope of negation. A final *adverb* that may or may not be in the scope of negation:

They **weren't** at home *for the whole day*. (For the whole day, they **weren't** at home!) [3]

They **weren't** at home *for the whole day*. (It's not true that they **were** at home for the whole day!) [4]

(On the intonation here, see 25–31, 4–2.) Notice the difference in meaning between the first and second sentence in the following pairs:

(1) **Time** *usually* **doesn't** pass. (= I'm not never busy.)

(1) **Time** *doesn't* **necessarily** pass. (= I *don't* always pass.)

(1) **I really** *don't* **mind** walking. (= I *don't* mind it at all.)

(1) **I don't** *really* **mind** walking. (= I *do* mind it, but not too much.)

270

If the scope of negation, expressed by *any*, *not*, *never* (see 80) *is* the user:

I **didn't** attend **any** of the lectures. (I attended none of the lectures!) [5]

We **haven't** finished **them**. [6]

But we can also use some words like *some*, *always*, *sometimes* after the negative word, and these words themselves form the scope of negation. Therefore the meaning of [5] is different from that of [6]:

I **didn't** attend **some** of the lectures. (There were some lectures that I didn't attend!) [7]

271

Occasionally a negative word appears not in the verb itself, but as a phrase or part of a phrase elsewhere in the sentence:

No **food** at all is **better** than **overeating**. (Just for this, *any* nothing at all is better than eating, ...)

We **won't** **aggressively** go **abroad** for "We quite often go abroad!"

They stayed at a nice, comfortable hotel (it's not a rather uncomfortable hotel).

Affirmation

172

To place emphasis on the positive meaning of a sentence, we put the intonation nucleus on the operator (or final auxiliary in the verb phrase see 672-5). This is done especially for contrast, when someone has suggested or assumed the opposite:

- (A) Why haven't you had a beer?
(B) (R:R) Have had a beer.
(A) Why do you play tennis?
(B) (B:R) Do play tennis.

If the response is not a simple (or even) denial, but contains the positive information, the new information is stressed by a final (see text on 42).

- (A) Sandy can't drive a car? (B) No, but he can drive a car.

If there is no other operator, do is used as dummy operator (see 674-5).

So you do go to the concert this evening. (I thought you might not).

- (A) Are you going every day? (B) No, but I do think that's a good conversation?

Denial

173

To deny what someone has suggested or supposed, you can again place the nucleus on the intension, but this time on the negative operator (you don't, etc):

So you haven't lost your keys. (I thought you had).

- (A) When did he see her?
(B) With usually or didn't pass it.

When the negative word is internal, the nucleus falls on do:

... he did not know it.

Short affirmatives

174

There is a shortened type of affirmation in which everything is omitted after the operator. This is usual when you are simply affirming a question or statement, and do not need to repeat what has already been said:

- (A) This book is not yours. (B) Yes, it is. (or 'It is increasing.)
(A) Insurance will be here. (B) Yes, it will.
(A) Your mother looks well. (B) Yes, she does.

(A) Can you speak German? (B) Yes, I can.

(A) Have I missed the bus? (B) Yes, I've missed it.

To agree with a negative statement, use a negative pronoun:

(A) Your mother doesn't cook well. (B) No, she doesn't.

Short answers

275
Similar short statements (in the beginning) are used to deny a statement, or to answer a question in the negative:

(A) You won't see much. (B) No, I can't. [6]

(A) It probably fell off my desk. (B) No, you won't. [4]

(A) Can you speak German? (B) No, I'm afraid I can't. [8]

Notice that sentence (A) is a denial of a statement, as in (B) and (C) we use a negative full-form verb. More general, or emphatic, statements contain neither or not. If these cases the negative is never, no, not or no.

To deny a negative statement, use a positive operator with a rising or falling intonation:

(A) I understand most people don't agree with me. (B) Yes, they do.

(A) I won't pass the exam. (B) No, you will.

276
A denial can occur before and after the main verb in some way. We can make a denial more 'emphatic' by using alternatives¹ expressing the contrary view:

(A) He's married, isn't he? (B) Actually, I don't think he's married.
(C) Is he? I thought he was a calculator.
(D) Are you sure? I had the impression that he was not widely.

Denial combined with affirmative

277
The construction not...but is used to deny one idea and to affirm another, contrasting ideas:

I don't agree with his opinions, but at least he's sincere.

The land doesn't belong to me, but to the government.

We can also say:

¹The land belongs not to me, but to the government.

²The land belongs to the government, not to me.

Notice how John can be an emphatic subject in both the positive and negative clauses:
John, the mathematics, but I don't enjoy maths.

Agreement and disagreement

276

Agreement and disagreement are types of affirmation and denial in order to communicate a preference or preference rather than the existence of fact. It is natural to feel that you are necessary and essential standards of existence when the other person's argument is in question.

Agreement

278

In agreeing with an unfavorable opinion, you may want to qualify your agreement with an expression of regret, etc.

(ii) Yes, I'm afraid it's right.

(iv) He speaks maths like you.

(viii) I have to agree with you also.

(iii) I must say I strongly disagree.

In other cases you can take advantage as you like in expressing your agreement:

(vi) It was an interesting exhibition, wasn't it?

(vii) (Yes, it was so often - often only spurred on.)

(ix) A reference, you will enjoy it.

(xi) I strongly disagree.

quite.

I strongly disagree.

I strongly disagree with.

I strongly disagree with.

(x) A very good one, wasn't it very good?

Definitely yes.

It was very good.

(ii) Your's is absolutely right, isn't it?

I agree that it is right.

Useful disagreement

280

When you disagree or contradict, you can make the less desired, the effect is often (emphatic), unless the denial is qualified in some way. You can qualify it by an apology or by adhering to the speaker's point of view.

(B) First, it's disagree with some other languages, it's not from culture, I think.

(C) True, but the gr is not a quite low.

(B) Yes, it's not out of culture, as Kuzama.

(C) Do you think it's actually, I think you're right.

(A) The book is immediately well written.

(B) Yes, but overall as a whole, but there are some where being poorly don't you think?

Partial or qualified agreement

261

In this case, the argument, there is often a need to agree with one aspect of a speaker's point, and to disagree with another. Here, the main of the point is you write me to express a lack of mutual agreement, is that a good word for agreement and a bad one for agreement.

Clearly, it's not that, but of the same kind.

I can see that, but not really.

I'm not quite agreed with the statement about it, but we can have agreement.

Agreed, but I was right when it was used in the past.

Cooperation

262

When we agree and add a further point, it is usually done in cooperation with the speaker:

Yes, and in fact, ...

Yes, and it's not really right.

I agree, and in fact, one might go so far as to say ...

As a matter of fact, actually, I would go further, and say ...

Fact, hypothesis and neutrality

263

We have considered the truth and the validity of arguments in terms of plausibility, logical, reasonable, etc. But, there is one other type of argument which is not based on truth or validity, or is not really based on truth or validity.

(1) I think that John has been seen (20%) (1)

(2) I think John has been seen (20%) (2)

In (1), the speaker asserts the truth of the statement. John has been seen.

In (2), the speaker introduces the idea of the statement. John has been seen.

Hypothetical meaning

264

A hypothetical statement is usually expressed by a verb with would as in (1), or by an adjective form (2):

I'm interested ^{what he needs} ^{in his making} that advice.

A **hypothetical** (or **hypothetical meaning**) is usually expressed by the past tense or dependent clause, as in (2), and by weak or (dis)affirmative in main clauses. These can be summarised as follows: (see 289-90)

EXAMPLES

if we had enough money, I would buy a radio today-tomorrow.
But for the past tense form, would have been nothing in its verb phrase, inflexions in was/were or had or were.

Weak forms when combined with if clauses is expressed by the perfect conditional structure and particles:

If we had had enough money, I would have bought a tape-recorder last year.

Words in the verb of the main clause can be replaced by another past tense modal auxiliary:

If we had enough money, I would have been able to buy a tape-recorder today.

Other constructions expressing hypothetical clauses

291

Again from conditional clauses, hypothetical meaning may occur in a few other special constructions. The main ones are illustrated here:

If you were sure of that, (b.) you'd not be bad!

If he were as fit as you'd the place, you'd be done! even

It's not as though it be

}	own part,	the end part!
	your part,	
	an interest!	

Just suggest with me how you'd us. That they'd do it or not!

It's not I had'd it - had'd it - my part!

In that case,

}	Then,	It would have taken a lot. (see 289-90)
	Or,	
	Or,	

In your place, I would have taken a lot.

(In the special hypothetical use of modal auxiliaries see further meaning, see 285, 327, 340.)

Other ways of expressing hypothetical meaning

292

In addition to the past tense, there are three other common ways of expressing hypothetical meaning in sentences:

- (A) THE WOULD-DO FORM (see 289)
- (B) I'd like to do with you if I were younger.
- (C) The ordinary past tense may also replace were in (firmly style.)

(III) *Were to* (or *was to*) (firmly) — *was to* is:

(B) *Were to* is a contraction, the modal would be resumed (this construction expresses hypothetical future):

(C) *Should* — *shoulder*:

If a certain condition should arise, the government would take immediate action.

Constructions (B) and (C) are also slightly official or literary, and possess a certain stiffness. These two constructions are in general limited to conditional clauses (and constructions related to conditionals like *Suppose* or *even if* etc.).

187

Another type of hypothetical conditional clause has no subordinate conjunction (if), but instead begins with an auxiliary phrase before the subject (in version). The three operators which occur in this construction are *had*, *sub-junctive were*, and *past infinitive* (see (C) above):

Had I known I would have to act before I'd had a chance . . . ?

Were a serious crisis to arise, the government would have to act rapidly (in a semi-official way) . . . ?

Should you change your mind, we are would thank you (if you should . . . ?)

The constructions with *was* and *should* are, of course, literary in tone, and can always be replaced by an *if*-construction.

Note

In the negative of clauses beginning *had*, *were* and *should*, there is no contracted form: instead of **Should I know*, one uses merely *Had I not known*, etc.

Neutrality

188

In addition to fact and hypothesis, there is a third type of situation, in which the speaker expresses neither the truth nor the likelihood of a statement. We will call this situation *neutrality*. (We have already met a type of neutrality with respect to the occurrence of something that a speaker refers to: this is the neutrality expressed by such forms as *see*, *use*, *get*.) For example:

a. It's hard for Sarah to be patient.

b. I never take a vacation.

In these sentences, we do not know whether Sarah will be patient or not; whether John will agree or not. In the same way, assumptions are not neutral. In the following, the speaker expresses an assumption about a situation, either in the present or something contrast with *when*-clauses:

Did you know that John had agreed? (John has agreed.)

Do you know who got the big job? (I thought it was I.)

There is the same contrast, however:

He told me that they had passed the exam.

He told me whether I had passed the exam.

In the second sentence, a future would be indicated to reply with a question: *What could she say?* (p. 187)

There is another way that can be followed by either a *should* clause or a *if* clause. But I shall express conditionals and so-called desideratives.

I don't wonder } I wish you would see us.
I don't think that }

Parasitic *should*

188

We have already said that *should* expresses a tentative variation on *if* clauses. This is true not only for hypothetical conditionals but for wish conditions (see 187):

If you $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{know} \\ \text{should hear quantitative} \end{array} \right\}$ the news, I wish you *should* know. (3)

Open conditionals are, in fact, more or less of a conventional way of referring with regard to truth and likelihood. We do not know from (3) whether or not Jane will hear the news and let me know.

In either dependent clauses, *should* is used neutrally to express something as a central 'idea' under discussion. We call this use of *should* 'FACTIVE'. Compare the two sentences:

FACT $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I wish you} \\ \text{would know} \end{array} \right\}$ that the railway will be improved.
WISH $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{I wish you} \\ \text{should be suggesting} \end{array} \right\}$ that the railway *should* be improved.
i.e. that whether they *will* be improved or whether *not*!

189

Parasitic *should* occurs only rarely in wish clauses (see 187):

It's a pity that you *should* know in London. (1)
I wish you *should* tell your wife *should* do it. (2)
It's unthinkable that he *should* resign. (4)
What wonder you *should* mean *should* be able to forget
certainly practical claims with words and bullets. (7)

In some of these sentences, there is no modal auxiliary, for example, the speaker of (1) assumes that you *will* be going. Even so, there is a difference between (3) and the factual sentence (1), because the *if* clause, because in (3) is the 'key idea' in the direction that surprise may not be dependent on a fact.

Now:

- (5) Paradoxical wish: a central idea, some question and exclamation:
How *should* I ever? I wish you *should* be saying 'I wish you *should* come to see me before I die!'.
- (6) In some sentences, parasitic *should* is difficult to distinguish from *should* in the sense of 'ought to':
He *should* (ought) that you *should* (ought) be here!

The subjunctive

191

The subjunctive (see 177-8) is the normal form of a verb that is used:

- (1) in some way clauses, where the clause expresses an intention:

Code 905 has restricted (closed) feedback that is present.
Use continue to operate

Here subject initials can also be used. This use of the subjunctive is quite common in scientific or technical language.

b. In some conditional and causal clauses (see 904-4b):

Whatever be the reasons for it, we cannot tolerate the
injustice. (= 'Whatever the reasons for it may be...')

c. In certain other, usually informal, clauses:

So be it then.

Heaven forbid!

These constructions are all (formal) and never (colloquial) technical.

Progress of **905**

905

Instead of the title *of truth and falsehood in English and other forms*, we will think in terms of a **SCALE OF FORMALITY**. The extremes of the scale are **FORMALITY** and **INFORMALITY** (see **EXERCISES**); other, intermediate, degrees to be considered are **FORMALITY**, **NEUTRALITY** and **INFORMALITY**. These notions are repeated in various ways:

a. most (formally), by initial (subject); least, most (informally), by 400:
Having said this

b. more (formally), by a sentence with formality of initial (subject);
It is possible that you are right (see 564-7)

c. by an adverbial (right or wrong); perhaps, probably (see 479):
Of course you're right.

These various conventions will now be illustrated in 905-200. We shall give special attention, where necessary, to the semi-formality in negative sentences, in questions, in infinitives, in passives, and in hypothetical clauses.

Audiences such as you, they, and most common to the point as well as to the present: *you may/you might/may not*. (The protocols are given in the 'Notes').

Formality

Can, may, could, might

200

(A) **MODALITY OF THE FACT (formal)**

=	{ The railway may be improved. }	[1]
	{ It is possible that the railway will be improved. }	[2]
	{ Perhaps/probably/certainly the railway will be improved. }	[3]

(B) **MODALITY OF THE TWO (informal)**

=	{ The railway can be improved. }	[4]
	{ It is possible for the railway to be improved. }	[5]

The **FACT** possibility [1] is 'weaker' than **FORMAL** possibility [2] (stronger [3]), for example, says merely that it is possible that railways are improvable, or that

They are not perfect, however. (1) On the other hand, could suggest that there are no other options for improvement.

Note:

Can in general connotes a possibility that is nearly the same meaning as possible:

John might not be doing it.
(John is *not* doing it because it is possible.)

294

KEYWORD: For impossibility, the answer is not 'impossible' but 'not possible'.

Q: He can't be working at this time! It's impossible that he is working...!

Ans: He may not be working, on the other hand, means that it is possible that he is not working.

QUESTION: The car (can) must (can't) be working? or (is) possible that he is working?!

ANSWER: For something which is not possible in the first instance:

In these days a man would be reluctant to qualify for a small amount.

For the (near) possibility of a pain happening, however—the perfect

It may have made a mistake. It is possible that we (don't) need a more recent

development. For hypothetical possibility, use could/might:

If someone were to make a mistake, we should claim responsibility for it.

Verbally, probably possible might:

295

Could and might, then, hypothetical possibility, are used to express general possibility, or a talk of something which is possible, but unlikely.

He could/might be selling any of his cars, but he probably isn't doing so.

Could you have (in your mind) seen me here? It's just possible...!

Mighty form, desirable for:

296

The range of 'ilities', it was necessary to use a few words of the 'theoretically possible'!

He *could* speak English fluently.

Will you be able to visit me in London next month?

He is capable of sleeping a year when he wants to.

She *could* have been a tycoon and taken them on.

QUESTION: For 'ability', use can't/could/would/will/can be possible?!

He *can't* speak Finnish very well.

QUESTION: The possible answer

was: 'no' if you mean to say he 'knows' and 'he's' able to do a particular thing for that matter.

L2: He *could* play the piano well if he was free.

He knows *able to* (does something) the state of 'ability' (not 'wish' or 'want'):

By acting quickly, we were *able to* save him from drowning. (or 'We could, and I'm over him').

HYPERTEXTUAL: I'm so hungry, I could eat a horse!

Certainty or logical necessity (must, have to, etc)

291

Must: Unlikely and *have to* = *necessary* (cf. *have to* (110), *have got to* (6)) and express certainty or logical necessity:

There *must* be some mistake.

You *must* go to the airport (or *have to*).

The bombing's got to stop sometime. (or *have to*).

It is possible that the bombing will stop soon.

- { Many people will remain *necessarily* (or *have to*) jobless.
- { Many people are *necessarily* (or *have to*) in less than jobs.
- { *Necessarily*, some changes will take place.

The contrasting effect of *have to* = *necessary* and *certainty* (29) is seen in:

- { His father *must* still be alive.
- { His father *must* be dead.
- { It is *impossible* that his father is still alive.
- { It is *certain* that his father is dead.

* All four sentences have in effect the same meaning.

Negative and questions

292

- { What *there has to be* a motive for the crime?
- { Is there *necessarily* a motive for the crime?
- { What *there be* a motive for the crime? (or *have to*).
- { It *doesn't have to be* caused by bad pay (they can also be caused by bad conditions, etc).
- { Strokes are not *necessarily* caused by bad pay.
- { Strokes *must not be* caused by bad pay. (or *have to*).

The auxiliary *ought to* (295) (or *should*), in place of *have to* in questions and negatives.

293

NOTE: We have to distinguish a past certainty (*must* (6)) from a certainty *despite* the past incidentally expressed by using the term *must*:

Sammy *had to* lose the game. (It was necessary, by the rules of the game, for someone to lose.)

Julia *must* have missed her train. (It is *impossible* given that Julia missed his train.)

MODALITY: (296) (or *may*):

If you die, you will, *perhaps*, *may* have to invent him. (It *may* be necessary for someone ...)

Prediction and probability (p. 111, 112)

108

As illustrated above, even *will* can be used to express a certainty about the future which we do not observe, but about which we draw a conclusion from our evidence. On hearing the phone ring, you might say 'That must be my wife's car', even when you do not see your car there, but you *will* therefore conclude that she is 'ringing now'. In a similar way, you can use *will* to express a prediction about the future, just as you can use *will* to make a prediction about the future. They will be an effect. There is little difference here between *will* and *shall*.

John *will* have arrived by now. John *will* have arrived by now.
 John *will* have arrived by now. John *will* have arrived by now.
 John *will* have arrived by now. John *will* have arrived by now.

The use of *will* in the above examples is to express a prediction about the future.

If I drop my paper in acid, it *will* turn red.

Will can also be used in a habitual sense to express a habit of 'probability' or 'characteristic behaviour'.

Accidents *will* happen.

A hot *will* only attract a human being when it is hungry.

We have used (see 120) the equivalent use of *will* to express habitual or characteristic 'probability' behaviour in the past.

He *would* often go off by himself without telling.

Probability (p. 114, 115, 116)

109

The use of *might* to say that *should* or *could* 'can express probability', and can be regarded as another equivalent of *will* to express habitual or characteristic behaviour.

Our guests *might* be here by now. (I am uncertain)

Our guests $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{might be} \\ \text{should be} \end{array} \right.$ here by now. (They probably are, but I am uncertain)

Should is more frequent than *could* in the use of 'probability' or 'habitual behaviour'. It is quite possible to say that they *didn't* realize the offer.

He is *probably* the best developer in the country.

They have *probably* been for the day before.

The concert *is probably* a final loss.

Probability can be expressed by *should*, *might* or *could* in the past.

There $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{shouldn't} \\ \text{mightn't} \end{array} \right.$ be any difficulties.

I *wasn't* *sure* that there *would* be any difficulties.

Questions (114):

Should is more frequent than *could* in the use of 'probability'.

110

People have a natural tendency to evaluate their course of action. Therefore, when we use *will* to express a prediction about the future, we use *will* to express a prediction about the future in 'probability' rather than 'certainty'. This is to express a prediction about the future. They *will* be an effect. There is little difference here between *will* and *shall*.

Ability to truth

342

We now consider the ways in which people may be confirmed or uncommitted to the truth or reality of something. The people concerned may be the speaker (I) or another person, or a group of people. We often need to express such attitudes in the clause or in a clause (the latter to express a 'new' attitude, see 285), but subordinate and other constructions are also sometimes available, as well as the type of preverbal clause we call *concessive clauses* (see 322). In / especially style, people prefer to use the methods of expressing certainty, probability, or disbelief in 29-30, called *truth-substitutes* (person present). Thus *It is certain...* and *It is unlikely...* can be replaced, alternatively, by *I am certain...* or *I doubt...*

Conjecture

343

I want that his answer will be 'No'
 I know what his answer will be
 (I am convinced) I think the party will be a success.
 (The party will be a success, I'm sure.)

They were convinced (that this would succeed).
 (I am certain) Let the process

(I am convinced) I am glad that he has suffered a great deal
 (He is so convinced) I suffered a great deal.

*We do not doubt that he is human.

*We have no doubt of his honesty.

Believe there (she is one of the best teachers in the school)

Doubt (adverbial which can replace without doubt) of them (honesty, confidence, reliability, unhappiness, unpopularity)

Doubt or uncertainty

344

(I am not convinced) I want that he should mention it.

(I am not convinced) whether he should mention it (I don't know)

They were uncertain (I don't know) who was in Rome.

*I doubt if many people will come to the meeting.

*I don't doubt many people will come to the meeting (see 326)

*There were some doubts

*We have doubts

There were some doubts (about his honesty)

Heard, spoken, etc

345

(A) HEARD, SPEAKING

*I believe (I'm not) the lecture was well attended

(The lecture was well attended, I believe)

He drinks (21a) he can dictate to everybody.

It was everybody's opinion that the conference was a success.

It's my belief that cars will disappear from our roads by 1950.

In my opinion, he was missing the point too far.

You may consider yourself lucky.

He was disappointed/astonished to be the director of an
company.

There is a slight difference between 'opinion' and 'belief'. In fact, an opinion is usually something that someone gives at on the basis of observation and judgement.

It's my belief that he drinks too much.

I don't know how much he drinks, but...

It's my opinion that he drinks too much.

I know how much he drinks, and in my judgement, it's too
much.

Further, tag questions with a following verb can sometimes be used to express an opinion:

He was driving too fast, wasn't he?

(B) ~~ASSUMPTION~~

We can't suppose and you have reserved the parking.

[All the passengers, I suppose, have been warned about the delay.

[All the passengers who presumably have worried about the delay.

With in the sense of 'probable possibility' you (21a) can be used here:

I presume you will all have heard the news.

(C) ~~ASSUMPTION~~

It may appear (or may) that no one has seen his escape.

He was a man whose eye had noticed his escape.

[Apparently, no one noticed his escape.

It looks as if I got it right.

He looks as if he's ill. (Other informants have had some sort of illness
in previous years.)

366

In most cases 'I' categories (A) and (B), transfer of 'negative' (see 636) is common. This is usual in 'I' about the kind of opinion, we prefer to say 'I don't think so' (or 'I'm afraid').

Verbs (21) in other modal verb categories (I think, I suppose, etc.) are often used in the sense of 'belief', etc. can usually be replaced by (21a-d):

(A) Has the taxi been promised? (B) { I think so.
I suppose so.
It seems so.
Apparently so.
I don't think so.

(C) (I don't) think so replaces '(I don't) can see how you have been promised'.

Section C: Mood, emotion and attitude

307

In section B, we looked at the English language as a means of giving and receiving information. But language is much more than this: it is communication between people. It often expresses the emotions and attitudes of the speaker and he often uses it to influence the attitudes and behaviour of the hearer. These are the aspects of English we consider in this section.

Emotive emphasis in speech

308

In this part of the section, we shall be dealing mainly with (British) informal English.

Interjections

309

Interjections are words whose only function is to express emotion. Common English interjections are: *Oh* (surprise), *Ah* (satisfaction, recognition), *Wow* (sthat's just what I was looking for), *Congratulations* (praise), *Good* (approval), *Yes* (agreement), *delight*, *Oh my!*, *Oh my!* (praise), *Oh my!* (surprise), *Oh my!* (disgust); *Wow* (surprise, praise).

Oh, what a beautiful present!

Ah, that's just what I wanted.

Wow, those houses are exactly what I was looking for.

Wow, what a brilliant party!

Yes, this is fun!

Oh, my dear!

Oh, what a dress!

Oh, the man makes delicious.

Other ways of giving emotion emphasis

310

EXERCISE 10 (see page 308)

What a wonderful time we've had!

How delightful her manners are!

Exclamations are often shortened to a noun phrase or an adjective phrase.

What a girl! (*What a girl she is!*); *How funny!* (*How funny he is!*)

311

EXERCISE 11 (see page 308)

He's such a nice man!

I'm so afraid they'll see me.

Why is he such a fool?

Don't quit yourself so!

There have an emphatic emphasis similar to that of exclamations, but there are a rather 'quality'. The words *so* and *such* are stressed, and for extra emphasis, may receive no other stress.

312

It's so nice when you denote degree — *so* expensive

It's so nice for the expensive.

I agree with you so much you've said — *so* (single word)

It's so very very interesting!

You're so fast, so fast!

313

a so much more comparative form (672-3)

That will be nice!

What so are you so doing?

We so have enjoyed our time!

The operation of *so* has not yet shown. It can be used as a strong auxiliary in expletive emphasis (see 312):

You so do love pretty!

You so did give me a fright!

There is a similar use of *so* to give particular emphasis to our command:

So be so quiet!

So come if you so can!

314

It's so nice to see you so happy

I so wish you'd so 'leave'

Can't you be so strong!

Intensifying adjectives and modifiers

315

As we noted in 299-301, many degree adverbs and other degree expressions intensify the meaning of the word they modify.

We are so very happy indeed!

I was so very surprised!

He's so absolutely right!

In English, *so* speaks with degrees and adverbs (such as *more*, *moreover*, *sooner*, *sooner*, *sooner*) have little meaning apart from their emotive force. Thus *so* with *best*, *good*, *fastest* are simply emphatic equivalents of *good* or *best*. The weather can be *so* bright (meaning a good one) — we know that *so* (*so* and *so*) can be used in a good sense as well as in a 'bad' sense.

She's so lovely kind to us.

In addition to degree adverbs, common adverbs like *so* and *so* (*so*) have an emphatic effect:

We so will have enjoyed ourselves.

He didn't improve us.
It was only a reasonable reaction.
She laughed at us with laughter. (humorous)

314 Intensity of questions and negatives

314

You can intensify the positive force of a question by adding *even*, *or* *sure*, *or* *surely*, etc. to the *wh*-word:

How even did he escape? (I just can't imagine)
Why or how did he win all that? (I don't see the *possibility* of your...)
What or how did he come down to that? (he's doing?!) (The result?)

In questions, *wh*-words are also spelled as part of the *wh*-word, as *when*, *where*, *how*, etc., but as spelled, these words have other uses (e.g. *when* from nominalizing (see 216)). Why *or* is always spelled as two words.

317

You can intensify a negative sentence by adding *or* or *sure* directly after the negative word, or in a later part of the sentence:

I wasn't or trying to do anything with you.
She didn't or speak to us at all.

Other negative intensifiers are *by*, *informally*, *and*, *as*, *neither*, *in*, *without*, *of*, *against*, *and*, *against*, *systematically*, *of*, *a* negative noun phrase:

They weren't in any agreement.
You have no excuse whatever.

Further examples of negative intensifiers are:

I didn't even say a single 'informal'...
He didn't give me a single 'informal' (meaning at all). (Informal)

A negative noun phrase beginning with *not* can be used for emphasis:

We arrived not immediately but soon. (We didn't immediately arrive.)
(*soon* = 20 min.)

318

Another rather (but not always) formal form of negative emphasis is *not* combined with *to* (see 313) already mentioned. This is to place the negative element at the beginning of the clause:

Not a penny of the money was to be spent.
Not a soul had been such a good kind of people.

As the examples show, the emphasis is placed before the subject in the *wh*-phrase. (In the first example, the negative element is itself the subject: *Not a penny* and would be: (see 216) (217).)

The *not* is usually positive in tone, as in the latter of the two positive sentences.

Emphatic rhetorical questions

319

An *emphatic* rhetorical question is one in which the speaker uses an emphatic *wh*-word, instead of the usual *wh*-word form. The most common type has a negative form:

How wasn't she great? (She's grown up very much!)
Wasn't it a marvellous object?

Here the speaker expresses doubts and leaves the hearer's agreement or other response similar to:

It was a marvellous concert, wasn't it? (para. 20)

Another type of exclamatory question is possible in form, with stress on the question word and subject:

'How hungry I'm very very hungry!'

'Bad he looks unwell!'

'Was she granted!

320

A WHICH question is a multiple-choice question with an examination. A positive 'WHICH' question is like a strong positive statement, a negative 'WHICH' question is like a strong positive statement.

POSITIVE

Is that a reason for despair? (Strictly that is not a reason. . .)

NEGATIVE

Isn't it yet possible to build things? (You have to do it. . .)

There are also rhetorical questions:

What difference does it make? (It makes no difference!)

Who doesn't know that? (Everyone knows that!)

At the same time, rhetorical questions are often rather effective in some

Describing conditions

321

We come now to the description or reporting of a state or condition. An expletive (expletive): something can be expressed by the preposition of.

I was pleased of her behaviour. [1]

Amused that Bill was a laugh of a good joke. [2]

She was very surprised of your resignation from the club. [3]

In (1) & (2), with is often used instead of of with (1) & (2). The condition is a period of before rather than of years:

I was furious with John.

Who pleased with his present?

Other prepositions used are about and of, was about, amused of, surprised of, of the fact.

The stage of the condition is often expressed by a wh-infinitive clause or a that-clause (with or without that), or WH SB, and in these cases the preposition is omitted:

They were starting to find the house empty.

She seems to have missed the date.

I was delighted that she came.

We're anxious that anything should go wrong.

The cause of emotion may also be expressed by the subject (as in the passive, by the agent). Compare (8) above with:

- (9) { Your resignation from the club surprised her very much.
 (She was very surprised by your resignation from the club.)

Other constructions for denoting emotions do not exactly fit the person affected and are therefore more (impersonal):

- The accommodation was unpleasantly surprising, etc. (9)
 The news from the front was very disturbing. (10)
 It's amazing that so many passengers were informed. (see 324, 334) (9)
 It's a pity that you should have missed her. (11)
 It's a pity someone should miss her. (12)

In most of these cases, the person affected is likely to be 'real' (i.e. speaking). The person affected can, sometimes, be made clear by a phrase transferred from the cause or realisability for reasons, although it is not. This (9) can be expanded:

To me, it's amazing that so many passengers were informed.

Sentences with *it*

323

Some semantic adverbials (including comparative clauses, see 322) can express an emotional reaction or judgement:

- To my regret, he did not accept our offer.
 (It's regretted that he did not accept the offer.)
 Surprisingly, no one has objected to the plan.
 (It's surprising that...)
 He is very nervous of him today.
 The children were rather noisy. I'm afraid.

Other sentences can be similar in construction and even in meaning, although, of course, not necessarily so: *astonishingly*, *surprisingly*, *incredibly*, *amazingly*, *preferably*, *possibly*, *certainly*.

Ellipsis and doubling

324

Verbs such as *use*, *see*, *know*, and *love* can be followed either by a *wh*-clause or by an *ing*-phrase (see 315), as well as by a noun phrase object:

- She likes (to) swim. (9)
 She likes (to) swim. (or 'She likes the idea...') (10)
 She likes (to) swim. (or 'She likes it when...') (11)
 She likes (to) swim. (or 'She likes the idea...') (12)

Some English speakers make a slight difference between (10) and (11): the infinitive clause expresses the 'idea', while the *wh*-clause expresses a 'fact' (see 296). This is more evident (but not in (10)), the infinitive clause may have a *to* and meaning (see 296):

- He likes me to work late. { '... and that's why I do it.'
 '... but I never do it.' }
- He likes me working late. ('... and that's why I do it')

Usually only the infinitive + to can be used when the main verb is hypothetical.

(A) Would you like to see dinner now?

(B) No, I'd prefer to eat later.

Note:

Enjoy, dislike, and dislike only take -ing clauses.

He enjoys disliking / dislikes / dislikes / dislikes / dislikes.

Preference

323

Prefer means 'like more' or 'like better'. The rejected alternative is introduced by or + phrase, or by a clause introduced by rather than, which may be followed by an infinitive (with or without to) or by an ing participle:

Most people prefer to eat / to eat.

He prefers renting a car to having one of his own.

He prefers to rent a car rather than to have one of his own.

Rather than buy a car of his own, he prefers to rent one.

She has always preferred making her own clothes rather than buying them in the shops.

Would prefer + infinitive (hypothetical preference) can be replaced by would rather + bare infinitive, which may be followed by a to-infinitive (see 324):

- I'd prefer to stay in a house rather than in a hotel.

- I'd rather stay in a house than in a hotel.

Some other examples

324

Here are some of the ways of expressing other emotions. Many of the constructions illustrated here have already been discussed and exemplified. Notice that adverbs of degree (see 237-238) can be used to indicate the strength of the emotion. Many of the sentences are (informal and familiar).

325

326

I (very much) hope (that) he will arrive / arrives on time.

I am (nearly) hoping that . . . (see 127)

I expect that . . . (quantitative) (see 177)

I was hoping that . . . (more tentative) (see 127)

I hope to see you soon.

Hopefully, restructuring will bring

an improvement in the economic

situation.

(see 421)

328

ANTICIPATION OF FUTURE

I am looking forward to receiving your reply.

I know I will enjoy meeting you again.

DISAPPOINTMENT: BEHIND

- I'm (rather very) disappointed that . . .
 It is (a little bit) disappointing that . . .
 It's a (small) disappointment that . . .
 I'm sorry to hear that . . .
 I ^{would have} _{had} hoped that . . . (unfulfilled hope) (see 254)
 I wish that someone had let me know (unfulfilled wish) (see 256-7)
 If only I had known (see 317)
 Unfortunate!

L11

WRITING

- I (very much) approve of ^{the plan} your seeing her for the first time.
 It wasn't a bad idea ^{was it?} (formal - could)
 I (rather) like the way she does it.
 I ^{was} _{wasn't} ^{sure} _{sure} your dress (suits/looks)
 What a(n) great (bad) engineering job! . . . play! (for the specialist)

331

DISAPPOINTMENT

- I don't like the way she dresses (very much)
 I don't (much) care for weeds, actually.
 I didn't think ^{much} _{much} of the concert.
 I thought the novel was just (satisfactory), paling, didn't you?
 It could have been better, I think, if you hadn't mentioned it.
 You shouldn't have bought such an expensive present. (see 343)
 I don't think you should have read the children.
 I had hoped you would have done more than this.
 (Disappointed) how often he depends on me (satisfy) by means of a question:
 Did you have any fun in Spain or Italy?
 Why did you do a thing like that?
 Was it really necessary to be so nice to the waiter?
 Don't you think it would have been better if you had told me in advance?

332

WRITING

- It's (rather) surprising/amazing/astonishing that so many people
 came to their marriage.
 I (was) (very) surprised that so many turned up.
 What a surprise!
 How surprising/amazing/astonishing that . . . !
 What a good party that . . . ! (see 318)
 Surprisingly/strangely/surprisingly . . .

- [GRI:RIG] concerned/worried that ...
 I am (rather) animal-conscious about ...
 He (kept) doing things by ...ing that ...
 [GRI] his behaviour was disturbing/scaring
 The health pass (same) cause for anxiety (GRI:R), (superior)

Willing

114

We distinguish four types of willing: willingness, willingness, willingness, willingness. These are used in order of increasing sympathy: willing becomes willing as the state that a person anticipates, or imposes, is similar.

Willingness

115

Willingness can be expressed by the auxiliary (GRI:R) (informal):

- (A) Will you lend me a cigarette? (GRI:R) [A] W.
 [W] He is willing to lend me ...
 The doctor will help if you ask him

Here, the future meaning of will is related with that of will in (A). The pay-off is 'together with' willing (B), (C) and (D).

(B) When he was young, he was so energetic he would do anything for money.

(C) John is so greedy, he would do anything for money if you offer him.

(D) (GRI:R) and (GRI:R) express the negative of willingness in the same

He won't take any notice. (GRI:R) He refuses to take any notice.

They wouldn't take notice. (GRI:R) They refused ...

Note

The verbs (GRI:R) and (GRI:R) combine the ideas of 'willingness' and 'to be found'. (GRI:R) and (GRI:R) are the same for 'He was willing to do it, and did so'.

wish

116

For neutral wishes, wish is a modal form (GRI:R) with three uses:

The manager wishes (GRI:R) to thank you for your cooperation.

I wish (you) (GRI:R) this newspaper report.

Do you (GRI:R) to sign this form?

I wish (GRI:R) for a better situation, the only wish:

I wish (GRI:R) you would later in my (GRI:R) (GRI:R) you wish?

The *if*-*then* construction (*if* only...) can also be used for hypothetical meaning.

- *If only I could remember his name!*
- *If I only had I could remember his name!*

When expressing your wish either, or mentioning the source of it, you can make it a wish more (emphatic) and 'natural' by using *would* (or *would* plus *you*, or *would* rather) (see 334-5):

- *Would you like me to open these letters?*
- *I would thank you to stay in an expensive hotel.*

(Should you require *would* to form the present.)

Another way to consult someone's wishes is to use a question with *would*, or more (emphatic) with *would*:

- *Should I make you a cup of coffee? (Would you like me to...?)*
- *When will you be on this evening? Would you like to come with me?*
- *Shouldn't we tell the dog he's not wanted?*

Note

- [a] For other uses of *should* connected with wishes, see 341, 342.
- [b] The verb *had* before a verb-form with *if* (or *if* + *if*) is also expressed in kind of wish: *Let's hope you were made to, didn't we? Let's suppose she had the car.*

Translation

338

The verb *behave*, *mean*, *intend* (+ infinitive clause) express intention:

- *He behaves (means) nice to each of the team.* [1]
- *You mean (intend) to hurt her.* [2]

Intention can also be expressed by *be going to* (see 102), or, in the 1st person, by *will* (see 129).

- *Will you go (be going) to visit the old town?*
- *I will (will) write as soon as I can.*
- *We will (will) stay longer than two hours.*

These forms also have an element of prediction, and so are more definite usual for fulfilment of the intention than [1] and [2].

- *(I) will (will) see you (in person) if you are in London next week.* (see 209)

Instances

339

- *He wants (wants) to do everything himself.*
- *We will (will) solve the problem.*

Intention is occasionally expressed by *would* (with strong stress):

- *He would (would) try to mend it himself.* (He tries or tries...)
- *I would (would) change (change) my mind.* (I am determined not to...)
- *Why would (would) you make things difficult for yourself?*

Permission and obligation

Possibility form may, can

340

- Can we smoke in here? Yes, you ^{can} _{may}.
- As we smoke in here? (man formal polite)
Are we allowed to smoke in here?
Are we permitted to smoke in here? (formal)
Is it all right if we smoke in here? (informal)
We have no objection to you smoking in here.
There is no harm in what he wants.

Can can express possibility in the past, or hypothetical permission.

When I was a student, I could travel at half-price.

(... would be allowed to ...)

If you were a student, you could travel at half-price.

(... would be allowed to ...)

You can also use hypothetical could and can't when you wish to structure requests for permission.

Could I give you a lift with your children?

Could I have a look tonight because your pen?

Another mechanism for asking and giving permission involves the verb *would*:

(A) Would you mind ^{if I operated a window?}
_{if I opened a window?}

(B) No, ^{I don't mind at all.}
_(not at all) (= 'Certainly (X) may').

Again, the hypothetical form is more (soft):

Note

Should is occasionally used in the 2nd and 3rd person to express permission given by the speaker.

You *should* do exactly as you wish.

He *should* get his money.

Perhaps this meaning is rather rare of *would*gram: 'I am willing to see that he gets his money' etc.

Obligation or compulsion

Must, have to, etc.

341

- 'You *must* ...' is back by 2 of back (I want you to do some ...)
'You *have to* ...' (stronger)
- You *have to* sign your name here, otherwise the document isn't valid. [1]
- I *ought to* meet you early by intention. (informal) [2]
- The intensity requires of students to submit their work by a given date. (formal) [3]

Must and *have to* are sometimes (see 342, 343) both express obligation, but some English speakers feel a difference between them. For such speakers, *must*

analyses the speaker's authority (see [1]), while (4) requires to involve both other authority than the speaker (e.g. official regulations (see [2], [3]), [4]), thus (at least) subject, even to present the speaker's authority over himself (e.g. to present duty, social responsibility, etc).

I must phone my parents tonight. I'll try if I'm seeing what time!
 We must be in the kitchen in dinner. (It's mainly since we eat
 there!)

In the previous and in hypothetical clauses, *must* is not *could* have an explicit obligation:

They had to work fifty hours a week in three days (were obliged to...)
 If you want to avoid, you would have to visit your own king.
 I'll... would be obliged to...!

Notes on:

343

In question and response, the auxiliary verb *must* [1] is a replacement for *will* (where we have to use *must* [2] and *will* can be used [3-5]!):

- (A) What are you so hard? (see [1])
- (B) How can you be so hard?!
- (C) Do you have to work so hard?
- (D) Do you need to work so hard?
- (E) We really have to... (see [2])
- (F) We don't have to hurry.
- (G) We don't need to hurry.

- (A) How eager is your whole community? } *emphatic!*
- (B) No, but hurry up to be there before Friday. }
- (C) Yes, we need to buy the tickets...

Notes

352) *must* sometimes occurs in questions regarding a request, answer:
 After you have already? (S: only you don't have to...)

Other ways of expressing obligation

361

(A) *Ought to* is *should* (see [1]) especially obligation which may not be fulfilled. Answer: [2] and [3] also with:

I should respect my parents tonight (even I probably won't have time!).

All students should attend their work by a strict rule (but some of them don't!).

(B) *Need to* is related to *must* (see [1]) mainly duty, not an authority, are *should* (where *must* is obligatorily used by the way of the person referred to).

He needs to present them if he is in respect his staying.

We can't discuss a decision of the subject.

He needs to see justice.

- (C) *Had better* (informal): infinitive (without *to*) has the meaning of 'strong recommendation or advisability':

You'd better be quiet, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{or you'll miss the train.} \\ \text{If you want to catch the bus.} \end{array} \right.$
He'd better not make another mistake.
I suppose Ed better see the doctor.

- (D) *Shall* in the sense of 'obligation' is introduced in statutory and in official regulations and other formal documents:

The Society's governing committee shall nominate one person for the office of President every year.

Prohibition

348

Prohibition can be thought of as the negation of permission ('He is not allowed to do something') or, in a different sense, as the negation of obligation ('He is obliged *not* to do something'). In an oral way: 'permission' and *must* (which is good): usual have the meaning of 'prohibition' with a negative:

- (A) Can the children play here? (B) No, I'm afraid they can't.
You *mustn't* go swimming. (You're not allowed to...)
You *mustn't* keep on all evening.

A weakened prohibition (using 'The negative auxiliary can be replaced by *oughtn't* to give *He's oughtn't to waste money on smoking*).

You *oughtn't* to waste money on smoking.
He *oughtn't* to be so impatient.
I'd better get back than up.

Imposing a duty

Example

349

With the aim of getting someone to do something, a direct command can be used: *Stop the slave. Follow me. Don't wear on the road, etc.* (see 320). A negative command has the effect of forbidding (not *don't* to a verb): *Don't swim. Don't swim.*

In addition, with a 2nd person subject, the verb forms expressing obligation and prohibition (see 341, 342) can have almost the same effect: *You must be careful. You mustn't swim.*

The construction *be + infinitive* can refer to a command given either by the speaker, or (more usually) by some official authority:

He *is to* return to Germany tomorrow (He has been given orders to return to Germany).
You *are to* stay here until I return (I tell you so).

Notes

- [a] Some attributed sentences which do not contain an imperative verb have the effect of being commands: *Get with it! Shut your mouth!*

(= 'Be happy! It here!'). Another type is especially used in addressing children and pets: *Off you go! Make you good! Up you come! (children)*

- (4) It is in its formal sense, or sometimes by used (eg in military contexts) with the force of a severe command:

Q: *Then I will report for duty at 0600 hours.* Oh, yes. Absolutely!

You must be careful of time.

346

You can specify the people who have to obey the command by putting a 2nd or 3rd person subject in front of the imperative verb (see 271), or else by using a vocative:

You nice thingy, and you nice that one (pointing to the people contacted, none that you is stressed)

Jack and Brian stand near them.

something open the door

There he, Michael

Elsewhere a command with *you* has a note of impudence:

You mind your own business!

Another form of impatient command begins with *will*:

Will you be going!

Although this has the grammatical form of a question, its falling intonation gives it the force of a command.

In many circumstances, commands are (impolite), and therefore we shall consider in 347-51 various ways of 'softening down' the effect of a command.

Note

It is not impolite to use a command when you are telling someone to do something for his own good. *Have another chocolate! Make yourself at home, don't be a stranger to me! Oh, come in.* These are in effect offers or invitations, rather than commands.

<Polite, necessary>

347

One way to tone down or weaken the imperative force of a command is to use a rising or fall-rise tone, instead of the usual falling tone:

Be careful.

Don't remove your wallet.

Another way is to add *please*, or the tag question *will you?*:

Please hurry up.

Look after the children, will you.

This way, please.

Note

Two other ways why don't you and *will you* (when a negative command) can tone down a command:

Have a drink, why don't you.

Don't be late, will you.

But after a positive command, it's preferable using *and* usually to provide extra information (42):

Go down, and get

Requests

41b

It is often more polite to use a request rather than a command to ask your friend whether he will do a certain job or something. The challenge is to be soft (softly) and not too soft (softly) can be used:

1a. { Would you please take the bin?
 take?
 Would you please take the bin?
 take? } 1b. Yes, sure!

1a) Yes, we probably will take it.

1b) No, I'm afraid not, because...

1a) Could you kind take my bin?

1b) OK, sure! (and/or) Here it is.

(These examples also show typical English requests and softeners to be polite) and softeners to make negative questions, which expects a positive answer (42.5), and to make polite requests (42.6), and more formal ones:

When? Could you take it and bring it down?

Could you possibly take another day?

Other polite forms of request

44b

There are many other indirect ways of making a polite request, as you can make a statement about your own wishes. The following are later, roughly in order of increasing politeness:

I would love to take it if you could do one.

Would you mind taking the bin?

I wonder if you'd mind giving me the address?

Would you be so kind as to take it for me?
(kind enough) } in a neutral situation

I would be extremely grateful if you would write a reference for me.
I regret if you would not be able to provide me with more information about your English course?

These requests are typical of American English. In formal contexts, useful formulae such as *I would be very grateful if...* and *would appreciate it if...* (44) are used.

Advice, suggestions and invitations

45a

110 AS ways of offering other people advice, suggestions and invitations are

either that committee, since you have made the decision of 2000 what to do in the bank of the future. But in practice in the example above, they are often (10000) ways of giving commands or instructions.

ADVISE

You ought to read this book (see 143).

You should stay in bed.

You'd better take your medicine.

I'd advise you to see a doctor.

If I were you, I'd sell this car.

SUGGESTIONS

I suggest we take the night train.

You can't read these two chapters before tomorrow (if you like).

You could be checking the letter while I'm away.

You might have a look at the book.

Why don't you call on us to discuss it?

Good and right indicate (10000) suggestions.

SUGGESTIONS (CONTINUED) - THE OTHER WAY

I suggest we go to bed.

Shall we take to some music?

Let's enjoy ourselves (see 143).

Let's not waste time.

Why don't we have a party?

How about a game of football?

What about having a picnic?

Optional, tentative.

153

EXERCISES

Come in and see diver (10000).

Would you like to come with me?

How would you like to come and spend a week with us next year?

May I see the picture of the stars? (10000, 10000)

How about you in London next Saturday? (10000, 10000)

How is a typical square?

(A) Are you doing anything special on Friday?

(B) No.

(C) Then perhaps you'd be interested in coming in for a meal at a restaurant there.

(D) Thank you very much. This is kind of you.
I'd love to.

In (polite) refusing the invitation, Bill might say

Well, that's very kind of you. But I'm afraid I can't already
arranged to go. . . . What a pity. I would have loved to
go.

Request commands, etc.

287

Commonly, the statements and questions (see 284-85) can be reported either in
their speech or in indirect speech:

DIRECT SPEECH	'Put on your sports shoes,' he said.
INDIRECT SPEECH	He told John to put on his football boots and to put on their sports shoes.

In indirect speech, put the command in the form of a to-infinitive clause. The
verb can be indicated by an infinitive OBJECT (here in the above example). Note
the passive construction:

'They were told to put on their sports shoes.'

The same construction can be used for advice, requests, permission, obligation,
persuasion, invitation, etc.:

He asked me to read this book.	[1]
He asked my sister to help him with his homework.	[2]
She allowed him to kiss her.	[3]
They requested him to prepare their quarters.	[4]
Mary let me persuade her to resign.	[5]
We were made to stand the next morning.	[6]
They persuaded me to stay in this hotel.	[7]

Notice also three other constructions:

The doctor asked me to rest.
He begged me forgiveness.
I had recommended to Lolita Newburg

351

Not all verbs for influencing people take an infinitive. Suggest takes a that-
clause rather than putting the verb, as 289-90.

He suggested that they should pay cash.

This construction may also follow other verbs, such as recommend:

The doctor recommended that you should rest for a week.

Requests, and other infinitives, etc. can also be put in the form of indirect state-
ments and questions. Thus instead of [1] and [2] you could say:

He asked me if I would help him with his homework.	[2a]
(Object: 'Will you help me with my homework?')	
She said he might kiss her.	[3a]
(Object: 'You may kiss me.')	

The rules for changing into the past tense, etc. (see 305) for indirect statements and
questions apply also in indirect commands, requests, etc. (except that there is no
change in the infinitive clause). Allow a past tense reporting verb, e.g.

shin), can, may, and may not change to their past tense forms would, should, could, might, might not, and had to (see [2a], [2b]) but must, ought to, should, and had better do not change.

'You must be careful!' → 'I told them they must be careful.'
'You might be late in bed!' → 'I said that he might be late in bed.'

254

The verbs *forget* (forget), *promise* (promise), *obey* (obey), *agree* (agree), *decide* (decide) and *mean* (mean) contain a negative meaning, so the clauses which follow them are normally positive.

They were forbidden to smoke. ('They were ordered not to smoke.'
They were prohibited from smoking.)

She dissuaded him from leaving the country. (She persuaded him not to ...)

The minister refused to answer on the press report.
He denied that the allegations were true.

'They were prevented from taking part

Warnings, promises and threats

255

Finally, we turn to three types of interjection involving future time.

warning

Wind (your head)

Look out!

Be careful (of your clothes)

I warn you not going to be funny.

If you're not careful, that party'll catch fire.

Exact warnings are often spoken with a future tense and Must:

promise

I'll do you some shopping.

I promise (you) I'll be quick.

You won't lose money, I promise (you).

You shall (you) get the money tomorrow. (It's also here, see [6c] New)

Assuming that the action actually occurs by tomorrow, your firm will undertake in ten days to have the goods by the weekend. In fact,

threat

I'll report you if you do that.

Don't say that into tea.

You dare touch me!

Or that, and I'll tell your mother (see [10c])

Stop using those words, or I'll take them away (see [5c])

Warnings, promises and threats in reported speech

256

REPORTED WARNINGS

He warned us to be careful.

They warned us of (some) bad weather.
We were warned that the journey might be dangerous.

PROVIDE

He promised to be back to let me know.
He promised that he wouldn't bet on horses.
They promised him that he would not lose his job.
Her boss (Charles) has promised her a rise.
She has been promised a rise.

THREATEN

He threatened to report me to the police.
He threatened that they would lose their jobs.
He threatened them with a physical.

Personally communications

287

Let us now look at some of the simple acts of communication whereby people establish and maintain friendly relations with one another. Common phrases are given where they are important (see 28-40).

Beginning and ending conversations

288

RESPONSE

Good morning/afternoon/evening, (polite)

Hi! (casual)

Hi, (very familiar)

Hello (with a rising tone) is also used in answering the phone.

Hi/Hello (casual)

Goodbye, (Cheer, etc. very familiar, B.E.) (Ciao!) (familiar B.E.)

(Bye) (casual) See you (very familiar)

See you (very familiar) See you (very familiar)

See you pronto (casual) See you in a minute (casual)

'Good-night' (used when a husband is going for the night or before going to bed)

Take care! (more personal) Careful!

Other remarks may be added for politeness.

It's been nice knowing you It has just been a good journey

INTERCOMPARISON

This is John Smith.

Meet my wife, (familiar),

I don't think you've met our neighbour, Mr Quirk.

QUESTIONS WHICH REQUIRE AN ANSWER

How do you do? (formal)

How are you?

Like to meet you.

How's everything?

389

After a greeting, a conversation may continue with a polite inquiry about health, etc.

How are you?

How are you getting on? (familiar)

How's things? (very familiar)

Common replies to such questions are

(I'm) fine. How are you?

Very well. Thanks you. And you?

If someone is liable to poor health, one might reply: *How are you feeling today?*
Just poor or *I hope you're a bit*.

Typically in Britain opening remarks about the weather are common:

(A) (It's a) lovely day, isn't it? (see 290)

(B) Yes, isn't it brilliant? (see 314)

(A) What miserable weather! (see 302)

(B) Dreadful!

Writing and coding letters

390

Example of a (formal) official letter

Dear Sir, / Dear Madam

With reference to your letter of.....

.....

Yours faithfully,

A. R. Smith

(Manager)

Example of a (less formal) letter

Dear Dr Smith, / Miss Brown, / (change)

Thank you for your letter of

.....

(With best wishes)

Yours sincerely, (Hil)

Sincerely (yours), (AnnE)

James Robertson

Exchange of an Affirmative Reply between acquaintances or

Dear George,

.....

.....

.....

(Here wishes)

Yours (sincerely),

Janet

More intimate letters may begin and end with endearments: *My dear George, (dearest George), ... Love from Janet, etc.*

Thanks, apologies, regrets

361

THANKS

Thank you.

Thanks very much

Many thanks

Thank you very much.

THANKS TO THANKS

Not at all

Your're welcome

That's all right.

Note that in English, such responses are not so common as in some other languages. Often the "guest" makes no reply. In shops and restaurants, you will say "Thank you for the article/book bought, and the shopkeeper, or waiter, etc. will say "You're welcome" or "Thank you for buying the article."

APLOGIES

My apologies

My big (your) pardon.

I apologise

Apologies are in (BrE) written or told, apologies for certain impolite behaviour, e.g. for interrupting, for sitting, for pushing in front of somebody. One would say I apologise for my mistake for matters such as leading on someone's nose. More highly, apologies are:

I'm terribly sorry (without the letters)
(offer forgiveness and then help.)

(Will you be so good please me if I have to trouble you?)

(I hope you will be gracious to me if I have to trouble you.)

RESPONSE TO APLOGIES

That's all right.

Please don't worry

REMARKS

"I'm sorry I was unable to come to the meeting." (Formal)

"I regret that I was unable..." (Formal, or ironic)

Good wishes, congratulations, condolences

362

(I) Good wishes are usually spoken with a falling intonation

GOOD WISHES

Good luck

Best wishes for your vacation (AmE), holidays, (BrE).

I have a good time at the theatre.
I wish you every success in your new career. (formal, funny)

Wishes sent to a third person

Please give my best wishes to Sally.
Please remember me to your family.
Please give my kindest regards to your wife & family.
Please give love to the children & yourself.
Say hello to Joe. (AmE)

Wishes for someone

Mary Christmas.	Happy New Year.
Happy birthday to you!	Many happy returns for your birthday.

Wishes

Good health. (formal)	Your health. (formal)
Good luck! (informal)	Good luck in your job. (formal)
Good luck in the future. (formal)	

CONGRATULATIONS

Well done! (informal) (for a success or achievement)
Congratulations on your engagement.
I was delighted to hear about... (other...)
May we congratulate you on your recent appointment. (formal)

CONDOLENCES

Please accept my deepest sympathy on the death of your father. (formal)
I was extremely sorry to hear about... (that... (informal))

Offers

YES

If you prefer, you can answer one of questions about the location of the house (see 114-7).

Would you like me to help you with the <u>log</u> ?	11
Would you like me to mail these <u>letters</u> ?	21
Shall I get you a <u>drink</u> ?	31
Can I open the <u>door</u> for you?	41

In accepting an offer in the form of a question, we say

either	<u>Yes, please.</u>	(accepting)
or	<u>No, thank you.</u>	(refusing)

More (polite) responses:

Yes, please. That's very kind of you.

Yes, thank you. I'd love some more.

(Please don't thank you can be used in accepting, as well as refusing)

More (polite) refusals include an explanation of the refusal:

That's very kind of you, but I can't. I really manage my time.

No, thank you very much. It's just kind. (answer to 3)

No, please don't. rather. I can manage. thank you. (answer to 4)

In standard English, commands are often used in making offers:

Have some more coffee.

Do sit down.

Let me get a chair for you.

After the offer has been accepted, the other person need not do anything which could be performed for the service. Quite often people just smile or say *thank you* or try on hanging up some clothes or *thank you very much* on opening a window, bringing a chair, etc.

Vocatives

114

To get someone's attention, you can use vocatives such as *John*, *Mr. Brown*, *Dr. Smith*.

John, I want you.

Have you got a minute, Mr. Brown?

Dr. Smith, have you seen this report?

Vocatives can be used more generally to state the speaker's relation to the hearer. *Mr.* and *Ms.* are vocatives which make respect to a stranger:

Did you enter that report correctly?

(After a long time, the human tendency to see through the vocative titles of respect, and some professions, titles, can be used as vocatives: *Look, my goodness!* (informal opening of a speech); *Mr. Look* (to a peer, a helper, a *straight* judge, etc.); *Dear Look* (in an American letter); *Dear Look* (to an ambassador, etc.); *Mr. President*, *Prime Minister*, *Father* (to a priest), *Dear* (to a special messenger), etc.

In contrast, the following are some of the many examples of the typical use of vocatives (and/or) without just plain, simple or *And*, *I*, *you*, *my*, *she*, etc. 115

English is rich in its forms of address to strangers, sex and especially women are exceptional. It is useful to meet a minute after a vocative is by many considered impolite. Some people even feel that conventional vocatives like *excuse me* or *thank you* are rather impolite, although, of course, the same (=the same) since the negative taken home are appropriate:

Excuse me, could you put through a call to Copenhagen. (1956)

This is a good illustration of a stranger, you may often have to rely on *Excuse me!* or on *Thank you!* (1956) and *Excuse me!*

Section D: Meanings in connected discourse

366

In Sections A, B and C we have been considering aspects of reading in the main, but in this final section we shall be thinking about how meanings may be put together and presented in a spoken or written discourse. This is usually the discourse type and presentation of facts. We start with the organisation of sentences within and between paragraphs.

Linking signals

367

Whether in speech or in writing, you help people to understand your message by signalling how one idea follows on from another. The words and phrases which have this function or function are (for simplicity) called *connectives*. Most of the main English sentences adverbials, and they generally come at the beginning of a sentence. The most important connectives are as follows:

Making it more exact

368

What had you planned to do from 10.30 onwards in 1945? (quote) Until a new set in the town of thought.

(A) You remember that paper we read?

(B) Yes.

(C) Well, we adapted it and used it as a set paper of its own.

What had you read tonight? I am now going to tell you something new! It is particularly pertinent when a person is asked for an opinion.

(A) What do you think of the oil crisis?

(B) Well, I don't think it's quite as serious as it seems.

Now often starts a sentence to an earlier part of thought.

Well, that's called it. Now, that was the other thing we were reading about.

Linking the subject

369

It usually is by the same connective. It can be used to change the subject:

The students were disappointed for students } at the way } over you
though, your idea for New York, 1987 } at the way }
 } at the way }
 } at the way }
 } at the way }

Linking and adding

370

In (367) and (369) you can list a series of points by a connective as follows: (a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f) (g) (h) (i) (j) (k) (l) (m) (n) (o) (p) (q) (r) (s) (t) (u) (v) (w) (x) (y) (z) (aa) (ab) (ac) (ad) (ae) (af) (ag) (ah) (ai) (aj) (ak) (al) (am) (an) (ao) (ap) (aq) (ar) (as) (at) (au) (av) (aw) (ax) (ay) (az) (ba) (bb) (bc) (bd) (be) (bf) (bg) (bh) (bi) (bj) (bk) (bl) (bm) (bn) (bo) (bp) (bq) (br) (bs) (bt) (bu) (bv) (bw) (bx) (by) (bz) (ca) (cb) (cc) (cd) (ce) (cf) (cg) (ch) (ci) (cj) (ck) (cl) (cm) (cn) (co) (cp) (cq) (cr) (cs) (ct) (cu) (cv) (cw) (cx) (cy) (cz) (da) (db) (dc) (dd) (de) (df) (dg) (dh) (di) (dj) (dk) (dl) (dm) (dn) (do) (dp) (dq) (dr) (ds) (dt) (du) (dv) (dw) (dx) (dy) (dz) (ea) (eb) (ec) (ed) (ee) (ef) (eg) (eh) (ei) (ej) (ek) (el) (em) (en) (eo) (ep) (eq) (er) (es) (et) (eu) (ev) (ew) (ex) (ey) (ez) (fa) (fb) (fc) (fd) (fe) (ff) (fg) (fh) (fi) (fj) (fk) (fl) (fm) (fn) (fo) (fp) (fq) (fr) (fs) (ft) (fu) (fv) (fw) (fx) (fy) (fz) (ga) (gb) (gc) (gd) (ge) (gf) (gg) 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with its full causal chain, and it is possible for it to turn. Similar to these inferences are *if... then... then... then...* and *if... then... and... which indicate that an additional point is being made* (see 205).

Speech patterns can be given for the change in the attitude of many students. You begin with "they fear the mathematics of nuclear war. Gradually they are enthralled over the continuing pollution of the environment. Not enough progress, however, has been made in reducing power or noise with . . . And in conclusion, they feel frustrated in their attempts to influence political decisions."

Reinforcement

371

Words, or any two (informal and formal), are often verbatim substitutes indicating an additional point in an argument, but with a slightly different meaning. They are used to re-emphasize an argument or a position when a preceding argument might not have sufficed:

I would be coming to the football game this afternoon. I had some work to do in the park. Besides, if they play as badly this time as they did last week, it won't be worth watching.

Furthermore, their formal and informal address can be used in a similar way:

Summarizing generalization

372

To lead into a summary of main ideas, code, you can write in a word or two, or a sentence. The following passage from a book review illustrates this:

The techniques discussed are valuable. Besides, there is a list of preliminary and reference work. Each chapter is supported by a well selected bibliography. In short, this is a very good and useful book that should prove extremely valuable to readers.

Other linking phrases serve to indicate a generalization from points already made: *in all, on the whole, overall, generally, etc.* These are used in a similar way to the summary signals. This small code could replace the others in the subsection above.

Explanations

373

A main strategy code can be explained in three ways:

- (A) by explaining and describing its meaning, *that is to say, by*
- (B) by giving a more precise description, *namely, by*
- (C) by giving an illustration, *for example, for instance, etc.*

The latter abbreviations (B) and (C) are mainly found in journal writings. They are normally read aloud as "that is," "namely," and "for example," respectively.

It is important that no children should see things, and not merely read about them. For example, a visual exercise would take them into a trip to a farm.

These forms can also link two clauses in apposition (see 189–91) in the middle of a sentence:

- A: *And that person, namely the President himself, supports the program for disarmament.*

Reformation

214

Sometimes to make our *deixis* (207), we rephrase or modify them by using them in other words. Such reformulations can be introduced by various linking words (see 2, 16, 20, 207).

- I: *They are enjoying the number of flowers that appear to be enjoying themselves.*

He admits that he respects the basic human permission. In other words he stole it.

Linking clause routines

215

We see here a *linking clause*, the *link* which has formed a sentence on the basis of its meaning (see a section on *Linking* below) through the main steps of putting such links together:

- (A) *Linking* (208): *You, after a condition there, by the very definition, see it, but not ...* (see, for example 242, 247)

(B) *Linking* (209): *From the first sentence you must be able to see, 200) under it in a sentence, see 220–242. It is not only the first sentence, but, of, and below.*

(C) *Linking* (210): *You can remove the first steps by using a link to see some additional (see 212), such as you, 200, 200, and the other.*

Control

216

The three methods (reformation, subordination, and adverbial formation) mentioned above for the construction of a sentence (see 212–14):

- (A) *He was extremely tired, but he made his bed to sleep.*

He though he was very tired, he made his bed to sleep until after 10) o'clock.

The new bed from which, though he was very tired.

- (B) *He had traveled every mile, and was extremely tired. However, because of his noise he was unable to go to sleep until the early hours of the morning from which.*

For a sentence (and more explicit construction), you can combine a sentence (see 181) with the construction of subordination.

- (A) (C) *He was extremely tired, but he was extremely unable to sleep until after midnight.*

- (B) (C) Although he was suffering from fatigue as a result of his long journey, *as* because of the noise, he *did* awake in his bed, thinking over the events of the day until the early hours of the morning. (F&L2, *mean* clausal)

Other relational coordination, subordination and linking adverbial

377

- (A) Coordination is often 'looser' because, as the text says, because it is more vague (see 366) and, *for example*, i.e. is more characteristic of *expository* than of *exiting*.
- (B) Subordination tends to give a clause more 'weight' and in the information given by a sentence. Thus an adverbial subordination clause is often used when the information in the clause is already wholly or partly known or expected by the hearer (see 422).

Julia was talking in the afternoon. *When* he entered, the dinner was on the table.

- (C) An adverbial link is often used to connect large stretches of language, perhaps whole sentences which themselves contain an *exiting* or *expository* clause.

Other relations or markers

378

We now give, for illustration, some further examples of relations of meaning to show how English offers a choice between coordination, subordination, and adverbial links. In the case of coordination (and sometimes of subordination), we place an adverbial in brackets when it can be used to make the relation more explicit. Most of the types of meaning relation mentioned here have been discussed in Section 3, and no further explanation is needed at this point.

379

Time-Adverbial (see 189-200)

- (A) He handed the report *carefully*, and *slowly* looked up.
 (B) *After* leaving the photo on duty, he checked out the material.
 (C) He took the plate from the kitchen and looked through the glass he aimed it at, *so* it was transparent to him of the essential.

380

Cause-Effect (see 193-200)

- (A) He ran out of money, and *therefore* had to find him a job.
 (B) *Because* he had run out of money, he had to look for a job.
 (C) He ran out of money, *so* he had to look for a job.
 (D) After he ran out of money, he had to look for a job.
 (E) After he ran out of money, he had to look for a job.

381

Positive and Negative (see 194-95)

The comparison of a verbal and a noun clause, for example, *John's contacts are as commanding as driving cars*.

- (A) Just this *more* *less*, and *fewer* *greater* (see 194).

- (D) If you take this medicine, you'll feel better.
(E) You ought to take your medicine regularly as the doctor ordered.
You'll feel better then, I'm afraid.

Give here too, might be 'hearing' on the condition', or 'an odd event'

- 392
Negative condition (see 211)
Can be used to indicate negative condition in limited contexts:
(A) You'd better put your vacation off, or you'll miss the sale, a good, valuable.
(B) Listen to me on your vacation, you'll catch a cold.
(C) I should warn you because if I were your secretary, you'd catch a cold.

- 393
Conditional form cannot indicate condition:
(A) However much advice you give him, he won't do exactly what he wants.
(B) It doesn't matter how much advice you give him, he won't do exactly what he wants.

- 394
Address (see 293)
(A) *She's (not) a professional artist and a college teacher (see 317).
*She's not only a professional artist, but also a college teacher.
(B) As well as (being) a professional artist, she's (also) a college teacher.
(C) She's well known all over the country as a professional artist. Additionally, she's also a college teacher.

- 395
Interrogative
This meaning cannot be indicated by other structures:
(A) *He's interested in that subject, isn't he? (can't do this because of direct, see 317).
(B) Would you like us to have a meeting about our matter this afternoon? (this verb does not allow direct) or direct
Other structures: otherwise, for/against, informal.

'General purpose' links

- 396
As you can see from 19-21, 284, this is a 'general purpose' linking word, which can adapt its meaning according to context. Any positive link between two ideas can be expressed by and English for three or four uses, which are of general purpose' connection of this kind. They are (1) the same as (see 293-300) (B) AVAILABLE AND COMMON (see also 315, but not (C)) grammatically correct in most

Relative clauses

107

Notice the similarities between a subordinate clause with *and* and a non-restrictive relative clause (see 106, 109):

- (We have arrived at the hotel and find it very comfortable.)
- (We have arrived at the hotel, which we find very comfortable.)

The same construction is seen in sentence 10, pages 107-110, in which the relative pronoun points back to a *wh*-clause or sentence:

- (He's spending his money on suits and that's not good for his skin, *isn't it?*)
- (He's spending so much time on golf, *which is so good for his skin, isn't it?*)

Relative clauses also have a definite connecting function, as the sentences below, in which *wh*-clauses modify, describe, and identify:

108-109

- I don't like people who drive too fast.
- (Because they drive fast cars, I don't like them!)

110-111

- The man *whom* you saw was wearing a hat.
- (When I saw him, he was wearing a hat.)

112-113

- Anybody who *whom* drives must be in for more.
- (If anyone has a horse, he deserves to be more!)

Participle and written clauses

114

These clauses (see 102-104) characteristic of formal written English also have a basic 'general purpose' linking function, as these examples show:

115-116

- Being a former teacher, he has to get up early.
- (As he is a former teacher...)

117-118

- Having finished the job, he will be very satisfied.
- (When it is finished...)

119-120

- Having finished the job, he will be very satisfied.
- (It is very happy...)

121-122

- Being a former teacher, he has to get up early.
- (He works hard...)

123-124

- He stayed at the hotel, and was very happy.
- (... because he was so nervous...)

Unlinked clauses

297

Two neighbouring clauses may be grammatically unlinked, i.e. although they may be separated in writing by a period (.) or a semicolon (;) or a colon (:). But it is also possible that there is no connection of meaning between them: a main clause, for instance, may be implicit, and there will be indicated by the reader.

In (unlinked) speeches, a speaker frequently tries to create implied connections, whereas in (writing), he would make the connections clear by grammatical devices or connectors. These concepts may be compared with the (C) sentences of 270-81 (the following (C) is taken from a private reader's list):

He looked at the photo carefully. (then) he took a photo of the thing
out. (then)

He had to look for a job—(because) he had run out of money
(therefore)

'Take the medicine (if you do) it'll make you feel better'
(consequently)

Substitution and omission

298

Clauses are often connected not only because of a meaningful link of the kind we have considered, but because they share some content, as they may be talking about the same person...

My brother was wearing a hat and (he) didn't get wet.

We can, if we like, link these two sentences into one sentence without changing them: *My brother was wearing a hat and (he) didn't get wet.* But generally, we avoid repeating the shared words and connect (i.e. by SUBSTITUTION) with a pronoun or other substitute (i.e. *he* or *it*) to the main clause repeated content(s):

My brother was wearing a hat and (he) didn't get wet.

My brother, who was wearing a hat, didn't get wet.

Obviously, substitution and omission are very useful and important, in that (A) they shorten the message, and (B) they can make (sub)connections of meaning more easy to grasp. We may say that they make the structure of the sentence 'lighter'. The general rule is: substitute and omit whenever you can, except when this leads to ambiguity. We shall now consider some of the ways in which the English language allows you to do this. Simply, but not necessarily substitution and omission together, and we have the repetition of various grammatical units (as they are used by these two rules) sometimes, and method is too long, sometimes (i.e. *and*), and sometimes *but*.

Substitution for main phrases

299 *and* *pro* *pro* *pro* *pro*

300

The persons pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*, etc. (see 257-7) often run the main phrases, and agree with them in number and gender (see 260, 254-5). In these examples, the main phrase and its substitute are in *italics*:

Answered for her by Hugo (Elizabeth's father)

The question is here: *¿Qué le pasa con él?*

14

Could you mind not taking it back to yourself?

15

{John and Mary
The children of the boys}

took a trip from my son. Their mother said

16

them to return the trip, but they said: *¡No, Señor!*

17

Notice that in the last sentence the plural pronouns *ellos* (them) do not substitute for *ellos* (them) plural, but for *ellos* (them) singular noun phrases such as *John and Mary*.

Relative pronouns (*quien*, *quienes*, *quien*) and relative pronouns (*que*, *quien*, *quienes*) have to be used in the same way (see 601-4, 285-301).

What happened? She had nearly / a big hair ornament

18

The eye she was injured. The hair that was damaged.

19

in the 2nd person present

302

Obviously, 1st and 2nd person pronouns account for *ustedes* (your plural) if a 3rd person pronoun is present in the noun phrase. *¿Dónde está el 2º con el 3º persona?*

The 2nd thought is that *ustedes*

My wife and I are going to Argentina. We hope to visit some friends.

If a 2nd person pronoun is present without a 3rd person pronoun, agreement is with the 2nd person present.

You and John can help with this. I can both do this much in the kitchen.

Special cases

303

(1) QUANTIFIERS (see 265-266). Sometimes a plural pronoun accounts for quantifier pronouns like *algunos* (some) etc. (see 265-266 again):

Everybody knows after marriage

Everybody looked after himself. (masculine, see 266)

(2) GROUP NOUNS. For substitution, a singular noun referring to a group of people is treated rather as a singular masculine noun (when we are thinking of the group as a unit) or as a plural (when we are thinking of the members of the group):

A family who quarrel among themselves

Was a family who quarrel among themselves when the New and Old Queens (see 287)

Quantifier pronouns

304

Other 2nd persons such as *vos*, *tú*, *usted* (see 265-266) are not substituted for a noun phrase. As the example shows, we could substitute *usted* for *usted* if there were an *usted* in the noun phrase.

3. REFLECTION. For *usted* (you) - *usted* (yourself)

Have you want my glasses? I want to make you go to make a agreement.

EXERCISE 1.1 (Exercise 1.1.1) **UNIT 1: THE SOUVENIR SHOP**

Can you give me a few words of good news, if you can help?

When the customer entered, she was greeted with a polite smile. In French, it is *bonjour*, 'hello', 'good day'.

We are away of the coast, but not quite so far from London.

There is a lot of lovely sea views, some very good, but I like the Teakton better than others.

From our bedroom you get an excellent view of the beach and sea.

There is a very nice hotel, 1500 ft high, and I'll enjoy the view.

It's a very long hotel, we went to enjoy the view of the hotel of the hotel.

John and I were looking for a restaurant. He found one, I found several, and we went to the best one for breakfast.

EXERCISE 1.2 (Exercise 1.2.1) **UNIT 2: THE SOUVENIR SHOP**

Some of the souvenirs have been dropped, but some had not.

It had some pages, it had some pages.

Substitute the nouns and parts of noun phrases

395

The picture was taken from the top of the hill, as we had to go to the top of the hill.

How was your trip today? I had a lot of fun, so it's a very nice trip.

I like the way that you do it; it's the way that you do it, it's the way that you do it.

The picture of the mountain was very good.

You got some very nice views, but this is the best view I have.

Now, the view is very nice, but the view is very nice, but the view is very nice.

Both views are very nice, but the view is very nice, but the view is very nice.

After the picture was taken, the picture was very nice, but the picture was very nice.

There are some very nice views, but the view is very nice, but the view is very nice.

EXERCISE 1.3 (Exercise 1.3.1) It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice. It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice.

EXERCISE 1.4 (Exercise 1.4.1) It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice. It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice.

EXERCISE 1.5 (Exercise 1.5.1) It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice. It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice.

EXERCISE 1.6 (Exercise 1.6.1) It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice. It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice.

EXERCISE 1.7 (Exercise 1.7.1) It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice. It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice.

EXERCISE 1.8 (Exercise 1.8.1) It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice. It's a picture of a picture, and the picture is very nice.

The paintings of Guggenheim's Tulu period are more famous than those (of the same) he painted in Europe.

What can be used as a substitute with a main clause:

The painting of the male plover is far more colourful than that of the plover(s) of the female.

There are a few verb pairs (as father/daughter), and are easily translated in (written) English. The relative pronoun (which) cannot usually be omitted in English:

The problem of coordinating activities is not different from that which Britain faced in the 1970s (Compare: ... the same thing in 1970s, ... in the 1970s.)

Substitutes for structures resembling a verb

THE SUBJECTS VERBS

298

The dummy subject verb (to be, its negative forms) can serve as a substitute for the whole of a clause apart from the subject:

He can cook as well as she (she). 'Can she cook?'

(A) Who wants to visit the Germans? (B) $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{I do.} \\ \text{I don't.} \end{array} \right\}$

You can also find the same clause following the subject:

He can cook as well as: $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{she (formal).} \\ \text{her (informal).} \end{array} \right\}$

(A) Who wants to play tennis? (B) $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{We.} \\ \text{She (informal).} \end{array} \right\}$

Note that in (informal) English, the pronoun subject is changed to its objective form (we, she) when the rest of the sentence is omitted.

Do you also substitute for the part of a clause excluding subject and adverb(s):

(A) Have you written to your father yet?

(B) Yes, I did last week. (I wrote to my father ...)

Occasionally do use as a substitute for a verb phrase alone:

She plays the piano better than he does the guitar. (plays)

299

In all such cases you can use other possible pronouns (he, she, it, etc.) that is, you can omit the whole or part of the sentence following an auxiliary:

It's open a bank account if you (I) will. ... if you will do so.

She can cook as well as she can.

(A) He's working late this week. (B) Yes, he was last week, too.

You can't play in the garden, but you can't in the city, too.

Do not use other auxiliaries and pronouns, except in case of a minimum word denial (can't, etc.) or where they have some sort of concessive meaning:

(A) Are you going to clear the car?

298 (B) I could, and I might in, but I don't think I will.

The omission also occurs after one of three positions:

He was working harder than he ought to have been.

(A) Is the tiger's coming? (B) It may be.

(A) Did you visit the area? (B) No, I tried to, but I forgot.

Note

(a) *As if* is a conjunction which is used to introduce a clause which is contrary:

If they're not asleep, they should be.

(b) In (BrE), *as if* can sometimes refer to other animals as well as to humans, especially to some birds, but it is very old.

(A) Would you please come and see me? (B) I tried to.

The main verb is

400

The main verb *do* (see 494) acts as a substitute for a main verb, normally a verb denoting some action or activity. Since this *do* is a form verb, it requires an object which may be one of the substitute words *it* or *there*:

He can't see cars, but I don't know how he managed to do it.

(I ... managed to get her home)

They have just tried to increase pensions by 20 per cent. If they do it,

it will make a big difference to old people.

As *do* is generally more emphatic and informal,

They say he looks in his shoes and asks why ever they're an *idiot* to do it and *do* is usually always repeated one another. Notice the difference between:

Bob's getting his house painted, and moreover, he wants me to do it.

(He wants me to paint his house)

Bob's getting his house painted, and moreover, he wants me to *do* it.

(He wants me to get my house painted)

Note

There is a similar use of *do* in *wh*-questions and in *wh*-clauses:

(A) What's he doing? (B) He's painting.

What's he *do* over the gate.

Substitutes for *do*-clauses

401

So is a substitute for *do*-clauses representing reported statements, beliefs, assumptions, emotions, etc.

Oxford will win the next two races. All my friends say so.

(I ... say that Oxford will win the next two races)

John doesn't find a job yet. He tells me so yesterday.

(I ... let he hasn't found a job yet)

(A) Are the Browns turning to dinner?

(B) I think so. I suppose so. I hope so. I'm afraid so.

So replaces *do* in negative clauses. I suppose not. I doubt not. *So* (like *with* verbs taking transferred negation (see 186), it is more natural to say, I don't; What do; I do

I don't suppose so, etc. In sentences expressing certainty and doubt (see 211-4) we can omit *so* or *not*, but have to say *that* and *if*, e.g. *They were so fit: I doubt if they can do this* or *if*.

In comparative clauses the whole of a clause can be omitted:

This is better than I thought it ^{was} that I thought it ^{was}.

Also, after the verbs *know*, *ask*, and *tell*, a sentence introduced by *whether* can be omitted in some cases:

(A) She's having a bath. (B) I don't know.

(A) How do you know? (B) She told me last night. Why do you ask?
An answer is usual after *how* and *why*.

Substitutes for *wh*-clauses

401

The whole of a *wh*-clause following the *wh*-word can be omitted:

She never has taken my notebook, but I don't know *where* she's got it.

(I don't know *who* she's taking my notebook's got.)

This cannot be done with *whether* and *if*.

Substitutes for *to*-infinitive clauses

402

With infinitive clauses, we can omit the *wh*-word in the clause following *wh*:

(A) Who don't you come and visit with us?

(B) I'd love to do so.

You can borrow my pen. I gave *him* *mine* with it.

We got out of the car although I had *been* *in* it.

Sometimes *it* might be helpful. Shall I ask *him* to do it?

With some verbs such as *ask* and *tell*, the whole of the main clause, as meaning *so*, can be omitted in informal English:

You can borrow my pen. Shall I ask *you*?

Shall I ask *you*?

It, *that*, *what*

403

The definite pronouns *it*, *that*, and *what*, are usually used as substitutes for the *wh*-word in the *wh*-clause (see 87-83, 101).

That's what I like. Who do you know that'll regret it.

(I regret not visiting the hospital.)

(A) What's your name? (B) How do you know that?

(A) I've asked the club secretary for it. (B) What's the office like here?

After many verbs, e.g. *know*, *remember*, *think*, the subject in a *wh*-clause is often omitted and much use of *it* and *what* is made. "The handling of the dam resulted in . . ."

In such cases, the pronoun requires a clause to refer to it, e.g. *it* being *the* *handling of the dam* or *it* being *the* *dam*.

Other structures which allow us to identify sentences by some repeated matter are coordinate structures, nominal clauses, and relative clauses. All these structures will be discussed in Part 3, so here we merely give a few examples of the various types of variables that occur in them, showing how they provide a clue for a translator to identify and repeat.

Other structures with *shì* 是

Other elements which are or can be qualified in coordinate or other structures:
 但是 但是 但是 but but but the thing.

(= 'Even though the food has become stinky...')

We are flying at Mach 1 tonight, and the plane was built

(= 'Even though we are flying at Mach 1 now, which is an 80% improvement...')

But he himself is a size of 40 and wears hats.

(= 'He is not himself a size of 40, he takes an even larger size hat...')

But it's classical, but popular (it is being played) every other day.

(= 'Classical music is being seriously studied three days, popular music three...')

Other: We, Germany of 20, had with me the World Cup.

(= 'With Germany with me at World Cup, of 20 we had...')

John works and lives in New York.

(= 'John works in the north, he lives in the south...')

In general, the same structure can be used when one of the elements is a verb form in the other. Compare:

他正在吃饭 and 饭正在吃。

He was so exhausted that even to sleep.

But there is a few years when the area below the equator (area) where the weather is hot, though it is not true.

Other structures with *shì* 是

Not all variables (see 404) have no operator, and most of them have no conjunction or subject. They in conjunction with main substances they are more coordinate and avoid repetition. By 1989 and 1990 are more probably for comparison, are particularly associated in formal use in these styles of English. We shall regard these pairs as a somewhat fixed structure.

will be present. I hope to be present.

(= 'I hope that I shall be present...')

was raised. Living in the country, we had two social years.

(= 'When we lived in the country, ...' (1989) (1990) 15)

of clause: The man injured by the bullet was taken to hospital.
(= 'The man who was injured by the bullet...')

406

The same applies to cleft-like clauses introduced by a subordinator:

Example: He wrote his generalised article while working in an
ordinary career.

(= '... while he was working as an ordinary
career...')

of clause: Though dismissed, he remained a popular leader.

(= 'Though he had been dismissed...')

Division in written clauses:

407

Verbless clauses (see 317) have no verb and usually no subject:

Whether right or wrong, he usually wins the argument.

(= 'Whether he is right or wrong...')

A man of few words, Uncle George started to express an opinion.

(= 'Being a man of few words... as he was a man of few
words...')

Verbless clauses like participial clauses often belong to a more formal style.

Not all subordinators can introduce participial and verbless clauses. For ex-
ample, because, as, and since (as conjunctions of reason) cannot. Notice the
difference in the connectives, because they denoting time and cause running
parallel.

408

When he left school, } he's had several other jobs.
Since leaving school, }

409-410

Since you know the answer, } who didn't you speak up?
Since knowing the answer, }

Presenting and focusing information

411

We now deal with the various ways in which meanings can be presented and
managed for clearer communication. For a more complete treatment, see 411-413.

1. The message has to be cut up into individual pieces of information (see 411-413)
2. The ideas have to be given the right emphasis (see 414-421)
3. The ideas have to be put in the right order (see 422-429)

Effects of information

411

153 In written English, a series of propositions can be ordered so as to give of

language which is separated from what goes before and to which follows by punctuation marks (1973: 6, 7, 8) and which does not itself contain any punctuation marks. In (spoken) English, a piece of information can be defined as a tone unit (see 36), less one or more units contains a message. Notice the difference, in (spoken) English, between:

Peter has a charming wife and two children. (1)

Peter has a charming wife; he also has two children. (2)

If a message, as we show in 375-38, [1] and [2] 'mean the same', but [1] presents the message as two pieces of information, while [2] presents it as two pieces of information separated by a punctuation mark (1973: 6). In (spoken) English, the same contrast is seen in:

Peter has a charming wife and two children.
(ONE TONE UNIT) (13)

Peter has a charming wife; he also has two children.
(TWO TONE UNITS) (14)

Dividing the message into tone units

412

There is no *exact* match between punctuation in (written) and tone units in (spoken) English. Speech is more variable in its structuring of information than writing. Cutting up speech into tone units depends on such things as the speed at which you are speaking, what methods you want to give to parts of the message, and the length of grammatical units. A single sentence may have just one tone unit, like (14), but when the length of a sentence goes beyond a certain point (say roughly ten words), it is often cut up into two or more separate pieces of information:

[The man told us we could park at his.]

[The man told us] we could park at the railway station.]

[The man told us we could park at the] [the street over there.]

413

In practice, the following criteria are used to divide a message:

- (1) Use a single tone unit for each sentence, except in the circumstances (36-41) below.
- (2) If a sentence begins with a clause or adverbial phrase, give the clause or adverbial phrase a separate tone unit:

The game he was lost, we spent two weeks in the []

(This does not usually apply when the sentence is a finite clause, see 428-31.)

- (3) If a sentence starts with a non-defining *pre-* modifier (see 175), or a *non-*restrictive relative clause (see 195), give the postmodifier a separate tone unit:

It is the whole which is the world's largest river [] has
been limited mainly to education.

- (D) Similarly, you may mean "please" or "please" as a separate unit (with
[and that] in sheet or with I refuse!.)
- (E) A relative or linking adverb usually has its main clause first (see 19):
I hope (that) you are coming?
I'm sure (that) he was guilty.
I'm glad (that) you are coming.
- (F) If a subordinate unit has a subject, the main clause usually follows (as subject):
When we walk, it starts to rain.
- (G) If two or more clauses are coordinated, give them each a separate clause
first:
I'm proud of the idea and we had thought it in.

Infinitive and control use §93

414

The marker is the more important part of a verb unit. It marks (a) the main
INFINITIVE, or the part of the unit in which the speaker generally draws the
main contrast or normally the melody. The end of the verb unit, or, to be
more precise, the last syllable, which usually carries main stress, negation, or an
object, see §84, is the control. Which syllable of the word is stressed, and the
main clause unit is finite, is determined by ordinary conventions of word stress
(e.g. to write the photograph, was looking at it). This neutral position of the
control, which you see in all the examples in 415, is all that counts.

Note

Control means stressing of two or more units together, often before, but often
in pairs, like a single word (e.g. like a main comparison), with the main stress on
a few main clause verbs, to write the photograph. (But control does
not mean to write, was looking.)

415

But in other cases you may shift the marker to an earlier part of the verb unit.
You may do this when you want to draw attention to an earlier part of the verb
unit, usually by contrast, or with something already mentioned or implied in
the context. For this reason, we call control pairing in the nucleus **CONTRASTIVE**
control. Here are some examples:

(1) One of the girls has arrived. (vs. the others have not) [1]

(2) He is happy that we met at Sunday 5 (No. 1) but he was
not in London. [2]

(3) I was pointing the cushion but (No. 1) I'm pointing the
chair's bedroom No. [3]

(4) Are you ever dividing your car? (No. 1) Yes, I've often own
one. [4]

If cases like [1] and [3], contrastive main clause, are followed by a full clause (see
154) with a subject, the subject and verb of the full clause replace in the nucleus

mit. In other sentences there may be a double contrast, each contrast indicated by its own accent:

[His father is Anger and she isn't either.] a French]

416

Stressless contrastive focus stress promotion is a whole phrase (or the whole of a sentence) [?] or other focus, if a single word that receives the focus (as often in [9]). Even words like personal pronouns, prepositions and auxiliaries, which are not normally stressed, can receive the contrast for special contrastive purposes.

[I've never been in Paris] but I will go there some day.] [9]

(A) 'Wann die Julia geht to Mary?)

(B) He was speaking to me in meters.] [8]

[I know the words with Julia] but she doesn't even see?] [9]

[I don't want to get near to the Peter] but if you see him]

[Please give me the good words.] [10]

In cases such as [8] and [9], contrastive focus comes later rather than earlier than normal end focus. Thus the normal way to say 'Das hat der Herr für [?] would be with focus on the verb, not the preposition.

Who does he work for?

In contrastive stress, contrastive focus is in a word of more than one syllable only in a syllable which does not normally have word stress. For example, if you want to make a contrast between the two words normally pronounced before-stress and after-stress you may do so as follows:

[I'm afraid that the insurance can be worse than the insurance.]

Given and new information

417

We can roughly divide the information in a message into given information (something with the speaker assumes the hearer knows already) and new information (which the speaker does not assume the hearer knows about already). In [8] above, 'I was speaking' is given information, i.e. already given by the preceding clause; in [10] 'you see him' is given information for the same reason.

[He was speaking to me]	[If you see him . . .]
[new] [new]	[new] [new]

As new information is obviously what is most important in a message, it receives the information focus (or nuclear), whereas old information does not. Naturally, personal pronouns and other substitute words, because they refer to something already mentioned or understood, usually occur as old information.

Note

Note that given information and new information are what the speaker assumes to be given and new respectively. What is given the hearer knows or assumes may be a different thing. For example, a speaker might say:

[Olfgang hat's besten] but he isn't making printing.

The position of the nucleus here implies that the speaker knows that the hearer knows that there is a museum nearby. Thus, if you say, 'The library might not have heard of Picasso', you might not regard him as a museum partner. (ibid.)

Information given by situation

411

'Given information' suggests information which has already been mentioned or alluded to. So we may use it to refer to the non-nucleus information which is given by the situation outside language. In this respect, given information often denotes meaning and there is a natural stream-connection between given information and definiteness (see 69-97).

In the following examples, *Sam* which we give the most-contrastive function, the entire name being *Sam, John and Mike* in [11, 12, 13] can not have a nuclear SUBJ because the meaning is given by the situation. In contrast, the nouns *Saturday, factory* and *father's* in [11a, 12a, 13a] are *new* information, and therefore receive nuclear stress:

- | | |
|---|-------|
| What are you <u>going</u> to do? | [11] |
| What are you doing on <u>Saturday</u> ? | [11a] |
| I'll <u>work</u> here | [12] |
| I'll work in a <u>factory</u> . | [12a] |
| [Mr. Smith is a <u>friend</u> of mine.] | [13] |
| [Mr. Smith is a friend of my <u>father's</u> .] | [13a] |

But the definite nouns *Sam* could have nuclear stress if some CONTRAST were involved:

- | | |
|--|-------|
| [I know what you did yesterday,] but what are you doing <u>today</u> ? | [11b] |
| [I used to work in a factory,] but now I work <u>here</u> . | [12b] |

412

In other examples, the information given by the situation outside language is made a matter of what is suggested in a given context:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| The <u>husb</u> 's heiling. | The <u>doctor</u> has called. |
| Is your <u>father</u> at home? | [Dinner's ready.] |

In a natural context, the first part of each of these sentences conveys little information, and therefore does not receive the nucleus. For a home, the one thing to mention about *heiling* is that one is 'heiling', and the one thing you expect the doctor to do is to 'call you'. Therefore the nucleus means, naturally, *is* and *ready*, so the earlier and more information given in the sentence.

Main and subsidiary information

413

Degrees of 'informationness' are also relevant to the choice of tone (see 37-43) on the nucleus. We tend to use a falling tone to give emphasis to the main

information is a sentence, and a strong one can very often express a *style* (tone) to give subsidiary or less important information, or information which is more predictable from the context. Subordinate clauses and adverbials often give information which is subsidiary to the main or the focus of the main clause:

(A) [I saw your brother at the party yesterday]

main

subordinate

(B) [Yes, watching football is his favourite pastime]

subordinate

main

Subsidiary information may occur beside or before the main information. Speaker (B) could also say here:

[Yes, he has no pastime - he's searching for that]

main

subordinate

But if there had been no allowance for the subject of football, the speaker would usually put the main focus on *yes/no*:

(A) What was he doing down the sports field?

(B) [His main pastime is watching football]

or, on the pattern of the first example,

(B) [Watching football is his favourite pastime]

Adverbials as main and subsidiary information

(a)

Adverbials following the main clause often have a strong *tone* to indicate subsidiary information which is on a lower level:

It was amazing [when we arrived]

[She'll do anything] [if you ask her nicely]

But a final *style* clause can also occasionally contain the main information:

[She had just killed dragons] when her great grand uncle

Since final adverbials are often included in the same tone unit as the rest of the clause, and may bear the main focus:

She plays the piano beautifully.

Main and subsidiary information in writing

(a)

In writing, you cannot point to important information by using intonation, so you have to rely on ordering and subordination of clauses instead. The general rule is that the most important information is saved up to the end, so that the sentence finishes with a sort of *linear flow* indicated by underlines:

Arguments in favour of a new building plan, said the mayor, included suggestions that if a new shopping centre were built, the city's traffic problems would then become unmanageable.

In reading the sentence aloud, a moment of pause (rising or falling intonation) at all points of information except the last, which receives a falling tone.

[... frinking pan ... major] ... suggestion I ... kill] ?
[In The problems ... unmanageable]

End-focus and end-weight

423

When you are deciding how to make up phrases the idea is a sentence, there are two principles to remember:

- 420 **end-focus**: The new or most important idea in a piece of information should be placed towards the end, where it is given maximum of the time and normally by a stressed syllable. This principle may be extended to apply not only to single pieces of information but to a whole sentence containing many pieces of information. This is because a sentence is given to more than one purpose (e.g. presenting a problem) so the main point is saved up to the end.
- 421 **end-weight**: The main 'weighty' part(s) of a sentence should be placed towards the end. (However the sentence may sound awkward and unbalanced. The 'weight' is an abstract concept defined in terms of length or number of syllables or in terms of grammatical complexity (number of modifiers, etc).)

424

End-focus and end-weight are useful guiding principles but invariable rules. As we have said, although end-focus is good, you are allowed to speak to do it, the nucleus is an initial position in the first unit, but it is less awkward, similar to their use elsewhere in end weight:

My father was the largest factory owner in Russia. [14]
The largest factory ever was built by my father. [15]

In [14] *the largest factory* is placed after *factory* because of English's love of short subjects (*my father*) and a short verb (*was*). This sentence obeys the principle of end-weight. But in [15], the long main phrase comes first. The sentence breaks the end-weight principle and is less natural than [14] but it can clearly be used by a speaker wanting to give the focus of information earlier. In such a case the two principles of end-focus and end-weight conflict. Generally, however, the two principles work together to be useful for a short element or a sentence (by a primary) to have less information than a longer element.

Order and emphasis

Topic

425

In the rest of the chapter we shall show that English places less than a quarter of sentences in positions which help to arrange the message for the right

order and the right emphasis. Because of the principles we are there and

end-weight, the last position of a sentence or clause, it requires a non-weighted element constituent.

But the first element is also important for communication, because it is the starting point for what the hearer wants to say. It is (or is spoken) the part of the sentence which is familiar territory in which the hearer gets his bearings. Therefore, we call the first element in a clause (having verb complements and many sub-clauses, see 425 Note) the *TOPIC*. Lauded strenuously, the topic is the *arteria* of the sentence. If the structure has any one essential, usually via *wh* or *wh*-*do*, that does not receive focus, because it offers cognitive and information, and hence the alternative, or meaning in what variable, advice.

(How do you see Bill?) He sees the two children.

two		children
he		sees

An alternative is a non-information focus variable, and in this case, the topic is *wh* or *wh*-*do*.

(Who gave you this magazine?) Bill gave it to me.

it		me
Bill		gave
you		this
magazine		to

Exalted topic

426

Instead of the subject, you may make another element the topic, by putting it at the front of the sentence. This *EX* gives the element a kind of psychological prominence, and for three different effects:

(A) *EX* + *wh* + *wh*-*do*.

427

The individual construction of a *wh*-*do* construction a variable is often an element (particularly a complement) and to give it a *wh*-*do* status, this is a good double purpose.

It is the most important. (1)

(It is the most important.) (2) (Topic: *wh*-*do* element)

He is the most important. (3)

(He is the most important.) (4) (Topic: *wh*-*do*)

It is as if the speaker says the most important thing on his mind first, adding the rest of the sentence as an afterthought. The ordering of the elements here is *EX* + *wh* (1) and (2); *EX* + *wh* (3) or *EX* + *wh* (4) instead of the normal *wh* or *SVC* - *SVOC* - *SVO* or *SVO* (5).

(B) *EX* + *wh* + *wh*-*do* + *wh*.

428

Here, *EX* + *wh* + *wh*-*do* helps to give statements more a contrast between two things, members of a neighborhood, sections of a class, which often have parallel structure.

his <u>hair</u> The <u>roof</u> <u>isn't</u> <u>off</u>	(TOPIC = SUBJECT + OBJECT COMPLEMENT)
b. This <u>classroom</u> <u>is</u> <u>designed</u> .	(TOPIC = SUBJECT)
<u>Blings</u> <u>are</u> <u>my</u> <u>name</u> <u>is</u>	(TOPIC = SUBJECT + COMPLEMENT)
a. <u>Blings</u> <u>you</u> <u>might</u> <u>as</u> <u>well</u> <u>call</u> <u>me</u> .	
<u>Writing</u> <u>is</u> <u>difficult</u> <u>to</u> <u>do</u>	(TOPIC = ADVERBIAL)
<u>you'll</u> <u>have</u> <u>to</u> <u>be</u> <u>fringed</u> .	
<u>It's</u> <u>I</u> <u>may</u> <u>be</u>	(TOPIC = COMPLEMENT)
<u>you</u> <u>that</u> <u>doesn't</u> <u>hear</u> <u>the</u> <u>hiss</u> .	

This construction is not very common, and it is easily confused with the other two types.

(C) 'subject' topic

428

Another type of fronting is found in some forms of English, especially in written English.

That of your position is dangerous. (TOPIC = SUBJECT) +
could also be said.

The subject we have mentioned in an earlier chapter will read the same.

Accepting that we do show the difference in the way we use the word, it has a formal continuity.

The fronting here is more negative in the implication than is similar to the first sentence of the previous section, because the more important idea is being put at the end of the sentence in the fronted topic, allowing that it contains some information. Here, the *that* clause is a kind of emphasis on the starting point of the sentence.

Note

We shall not necessarily consider an initial adverbial to be a 'fronted topic', because most adverbials can occur fairly freely in front of the subject (see 420):

Every day I go to my late father's school.

But some adverbials are closely connected with the verb, such as those of *Wh* or *how*, if possible, or *where* or *when* in front position. These may be said to be 'fronted' for special prominence or emphasis:

- *How* happy is Peter's sister
but she really *is* *glad*.

Fronting

429

Fronting is often accompanied by a sentence, that is, by only the verb element, but the verb phrase, or part of it, is moved before the subject. There are two types

of fronting:

3. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

English	Form	Use	+ X	Noun	Number	Use
There is	there	is	is	is	is	is
There are	there	are	are	are	are	are
There is	there	is	is	is	is	is
There are	there	are	are	are	are	are

4. SUBJECT OPERATOR

Subject-operator is usually limited as follows:

- The subject operator of a single verb word
- The verb word immediately to the right of position (e.g. *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *isn't*, *aren't*, *wasn't*, *weren't*)
- The topic element (i.e. the subject) is an object of past or present.

There is a subject operator. }
 There are two subjects. }
 There is an operator. }
 There is the subject operator operator in its operator }
 and splendid. }
 Away from the operator operator }
 Study of is operator operator operator operator }
craft. }
 (Note: The examples are from the text.)

The examples from the text (subject operator) are as follows: (i) *There is a subject operator in the text.*

(ii) *There are two subjects in the text.*

Note:

- The subject operator in the examples above are used to distinguish a form from the following subject: *There is a subject operator.*

Example:

There are two subjects. }
 There are two subjects. }
 There are two subjects. }

- The infinitive subject there can be used with other verb forms:

There was no operator operator operator operator }
operator. }
 There may be two subjects operator operator operator }
 (Note: The following are the text.) }
operator. }

The construction in (b) conveys the narrator's surprise at the weather that when the speaker says it out loud with intonation, it probably has 37% of the emphasis on the opening, and on the subject.

(C) *So much for the value of a doctor's opinion!* (20% emphasis on the subject, with subject emphasis increased to 40% when the subject is the only one stressed) (20% emphasis on the subject)

Other constructions affecting the topic

CURT SENTENCE PATTERNS

434

The cleft sentence construction with introductory it (you do it by a useful formula) is an element of style, and a cue for putting emphasis mainly on the subject. It does this by splitting the sentence into two halves, highlighting the topic by moving it to the complement or pre-verb.

(A) *Would you like to buy this book?*

(B) *[It's] this book that I want to read.* (1)

(pre-verb: it's / subject: this book / verb: I want to read)

(The generalised and generalised have given rise to a generalised form of what happened) (the generalised / subject: what happened / verb: the generalised) (the generalised / subject: what happened / verb: the generalised) (2)

(the generalised / subject: what happened)

The corresponding patterns of the topic (it) seem to be made of the topic (it) negative in (1) and (2).

It's the wrong book, we don't need it, I don't want to read it.

But it was in the South of England, not in London, that ...

The cleft sentence is particularly useful in the case of a subject which is a complex mark construction, especially by contrast.

CURT SENTENCE PATTERNS

435

A normal sentence (like *the subject*) like an *it* cleft sentence, can be used to highlight a subject (for example, the subject or complement of the verb) (the subject position is more common):

NORMAL PATTERN

CLEFT SENTENCE

We need <u>more money</u> .		It's <u>more money</u> that we need.	(10-type)
		What we <u>need</u> is more money.	(10b-type)
		More <u>money</u> is what we need.	(10c-type)

The clefts do not make a difference to the topic (the subject) of the sentence:

We don't need more money. *What we need is more money.*

The 2i-type and the 2k-type shell structures (26) and (27) always be used in the same circumstances. For example, the 2i-type is more suitable in certain cases:

- a. The focus of the 2i-type sentence tends to be in the focus of a main clause or a main clause. An adverbial clause or prepositional phrase can sometimes be the focus of the 2i-type sentence, but it would be unusual to do so in the 2k-type sentence:

It was by ^{the way} that we reached Istanbul.

It was ^{in 1950} that the first station was opened.

It was ^{in 1950} that he first entered the world of a writer.

It was ^{in 1950} that when he first entered the world of a writer was in 1950.

It was on the way spot that I first met my wife.

It was on the way spot that I first met my wife was on the way spot.

The 2i-type sentence sounds somewhat better when the subordinate clause has:

On the way spot that I first met my wife.

- b. The 2i-type adverbial can be put in the focus of a main clause as can be the focus of a 2k-type sentence with a main clause or subordinate:

It is in autumn that the temperature is most beautiful.

Autumn is (the time) when the country looks most beautiful.

It was at Waterloo that Napoleon was finally defeated.

Waterloo was (the place) where Napoleon was finally defeated.

- c. A 2i-type sentence can be the subordinate clause when the focus is usually adverbial or prepositional:

It was the ambassador that met us.

But not: *When did he see the ambassador?

We saw however, say:

The ambassador who met us was the ambassador.

The 2k-type shell structure is more flexible than the 2i-type in many ways:

- a. The 2k-type can focus on the complement of a clause, whereas the 2i-type normally cannot:

He is a genius → *What he is a genius.

But not: *It is a genius that he is.

- b. The 2k-type can focus on the verb, meaning there is no main clause:

He's spell the same → *What he's spell is spell the

thing → *spell the thing.

But not: *It's spell the same thing that he's spell.

Note that the complement of the 2i-type structure has taken the focus of a main clause (26) or the 2k-type (27). The main clause verb may be a main

relative, that is infinitive, or an *of*-participle, or an *ing*-participle:

What <i>isn't</i> an <i>ing</i> -participle the whole thing.	a
What <i>isn't</i> an <i>of</i> -participle the whole thing.	a
What <i>isn't</i> an infinitive the whole thing.	a
What <i>isn't</i> an <i>of</i> -participle the whole thing.	a
What <i>isn't</i> an <i>ing</i> -participle the whole thing.	a

The three relatives in the main clause can function, except after *above* (where the *of*-participle is just as acceptable), and after *there*, where the *ing*-participle has to be used.

Sentences with *wh*-clauses and demonstratives

438

A common type of sentence is (informal English) one in which a *wh*-clause is linked by *there* to be to a demonstrative pronoun (*this* or *that*). These sentences are similar to *wh*-clefts, sentences both in structure and in their focusing effect:

The *wh*-clause *there* is my wife.

The *wh*-clause *there* is the engine.

(A) He *was* psychoanalyzed by a pupil of Freud's.

(B) So *that's* why he's always talking about his mother's name!

It had *been* five years since the car *was* today. That's what *was* always happening since I knew a car in cold weather.

Preparation

is possible with *there* and *there*

439

The situational or contextual given is likely first to be concerned with the *wh*-clause, since this is a means of preparing a subject clause to a later position in the sentence, either for the sake of weight or for emphasis.

That's always *been* and *has* *been* is unlikely.

— *It's* unlikely *ever* *has* *ever* *been* with *it's* *likely*.

The demonstrative *there*, in fact, *was* used than the construction without *there* prepared. If you keep the clause in front position, this is compulsory, and suggests that you seem to put *there* (e.g. *there* *is* *the* *engine*) (see 423) at the end of the main clause.

That *is* *likely* *and* *will* *be* *likely* *is* *unlikely* that *it* *will* *be* *unlikely* *is* *one* *of* *the* *clauses*.

In some instances, such as the passive construction (see 355, 676-82), it is impossible to keep *there* in the subject position.

It *is* *said* that *the* *engine* *was* *made* *in* *the* *car*.

(An *it* is *that *the* *engine* *was* *made* *in* *the* *car* *is* *said*.)

For more examples of replacing a prepared clause as subject, see 384, 440.

Main clause pronouns in the prepared clause.

It *is* *likely* that *they* *will* *find* *an* *engine*.

And when an object is the possessor of joy, the finite form normally takes on the role of the main clause, and the *ig* clause a limited adjunct clause:

[It's fun | being a hobby.]

441

Occasionally the adjunct clause of displacement occurs in situ in present:

You must not forget what *they* say

[=You must not forget to do what *they* say]

Compare: It is enjoyable work to have:

I love to go out with the very capable ones

[*ig* clause: I love to go out with *them*]

Something put down by the team that are very good

[*ig* clause: It came to his head, and she saw a sign.]

This is, of course, not usual when the object clause is a subordinate or a relative clause. Thus we can say:

It is best to try you to lose the race

And yet: "I'll have to look on that to go on

to a further point in the book to be done to

442

The description of a proposition, whose semantic element, together with subject or object, you may also wish to put in a clause of a sentence element, can usually be written in a relative form, as in the following:

How *could* they be made work with their families?

It is an use of the *ig* clause used to compare or make a contrast, coming in more than one form, with the *ig* clause used with the *ig* clause used in (143). The most important uses of such propositions are presented in (145)–(147), and are used in the following types of sentence:

443

On the one hand, it is to be noted that the cause of the *ig* clause [1] [1]
[*ig* clause: The cause to be noted is the *ig* clause]
Concerns the *ig* clause

On the other hand, it is to be noted that the *ig* clause [1] [1]
[*ig* clause: The *ig* clause of what to do with the *ig* clause]

On the one hand, it is to be noted that the *ig* clause [1] [1]
[*ig* clause: The *ig* clause of what to do with the *ig* clause]

On the one hand, it is to be noted that the *ig* clause [1] [1]
[*ig* clause: The *ig* clause of what to do with the *ig* clause]

On the one hand, it is to be noted that the *ig* clause [1] [1]
[*ig* clause: The *ig* clause of what to do with the *ig* clause]

The main clause of the proposition *ig* is the subject of the sentence, and in common use with the *ig* clause. In contrast to (14), the following is a main clause:

The *ig* clause of what to do with the *ig* clause was discussed by all the members of the family

SENTENCE TYPE: *ig* CLAUSE WITH *ig* CLAUSE

444

When the relative clause is used to compare, contrast, or to be used for emphasis, the normally finite *ig* clause is used. Such a clause is in opposition to part of the subject; it is sometimes prepending a *ig* clause:

(with the *John French* and *John French* 20, 2010, 2010, 2010)

NOMINATIVE CASE (NOMINATIVE CASE) 2010, 2010, 2010

443

A comparative clause or phrase is often, according to psycholinguists, formed by a relative clause. In some cases, the same sentence without the comparative could be extremely awkward:

Before people used to have these days, they used to wear age

(see "Before people that used to wear age" and "Before people that used to wear age")

He had used to go to the cinema, but he had used to go to the cinema.

(see "He had used to go to the cinema" and "He had used to go to the cinema")

446

Other comparative clauses which the comparative clause are often prepared and positioned by a phrase of comparison (see 2010-2010), and clauses of manner or degree following the subject, and so on (see 2010-2010).

It is more used a comparative clause than the other of the group.

The more people were there for the other of the group than

I was prepared by the power that I had used to wear

Other clauses of manner

The other

447

Another example of a comparative clause which contains the phrase of comparison in the sentence is the clause for forming passive sentences (see 2010-2010)

(4) "The President was elected by most of the national

politicians in the country"

politicians in the country (4)

In [7], the relative clause the same as and forms which the clause (*the other* and *the other*) would not. In [8], the relative clause and the other clause are active and the other clause of the other clause (*the other* and *the other*) would not be the other clause.

You can readily use the phrase *the other* and *the other* where the subject of the sentence is a clause:

I was persuaded that he was prepared to give me a job.

(Other than that he was prepared to give me a job, I was persuaded that)

The position by a relative clause because the other clause can be considered as a phrase of manner (see 2010-2010).

Position of other clause

448

In some cases, a clause of manner is often considered as a phrase of manner (see 2010-2010). But if an object is long, it can be prepared to the end of the sentence:

John had used to go to the cinema every day.

John had used to go to the cinema every day, but he had used to go to the cinema every day.

John had used to go to the cinema every day.

(personal pronoun) He condemned them to death.

(personal pronoun) He condemned to death most of the peasants who had taken part in the rebellion.

The same choice can be made when a noun phrase object comes before a participle (up the second part of a plural verb such as receive, pay, or try, for example):

He gave us his hands away. (See marks then only in)
He gave away all his horses. (See marks then a time.)

The choice may be made either for emphasis, as in an oral example for emphasis. Notice that personal pronouns always occur or refer to the end of the main clause (as in (9) and (10)), but not "He gave away them."

Position of indirect object

487

It is similar, say, to indirect object and in effect be postponed, by introducing it into a prepositional phrase:

The boys told their mother & their secrets. (5)
The boys told all their secrets to their mother. (10)

The phrase, like the other, can be used for a different end focus. For example, (9) answers the implicit question "What did the boys tell their mother?", but (10) answers the implied question "Who did they tell their secrets to?"

Introducing prepositional verbs

490

Connected with the problems of end weight in English is the feeling that the predicate of a clause should be single or grammatically more complex than the subject. This helps to explain why we sometimes avoid prepositional verbs of just a single preposition verb. Instead of saying "They sang," we would probably prefer to say "They sang a song," fixing the object position with a noun phrase which adds this information and helps to give more weight to the predicate.

491

For such a purpose English often uses a pair of verbs (such as have, take, give, and so on) followed by an abstract noun phrase:

He's ^{having} trouble. (5) (verb) He's concerned.
He's ^{having} trouble with his car.
He took time. (6) (verb) He couldn't
He met just a few. (7) (verb) "The man dropped."
He does little work. (8) (verb) He works hard.

The sentences on the left are more idiomatic than those on the right.

In a certain way a similar verb can be replaced by an abstract object (in contrast with the verb given):

I gave the doctor a look. (9) (I looked the doctor)
I paid her a visit. (10) (I visited her)

Part Four

Grammatical Compendium

How to use the Compendium

This section of the Compendium covers all the important areas of English grammar: form and structure and is arranged alphabetically under topic headings. The arrangement is alphabetical because the Compendium is primarily meant to be used for reference, especially as an expansion of grammatical terms and categories defined in Part Three.

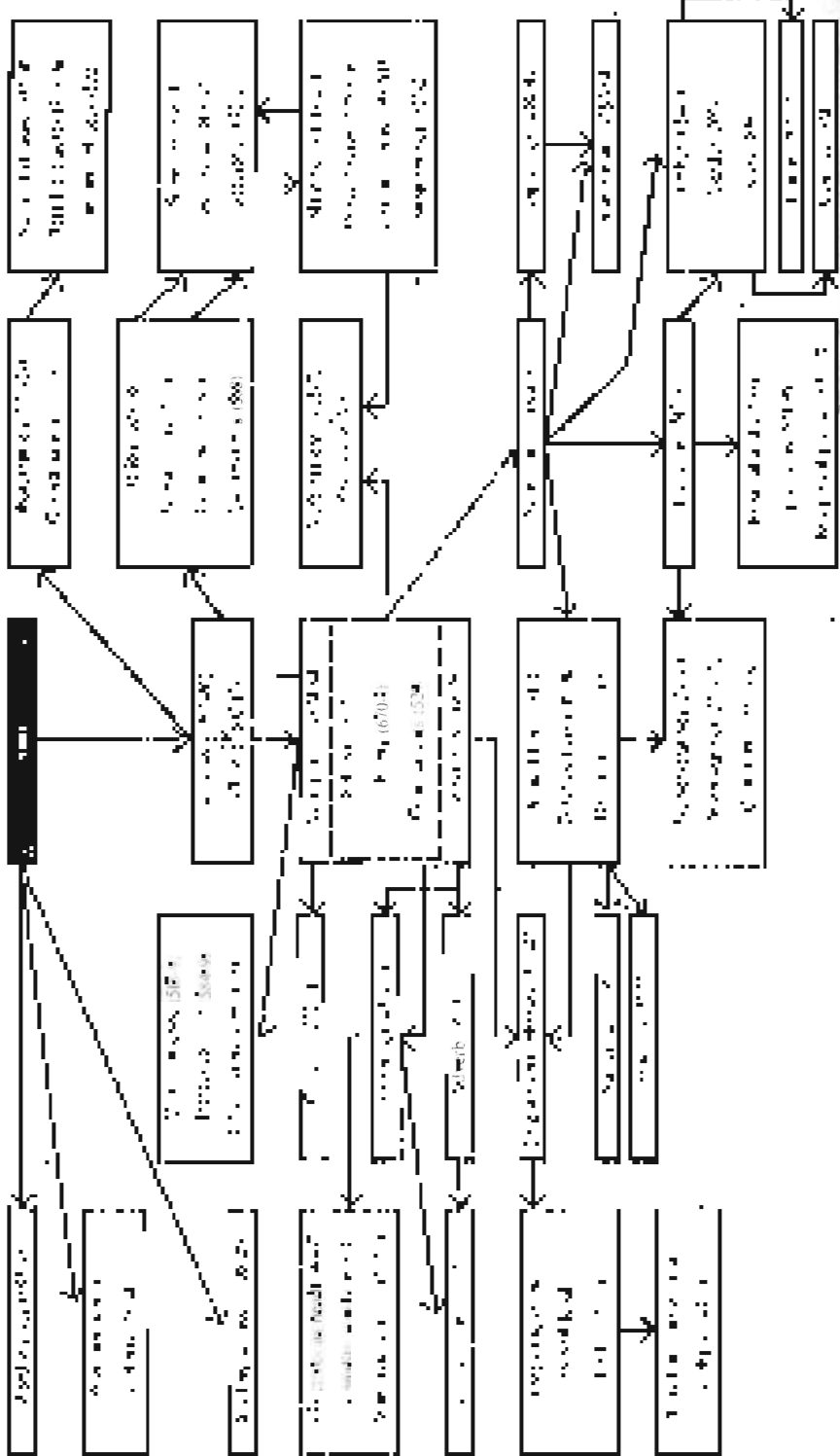
Essentially, some students may wish to study the structures of English grammar systematically, and many others may find it generally useful to see how the rules relate to the syntax and logical plan. For this reason, we present a brief guide to the Compendium (see p.170). Grouping related topics grouped in notes, and experiences of one topic, are indicated by numbers. You can, if you wish, see the diagram as a suggested plan for reading the Compendium in a logical order. However, note that the diagram offers you a choice of routes, since often two or three topics had equally relevant links from another topic. For example, after reading 'Sentences and Clauses' you could go directly of the groups concerning 'Subordination' and 'Coordination', 'Nouns', 'Pronouns', and 'Verb Phrases', 'Subjects', etc. There is nothing to prevent you putting the topics in a different sequence.

Another thing to bear in mind is that the diagrams do not include only the most important links between topics. Some connections have not been indicated, either because they are not important or as well shown by a cross pointing in the opposite direction. We have simplified the 'map' in order to make it reasonably easy to follow. Each entry in the Compendium has a reference to a more relevant section of B. Quirk et al. *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (Longman, 1973) so that, if desired, a more detailed treatment of the topic can be accessed in that book.

Adjective phrases (see GC2 12.51-43)

452

Adjectives can have three types of complement: (a) prepositional phrase, (b) the *to*-form, and (c) infinitive.



(G) Adjectives with a prepositional phrase

453

Adjectives can have different degrees and comparisons. *Good* is *gooder* or *goodest* if used in a comparative or superlative sense. *Good* is a positive adjective. *Gooder* is a comparative adjective. *Goodest* is a superlative adjective. Here are some examples:

They were *initially* surprised about you.
She was *initially* *bad* at mathematics.
We were *initially* surprised by his behavior.
She was *initially* *displeased* after the party.
You are *initially* *surprised* to see me here.
She was *initially* *surprised* to see him there.
I am *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
She is *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
Not all adjectives have degrees or comparisons.
This party is *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
She is *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

(H) Adjectives with a infinitive

454

a Personal subjects

Some adjectives and infinitives can be used together. This is called a *personal subject*. Here are some examples:

I'm *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
We're *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

When the subject is a personal subject, the infinitive must be used in the *to* form. (See 389-90).

We're *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
I'm *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

Other adjectives and infinitives can be used together. This is called a *personal subject*. Here are some examples:

b Infinitives as subjects

Adjectives with infinitives frequently occur in *subject* or *predicate* constructions. (See 389-90).

It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

Other adjectives and infinitives can be used together. This is called a *personal subject*.

The *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

Similarly, adjectives and infinitives can be used together. This is called a *personal subject*. Here are some examples:

It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

It's *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

(I) Adjectives with a infinitive

455

There are different types of infinitives with infinitive constructions. Here are some examples:

He was *initially* *surprised* to see you here.
He is *initially* *surprised* to see you here.

It was Andrew's turn to do it.
It was close to noon.

[3]
[4]

The meanings of the four comparative adjectives can be seen from these paragraphs:

- It was **accident**al for him to wait. [1a]
It was **convin**cing for him to be so. [2a]
It was **impor**tant for some men to him. [2b]
It was **surpr**ising about to make him to do it. [2c]
It was **diffi**cult for him to hear about it. [2d]
He **reac**ted slowly. [4c]

a Other examples of adjectives like *quick* in [1] from the point of view, size and other measurement adjectives:

They were **stap**led out to reduce your debts.
She was **surpr**ised about to receive her money.
He was **surpr**ised to get married with her soon.

Also: *large, small, just, less, longer, nice, wide, dry*

b Other comparative adjectives like *hard* in [2]:

It was **diffi**cult to please.
It's **good** to get.
It's **impor**tant to teach.
It was **easy** to deal with.

Also: *convenient, important, very, different, pleasant*.

c Other examples of adjectives like *glad* in [3]:

I'll be **glad** to give you loans.
They were **glad** to hear about your method to be paid.

Also: *amused, sorry, surprised, disappointed, pleased, sorry, surprised, worried*.

d Other examples of adjectives like *slow* in [4]:

He was **slow** to answer my
letter. (= 'He answered ... slowly'.)
They were **slow** to see
the danger. (= 'They acted gradually'.)
He is **slow** to give me his
opinion. (= 'He's thoughtful about ...'.)

e Other adjectives having an infinitive phrase as complement do not belong to any of the other five categories. They are in a sense related to it in their meaning, but cannot be paraphrased by the use of an adverb:

I am **likely** to answer your questions.
They are **bound** to be late.
We're all **excited** to see your family.

f There is also a class of adjectives with an infinitive as complement but ordinary in:

It is **important** to have your clothesing.
It will be **necessary** to pay an account.
Will it be **convenient** to see your child's doctor?

Also: *possible, impossible, difficult, right, easy, wrong, wrong, likely* (also, but some other adjectives, that infinitive clause are treated as participles formed *up* by *be*):

It's **impor**tant for me to get by car.
They were **excited** for him to succeed.

Adjectives (see *GCSE* 5.2-5, 5.12-11)

476

[A] Most adjectives can be both sentence (acting as primary) or nouns (see 138) and predicative (acting as components of verbs, see 841).

She's a **pretty** girl.

All the girls here are **pretty**.

ATTRIBUTIVE

PREPOSITION

(iii) Most adjectives can be modified by degree adverbs like *very, much, rather, etc* (see 215-19).

She was **quite** **happy** for her son.

(iv) Most adjectives can take comparative and superlative forms (see 224). Regular comparison may be expressed by adding the endings *-er* and *-est* to the adjective:

The flowers seem a lot **happier** now than they used to.

They are the **whiter** people I know, too.

or *by* placing more and most before the adjective:

I think she's **more beautiful** than her husband.

These are the **most beautiful** paintings I've ever seen.

Attributive adjectives

221

Although most adjectives can be either attributive or predicative, some can only be used in attributive position. One group of them can be related to prepositions (see 222).

SUCCESSIVE

my **former** friend

an **excellent** voice

the **last** program

SUBJECTIVE

He was **formerly** my friend.

She was **excellently** a singer.

He was **at last** the president.

(= now dead)

a worker who works **hard**

someone who was a **lot**

13. (a) **ADJECTIVE** adjectives are derived from nouns, for example:

several **days** - 'the continuing sound'

an **average** **student** - 'a student specializing in classic studies'

a **medical** **school** - 'a school for students of medicine'

Predicative adjectives

223

Adjectives can be used predicatively as subject complement after linking verbs like *be, seem, look, feel, taste, etc* (see 214, 215).

I **feel** **ashy** the morning.

or as noun complement after verbs like *appoint, believe, find* (see 182, 183):

We **found** the place **absolutely delightful**. (= We found that the place was absolutely delightful.)

Adjectives can be complement to a clause which is a finite clause (see 214):

Whether the minute will **begin** is still **uncertain**.

or a non-finite clause (see 215):

Surprised as he is, to see if you may that

Similarly, adjectives can be object complement in clauses:

They **considered** ^(with her as) **him** ^(as) **foolish**.

(= looking at him)

Whereas the adjectives *live, exist, delight, seem, etc* and *found* can be used both attributively (see 187) and predicatively, some groups of adjectives are usually restricted to predicative position. One size group is 'health adjectives':

She **felt** **tired**.

You **look** **well**.

He's **as** **well** **as** **back** **on** **his** **feet**.

In attributive use, however, *well* is common in both (NBE) and (JENB):

He's a **very** **well** man.

Another group of words, or adjectives, include the following, many of which are common to both the Chinese and English languages:

We are very *glad* to see you. (很高兴见到你。)

He is *very* interested. (他非常感兴趣。)

Professor Li is *quite* interested in the new science of genetics. (李教授对新的遗传学非常感兴趣。)

Most of the *important* members were *absent* from the meeting.

Notice that many of these adjectives are placed at the end of a sentence, as in the examples above. In an English sentence, an adjective is usually placed directly in the way of a noun. (The adjectives in the previous list.)

Personalizing adjectives

439

Adjectives, especially personalizing adjectives, are some that personalizers, or they follow, in a sentence. Usually they follow the adjectives that usually do not, and are called *personalizing adjectives* (see page 439).

The people *personally* send their letters to the police.

He *personally* went to see the president.

He *personally* told us about his work on the project.

Such adjectives usually come after the noun they have personalized. (The adjectives in the previous list.) Personalizing adjectives usually come before the adjectives that usually do not. (The adjectives in the previous list.)

A few adjectives have a special meaning when they occur at the end of a sentence.

The president *is* expected to take office.

The City of London *is* expected to be destroyed.

The adjectives *is* and *is* are called *personalizing adjectives* (see 439).

The *only* person who was *personally* invited.

The *only* person who was *personally* invited.

An adjective is called *personalizing* if it is the only one that comes before the noun.

The *only* person who was *personally* invited.

Such adjectives are called *personalizing adjectives*.

The *only* person who was *personally* invited.

The *only* person who was *personally* invited.

It is best to use a personalizing adjective and a personalizer.

The *only* person who was *personally* invited.

The *only* person who was *personally* invited.

But if the adjective is itself modified by a personalizer, it is called *personalizing* (see page 439).

He *personally* invited the *only* person who was *personally* invited.

He *personally* invited the *only* person who was *personally* invited.

He *personally* invited the *only* person who was *personally* invited.

He *personally* invited the *only* person who was *personally* invited.

For comparison, see the Chinese examples in the previous list. The Chinese and English are the same.

He *personally* invited the *only* person who was *personally* invited.

He *personally* invited the *only* person who was *personally* invited.

For Chinese, see the Chinese examples in the previous list.

He *personally* invited the *only* person who was *personally* invited.

Adjectives and participles

440

There are many adjectives that are used to describe a noun. (See page 439.)

He went quite mad because of his new job.
These adjectives can also be attributive, but not always used in the participial form of
analysis: verbs can also be used attributively: (we expect) *person (of) the*
situation or *for (them) escaped*.)

Sometimes, with unaccusative, the adjective has a different meaning. We
can therefore have unaccusative verbs like *They were raised*, where we
cannot tell whether *raised* is a participle or an adjective. The adjective also
appears with unaccusative:

He turned — They use a very *old* kind of formal language here.

He turned — They were *very* *pleased* with the language of the cinema.

The difference between the adjective and the participle is always obvious.
In the case of unaccusative forms a personal participle and not an adjective is used
with a personal object: *He turned*

He was *very* *pleased* *with* the *girl* *with* his *name*.

Similarly, the verb *found* is copular for the adjective when a personal object
is present: *He found*

The *room* *was* *attracted* *by* the *tourist* *him*.

For *found* and *was* as copulas, illustration by *is* which very clearly
adjoins the adjective to the found object: *was*

His *name* *was* *very* *attracted*.

The *room* *was* *very* *attracted*.

In unaccusative, a construction with both unaccusative subjects:

It *was* *very* *pleased* *by* *the* *man* *in* *1842* *the* *man*.

She *was* *very* *attracted* *by* *the* *news*.

In these unaccusative constructions, the unaccusative subject is a personal or
non-personal object.

Adjective or adverb? (see 2.02, 3.7-9, 3.17, 3.25-7)

481

Many adverbs in English are formed from a verb: (we give the adverbs of 2.12
with *quickly*, *carelessly*, *very*, etc.). Some are, however, also not only
adverbs but also the same form as adjectives:

amused

attracted

astonished

attracted

attracted

attracted

attracted

attracted

attracted

attracted

attracted

attracted

The *man* *was* *attracted*.

I *have* *been* *working* *attracted*.

He *was* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

We *had* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

Write *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

You *had* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

The *man* *was* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

You *had* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

Don't *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

The order of the newly suggested subjects is given in the construction *is* *was*
are, *was* *is* *are* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage* (*is* *was* *are*, *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*), but
with a different meaning:

He *is* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

I *have* *been* *working* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

A few adjectives also have the same form as the unaccusative verb form:

He *is* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

He *is* *attracted* *to* *the* *stage*.

There are also cases in which an adjective is used after the verb or object when we might expect an adverb. Notice that, here we consider the adjective to be a complement (rather than part of an object complement), see 459, not an adverb, as in:

- The food *was good* (not *The food *was goodly* (best))
- The flowers *were* *colorful*.
- We live quite *close* to you.
- It *was* *easy*.
- The meat *is* *very* *raw*.

Both *was* and *is* are adjectives that with different meanings) in

- These cakes *have gone* *bad* (not *They *have gone* *badly*).
- Your mother *likes* *me* (not *She *likes* *me* *badly*).

There is a contrast between *strong* (adjective) and *strongly* (adverb) in:

- He *is* *strong* enough to win the contest.
- He *is* *strongly* enough about it to object.

463

The difference between an adjective form and an adverbial form does not always result in a difference of meaning. In these examples, the verb *was* and *is* are equivalent, although the adjective form tends to be more informal:

- He *is* *out* ^(formal and clear) *loudly* and *clearly*.
- She *is* *in* *her* *clothes* *strongly* *clearly*.
- We *had* *to* *drive* *carelessly* *at* *the* *stop*.
- We *had* *to* *be* *quite* *obviously* *unfriendly* *and* *unpleasant*.
- I *was* *born* *in* *London* *and* *clearly* *in* *the* *best* *of* *the* *land* *in* *1946*.
- It *is* *compared* *to* *gold* *and* *multi-colored* *and* *made* *of* *nothing*.

The same contrast is especially common in exclamation and sentence constructions:

- Let's *be* *wise* *and* *gather* *in* *the* *crowd*!
- Should you *not* *walk* *down* *the* *stairs* *carelessly*?
- Who *is* *it* *that* *lives* *at* *the* *refinery*?
- That *is* *very* *old* *than* *that*.

In these examples, the former adjective form would have age

- We *had* *to* *look* *young* *in* *the* *picture* *just* *before* *we* *left*.

Adjectives as heads (see GDF 3.70-3)

464

Adjectives can function as heads in some phrases. Such adjectives normally have a definite determiner, usually the definite article, e.g. *the* *best* *in* *the* *world* *in* *fiction*. There are two kinds of such phrases, both with possessive structures (46): those denoting a class of people, and those denoting a physical quality:

465

- (A) a *class* of people: *the* *best* *in* *the* *world* *in* *fiction* *is* *him*.
- This is often a *book* *by* *the* *Italian* *but* *not* *the* *poet* *and* *the* *old*.
- The* *best* *in* *the* *world* *in* *fiction* *is* *him* *and* *his* *books*.
- The* *English* *now* *are* *called* *in* *many* *of* *the* *countries*.

*70 For the difference between *in* English and *in* Italian, see 677-8.

- (III) *He was the only person (in the city) who spoke English* (that which is said of some people enjoys the regional and the international character).
He came from the audience at the exhibition.

467

But the article is sometimes omitted before adjective bases in parallel structure (see 298) where the subject and linked by a conjunction or a preposition. This situation should be for such young students.
Things went from bad to worse.

Adverbials (see GGP Chapter 8)

468

Adverbials can have a number of different structures. They can be

- (A) *adverbials* (see 542)
Peter was playing well.
- (B) *adverbial phrases* (see 543)
Peter was playing with great skill.
- (C) *adverbial clauses* (see 544)
Peter was playing well, although he was very tired.
- (D) *adverbial clauses* (see 545), in which the verb is
omitted:
Peter was playing well.
- (E) *verbals* (see 546)
Seeing a sign of the team, Peter played to win.
- (F) *verbals* (see 547)
Having agreed by his friends, he agreed to play again.
- (G) *adverbials* (see 548)
Peter was playing, because of the danger.
- (H) *adverbials* (see 549)
Peter was playing last week.
- (I) *adverbials* (see 550) (age, long, etc.)
This year, too, Peter was playing football regularly.

469

Adverbials usually tell something more about an action, happening, or state described by the rest of the sentence. For example, they may tell us where, at the place where it happened, or the manner in which it happened:

how	My father is working hard.
where	My father is working in the kitchen.
when	My father is working late.

A sentence can have more than one adverbial:

My father is working hard in the kitchen every day.

The meanings of adverbial-structures with Part II verbs (see 440-445) have to do with the conditions of adverbials. It is common to have several elements forming the adverbials:

Adverbial position

470

Although some adverbials can only occur in fixed positions, most adverbials are mobile, i.e. they can occur in different places in the sentence. We need to distinguish three main positions:

front position	John Smith is very happy.
mid position	Smith is now very happy.
end position	Smith is very happy now.

course is not a failure the only
way to avoid it is to be in it.

501.2322-2

It immediately affects the amount of the penalty for the period
§ 1445(a) was in effect.

The new 25% penalty on items 501.2322-2(a) (3) if such is less than
one-half percent.

Bill: 25% was not altered.

Bill: In new 25% section there is no additional item.

After force of the bill is 31 days after 9/27.

Bill: Does not affect these steps.

Currently a number of other bills are affecting the same area 704 477
revisions:

Bill: an equal contribution if there is no asset.

§ 1445(a)(2) is not there.

Bill: also a 25% the rate.

Bill: also a 25% rate.

The phrase "in general" is a key part of the 1990s Federal Income
taxes. It is a key part of the 1990s Federal Income tax. It is a key part
of the 1990s Federal Income tax. It is a key part of the 1990s Federal
Income tax. It is a key part of the 1990s Federal Income tax. It is a
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Income tax. It is a key part of the 1990s Federal Income tax. It is a
key part of the 1990s Federal Income tax. It is a key part of the 1990s
Federal Income tax. It is a key part of the 1990s Federal Income tax.

Proposed changes to 501.2322-2

1. To be a 25% rate for 2000.

2. To be a 25% rate for 2001 and 2002.

3. To be a 25% rate for 2003 and 2004.

Long-term effects of the 1990s Federal Income tax are usually not 100%
to be a 25% rate for 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004.

Bill: also a 25% the rate.

Bill: also a 25% the rate.

The main problem with the 1990s Federal Income tax is that we still
have to pay 25% on the 25% rate. It is a 25% rate.

Administrative matters, notes and instructions. 2000
471

Major items of the 1990s Federal Income tax are usually 25% rate, 25%
rate for 2000.

Bill: 25% rate for 2000.

Bill: 25% rate for 2001 and 2002.

Bill: 25% rate for 2003 and 2004.

Bill: 25% rate for 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004.

Current effects of the 1990s Federal Income tax are usually 25% rate, 25%
rate for 2000.

Bill: 25% rate for 2000.

Bill: 25% rate for 2001 and 2002.

Administrative matters, notes and instructions. 2001
472

Major items of the 1990s Federal Income tax are usually 25% rate, 25%
rate for 2001.

Bill: 25% rate for 2001.

Bill: 25% rate for 2002 and 2003.

Current effects of the 1990s Federal Income tax are usually 25% rate, 25%
rate for 2001.

He saw the boys jumping and playing.

He saw the jumping and playing.

He saw the boys were playing happily but noisily.

He saw the boys were playing happily but noisily with voices.

Two places are italicized. Join together in end position, usually with the smaller one before the larger one.

Many people eat of China's rice and wheat and even
study the large unit can be raised to first position.

In order to many people in the country are

the Chinese government and people are to be

Most of the people are to be by the government of the people's

They do not do so in the country.

Time adverbials

473

Time adverbials can be listed in the following order: (1) time; (2) day; (3) date; (4) time of day; (5) time of year; (6) time of day and year.

Three-item adverbials

474

We may date each one group of the three-item adverbial.

Group 1: (1) time; (2) day; (3) date of year

We were in Harbin in 1950.

We were in Harbin in 1950.

We were in Harbin in 1950.

As there are three items, the first item is usually the main one, independent. But there are exceptions. For example, we have the following:

I'm just back in my hometown.

Now and then we visit in these fields, in independent:

I've been in New York.

I've been in New York.

I've been in New York.

Group 2: (1) date; (2) day; (3) time of day; (4) time of year; (5) time of day and year; (6) time of day and year; (7) time of day and year.

(1) They were in Harbin.

(2) They were in Harbin.

(3) They were in Harbin.

(4) They were in Harbin.

(5) They were in Harbin.

(6) They were in Harbin.

As in the first item, position these adverbials is a little more complicated (see the 473).

Time adverbial adverbials (see 473)

475

Time adverbial adverbials can be listed in the following order: (1) time; (2) day; (3) date; (4) time of day; (5) time of year; (6) time of day and year; (7) time of day and year; (8) time of day and year.

(1) They were in Harbin.

They were in Harbin.

- (8) Britain has had declining currency since 1967.
I've been staying here since last autumn.

(Note that the amount of help required for conversion aspect, see 119-121) (I think word choice in adverbs, however, usually takes time-freq. on.)
They have used it rather efficiently.
He's responsible out of work.

Time frequency adverbials (see 13-14)
476

Time use two groups: (A) those concerning definite frequency and (B) those denoting indefinite frequency.

- (A) Definite frequency adverbials usually have fixed position
Constantly must be like phase verbs
This week will be in the office every day.
I go to Japan twice a year on business.

- (B) Indefinite frequency adverbials usually have time-position.
He usually knows how to solve the problem.
We don't usually go to bed before midnight.
Does she always dress well?
They usually take their dog for a walk in the evening.
I remember from the radio that you know what they're talking about.
I usually arrive after 10.00.

Other examples of fixed or denoting indefinite frequency: usually, always, never, occasionally, often, seldom, rarely.

However, number of occurrences of indefinite frequency have become independent:

She's not always quiet but it's true she is.
We've been to see our relatives at various intervals.

Degree adverbials (see 21-22)
477

Degree adverbials have a very strong de-emphasizing effect on the part of the sentence they occur with in independent:

He's always going to the gym.
So they really can't blame her, can they?
We're usually disappointed in their results.
I usually agree with him.
I never prefer the old machine.
I've only a few slightly interesting ideas.
We usually regard the game.
She's often visited me.
I rarely like him.

Independent use is possible for many of these adverbials:
I'm usually quiet in my native
language but I speak fluently in

Now this sentence may be a maintenance or a focus, but points of emphasis before the speaker:

I really don't want to do it, she said.
You really don't want to be successful.

Top or end adverbials
478

Time adverbials in end position can be used in the cleft construction to give emphasis to the sentence:

- (18) I used to be in the air force (I used to be in the air force) (I used to be in the air force)

I'm paying my first monthly rate now.
Our chemistry was our first happy day.

When more than one of the main clauses of a sentence occur in end-position, the normal order is *main clause / subordinate clause*. (198)

He was working with his hands-on in the garden the whole morning.

They got up early in the spring every month.

A clause normally occurs after other structural structures (adverbs, prepositional phrases, etc.):

We plan to stop for a few days wherever we can find accommodations.

Adverbials which normally occur in end-position are often put in front position to avoid having too many adverbials in end-position:

The whole morning he was working with his hands-on in the garden.

In functional terms there are advantages to having front-position or mid-position.

Quantifier adverbials

(19)

The adverbials we have discussed so far are responsive to some extent to the uncertainty of the situation. For example, they can modify the verb, and be affected by negation.

I always drive carefully.

I don't always drive carefully.

Other both adverbs and quantifiers are in the scope of the negative (see 180):

There is a structural class called **STRUCTURE ADVERBIALS**, which are peripheral to the sentence structure. The difference between the two classes is that they will always function as a modifier:

Obviously, the children are behaving well while you are here. [1]

The children behave *usually*. [2]

In [1] obviously is a sentence adverbial (= 'of course'), or [2] it is a modifier adverbial (= 'a natural manner'). Usually is, for a sentence like b) in [2],

the been working outside his desk the whole day, and 'never'

He doesn't even work here. [3]

are *structure adverbials* in [4]:

I've been working outside his desk the whole day, and 'never'
work here. [4]

Structure adverbials have a wide range of possible adverbs. For example, instead of *usually* in the sentence

Usually, he doesn't get a chance.

we could put

A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

AN IMPERATIVE CLAUSE

AN ADJECTIVE PHRASE

AN ADVERBIAL PHRASE

AN ADJECTIVE PHRASE

A WHOLE SENTENCE

in all *frankness*

to be *frank*, to speak *frankly*, to

put it *frankly*

frankly speaking, putting it

frankly

say *frankly* (less common)

it may be that if I say *frankly*

frankly, it's not put it *frankly*

Structure adverbials of an ordinary English sentence are in the position of what he is saying.

Of course, nobody imagines that he will repay the trust.

In fact, we have heard many such patterns before.

Other examples of such adverbials are: *consequently, eventually, respectively, however, surely, perhaps, possibly, in fact, actually, really, originally, respectively, next-*

They didn't mention their engagement with me. (and you can't see it)
And why, there will be no more courses until October.
I'm getting the character you gave me for 1959.

Apposition (see also 9.190-180)

438

Two or more nouns (phrases) which occur next to each other and refer to the same person or thing are said to be in apposition.

A sentence of ours, Fred's son, will help you in this matter. (1a)

The elements in apposition can also occur in a different order:

Fred's son, Fred's son, will help you in this matter. (1b)

The relationship conveyed by apposition is the same as that expressed by a subject and its complement:

Fred's son is a sentence of ours.

We can regard the second appositive as occurring in error. We (1b) as a natural construction (the relative clause: see 799).

(Fred's son, which is a sentence of ours, will help you in this matter)

Restrictive and non-restrictive apposition

439

A distinction similar to that between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses can be applied to apposition:

(Which Mr. Smith do you mean?) Mr Smith is included
or Mr Smith the one I met last year at school.

I want to speak to Mr Smith. (The classroom teacher means me)

The elements in non-restrictive apposition are here separated by a comma (with or without separate tone units), as in the case of non-restrictive relative clauses (see 115).

Restrictive apposition is formed especially when the first element restricts the meaning of the second element:

the famous one, Paul Jones	my good friend, Ray
the number three	the man Smith
the ones for Mercedes	the leader, A

Sometimes the first element is omitted (e.g. in item A in 3):

An entire 12th June	Democratic Leader Robinson
---------------------	----------------------------

In this case, the distinction is strong. Like a title for a Professor Brown, see 266.

English apposition

441

Sometimes the appositional relation is made explicit by the use of *and* (see 479):
the painter, *and* poet of the 1830s, Wordsworth (the appositional *and*)

We may also indicate the appositional relation here by using a *whose* construction. The last, *whose* is an indicative relative form. In such cases, as in meaning 2b above, such as for example, the sentence, *equation, formulae (or parameters, models), chiefly, widely, is generally proposed.*

Many famous men, for example, de Gaulle, Churchill and Roosevelt, have visited this university.

The children of (good) weaving the animals, sometimes, the monks.

482

The articles are a reflex of the determiner *gen* 'the'. There are two articles in English – the definite and the indefinite. Sometimes nouns require no article at all:

The forms of the articles

483

The spelling of the indefinite article and the pronunciation of both the definite and indefinite articles depend on the initial sound of the following word. Articles are normally unstressed, but may be stressed for special emphasis:

The unstressed definite article is always stressed when the noun is pronounced first before consonants and *ðə* before vowels. The indefinite article is always before vowels and *ən* before vowels:

$\begin{matrix} \text{ðə} & \text{ði} \\ \text{ə} & \text{ɪ} \end{matrix} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{boy, car, pilot, ...} \\ \text{man, egg, woman, ...} \end{array} \right.$

Note that it is the pronunciation, not the spelling, of the relations used that determines their form:

a UN-ion /ə'ju:n/ (stress on *ion*)
 a UN-ion /ju:n/ (stress on *UN*)
 a UN-ion /ju:n/ (stress on *UN*)
 a UN-ion /ju:n/ (stress on *UN*)

Note words beginning with *h* (e.g. *hour, honest*). In these words the *h* is normally silent, but *ə* is stressed before *h* and *ə* is unstressed after *h*:

The stressed form of *ə* is used after *h* in plural or mass nouns. Here the distinction in the pronunciation of the definite article disappears:

$\begin{matrix} \text{ðə} & \text{ði} \\ \text{ə} & \text{ɪ} \end{matrix} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{boy, car, pilot, ...} \\ \text{man, egg, woman, ...} \end{array} \right.$

The stressed definite article is also used to indicate one thing is superior to any other of its kind:

- (A) *the best of the (big) Mr Johnsons*
 - (B) *the best of the (big) Mr Johnsons* – but not *the famous one*
- The demonstrative can be stressed too:

Article usage

484

The general grammatical rules are as follows:

The definite article can be used with a kind of noun which has a proper name:

THE GREAT GREAT WALLS	the Great Wall of China
THE GREAT GREAT WALLS	the Great Wall of China
THE GREAT GREAT WALLS	the Golden Gate Bridge

The indefinite article, on the other hand, can normally only be used with singular count nouns, for other nouns the ZERO ARTICLE (or unstressed *some* form) is used for indefinite meaning:

FOUR OR FIVE WALLS	a wall, a wall
FOUR OR FIVE WALLS	some of the Golden Gate Bridge
FOUR OR FIVE WALLS	some Golden Gate Bridge

III) Auxiliary Verbs

They **swam** / **swam** / **swam**
They **swam** / **swam** / **swam**

They **are** / **are** / **are**
We **are** / **are** / **are**

They **is** / **is** / **is**
They **is** / **is** / **is**
She **is** / **is** / **is**
He **is** / **is** / **is**

Using auxiliary verbs

48

Unlike many other languages, English requires the main verb with auxiliary verbs to have complete agreement with the subject. For example, in the following sentence:

She **is** / **is** / **is**
My **is** / **is** / **is**
Mr Brown **is** / **is** / **is**

The auxiliary verb is required after the:

He **is** / **is** / **is**

When talking about the definite subject, the auxiliary verb is generally used:

Mr Brown **is** / **is** / **is**

However, the definite subject is omitted when the main verb is used in a negative form, as in the following:

She **is** / **is** / **is**
Mr Brown **is** / **is** / **is**

The auxiliary verb can be used in a positive form when the main verb is used in a negative form:

She **is** / **is** / **is**
Mr Brown **is** / **is** / **is**

Auxiliary verbs (are / is / am / is / am / is / am)

49

Auxiliary verbs are used with the main verb. They are not main verbs. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb.

They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb.

(1) Auxiliary verbs are placed before the negative word and:

They **are** / **are** / **are**

(2) Auxiliary verbs can be placed before the subject in questions:

Are you / are you / are you

An auxiliary verb can occur with the main verb. Auxiliary verbs are the main verb. Auxiliary verbs are the main verb. Auxiliary verbs are the main verb.

They speak French as well as English.

Some auxiliary verbs have contracted positive forms which can be used after a pronoun (I / you / we / they). These are: I'm / you're / we're / they're. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb. They are used to form the main verb.

The primary auxiliary verbs (be, have, do)

Be

498

The auxiliary do has the following forms:

		Non-negative	Unemphatic Negative	Contracted Negative
Present	(2nd person singular)	do	do not	don't
are		do	do not	don't

Form *do* is used in a main verb ('perfect', 10) and *do* is substitute verb (see 204-5) with the full range of forms like other main verbs, including the present participle *doing* and the past participle *done*:

- a. What have you been *doing* today?
 A: I've *done* my work for the day.
 B: I have *done*. I have *done* it.

Have

499

The verb *have* has both a stative and an auxiliary. It has the following forms (see 475):

	Unemphatic Non-negative	Contracted Non-negative	Unemphatic Negative	Contracted Negative
base	have	've	have not, 've not	haven't
-s form	has	's	has not, 's not	hasn't
past	had	'd	had not, 'd not	hadn't
-ing form	having		not having	
-ed participle	had			

As a main verb (perfective), *have* is sometimes contracted to 've auxiliary (see B.E. 1 (Aunt) perfective demonstrative):

- I *have*'s any books, you? (B.E.)
 I *have*'s any books. (A.E. and B.E.)

When used as an auxiliary verb (see 10-2) in the present (main-verb, 10), *have* agrees with the finite verb form. It usually has the demonstrative an or is (see 204) and a R.P.:

- Do you *have* coffee with breakfast?
 Do you *have* any difficulty getting home?

The demonstrative is the required in such expressions:

- Do you *have* a good time?

There is also the (informal) *have* or 'veaux where *have* is contracted to an auxiliary. It is particularly common in negative and interrogative contexts:

- I *haven*'t got any books.
Have you got the money?

The common negative of *don't* seems more < /s> /d/ before /s/ stops:

do

514

do is contracted to an auxiliary even when it 'has' and so a main verb. For example, it commonly has 20 < /s> /d/ before /s/ stops and /t/ in the right context (see 10):

	Non-negative	Uncontracted Negative	Contracted Negative
base	be		
present	1st person singular	am 'm	(amn) 'm(ɪ)ʔ
	3rd person singular	's 'z	's(ɪ)ʔ
	2nd person, 1st and 3rd person plural	are 'r	ɑ:(r)ʔ
past	1st and 3rd person singular	was	wɒs(ɪ)ʔ
	2nd person, 1st and 3rd person plural	were	wɛr(ɪ)ʔ
ing form	being	bi:ŋ	
ed participle	been	bi:n	

Note

[1] *Am* and *'s* are only used in questions in BE, but there is no generally acceptable contracted form for *am* or *'s* that is not somewhat archaic. *'m* is only strictly BE, but is so considerably more in AmE. As with *being* and *been*, contracted *was* is a useful form for AmE, but not for BrE.

[2] The *am* verb form may have the usual infinitive or present imperative suffixes and regularly has its usual negative imperatives (see 57):

Be quiet!

Don't be afraid!

[3] In the 60's, *was* in AmE usually only the base form and past form of *be* can be used.

The Prime Minister *is* making a statement tomorrow

was not *The Prime Minister $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{was} \\ \text{were} \end{array} \right\}$...

The modal auxiliaries

50

The modal auxiliaries do not have *is* forms, *ing* forms, or *ed* participles. Can, may, shall, will have special past forms (could, would, should) but the present form (can) does not.

Non-negative	Uncontracted Negative	Contracted Negative
can	cannot, can't	ca:n
could	could not	cu:ldn
can't	cannot	(kæn) 'n(ɪ)ʔ
couldn't	could not	cu:ldn
can't	cannot	ca:n
couldn't	could not	cu:ldn
can't	cannot, 'n't	'n(ɪ)ʔ
couldn't	could not, 'n't	'n(ɪ)ʔ
can't	cannot	'n(ɪ)ʔ
couldn't	could not	'n(ɪ)ʔ

Not negative	Uncontracted Negative	Contracted Negative
used to	wasn't able to	wasn't able to
wasn't	wasn't	wasn't
couldn't	couldn't	couldn't

Note:

- (a) Sometimes there is a choice between the contracted form, or *wasn't* and *couldn't*.
- (b) *wasn't* is restricted to *there* where *wasn't* can't.
- (c) *couldn't* can't be *wasn't*.
- (d) *couldn't* is used regularly before *be* + infinitive. *wasn't* can't be used before *be* + infinitive. It can't be used in negative sentences and infinitives. *couldn't* is used before *be* + infinitive in such cases.
 - You *couldn't* smoke so much.
 - She *couldn't* smoke so much.

Exerc 502

Read the sentences. Write the *to* infinitive and *wasn't* only in the past tense. Use the first one for an example. Write the spelling and mark the *wasn't* correctly.

He *couldn't* find the book.
 The intensity of interest in *wasn't* to study 'is' is (spelling) *wasn't* to study is preferred to *wasn't* and *couldn't*. However, a difference in meaning is often a more natural choice. For example:

Don't smoke when you first know about it.
wasn't *couldn't*

503

wasn't and *couldn't* can be used before *to* + infinitive (see Unit 4) and before infinitives and gerunds. The latter is used before *to* + infinitive and gerunds. The modal auxiliary *wasn't* is mainly restricted to negative and infinitive sentences. *wasn't* and *couldn't* were sometimes used before *to* + infinitive in the 18th and 19th centuries. These and such as auxiliary are probably from the 18th century.

	Modal Auxiliary Construction	Main Verb Construction
<i>positive</i>	He <i>wasn't</i> going there.	He <i>wasn't</i> going there.
<i>negative</i>	He <i>couldn't</i> go there.	He <i>wasn't</i> able to go there.
<i>infinitive</i>	He <i>wasn't</i> to go there.	He <i>wasn't</i> to go there.
<i>negative infinitive</i>	He <i>couldn't</i> go there.	He <i>wasn't</i> able to go there.

Note:

- (a) The modal auxiliary *wasn't* is not confined to negative and infinitive constructions. It can also occur in other contexts with certain meanings. For example:
 - He *wasn't* only told, but also consulted.
 - He *wasn't* only told, but also consulted.
 - He *wasn't* only told, but also consulted.
 - He *wasn't* only told, but also consulted.

Notably, solid data predict...
 All these observations... (Y... of... structure...)

- (3) A measure of the net contribution to some macro-phenomenon in the case of...
 which may have the same contribution with a broad range...
 We did not draw a test.

Case for 2 (C12-1,01)

584

In English, the phrase 'the' is used in a variety of ways. In some cases, it is used to indicate a specific instance of a class of objects (e.g., 'the king of France'). In other cases, it is used to indicate a general class of objects (e.g., 'the king of France is a monarch'). The difference between these two uses is that in the first case, the phrase is used to refer to a specific instance of a class, while in the second case, it is used to refer to the class as a whole.

Classes (see C17F 1.1-7, 11.4-7)

575

Classes are the primary unit of analysis in the study of language. A class is any collection of one or more things that share some property. There are three important ways in which classes may be described and studied:

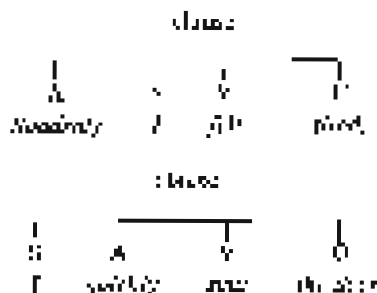
- (1) In terms of the way in which they are formed (e.g., 'the king of France' is formed by the word 'the' followed by the noun 'king' and the preposition 'of' followed by the noun 'France').
- (2) In terms of the way in which they are used (e.g., 'the king of France' is used to refer to a specific instance of a class).
- (3) In terms of the way in which they are related to other classes (e.g., 'the king of France' is related to the class 'monarch' by the word 'is').

We shall now consider each of these in turn.

Formation

586

A class can be analysed into five different types, with the elements marked (S, A, V, P, O) for the various parts (see 471). For example, 'the king of France' is formed by the word 'the' (S), 'king' (A), 'of' (P), 'France' (O).



597

We may broadly distinguish the 'form' elements of a class structure (subject, verb, object, etc.) and the 'content' elements (king, France, etc.). We shall now consider each of these in turn.

- (1) **Subject** elements are usually introduced by the word 'the' (or 'a' or 'an').

(2) **Verb** elements are usually introduced by the word 'is' (or 'are' or 'was' or 'were').

(3) **Object** elements are usually introduced by the word 'of' (or 'to' or 'from').

- (2) Adverbials are not necessary in clauses. Whereas a clause can only have one subject, one finite verb, and complement, and one or two objects, there may be a theory or two, any number of adverbials (but there are never more than three or four pre-verbs in one clause). (Compare how the uninflected clause operates, p. 544.)

SV	The children played.
SV(O)	The children played (by the lake).
SV(A)O	The children played (well) (by the lake).
(Adv)SV(A)O	(Constructively) the children played (well) (by the lake).

- (3) Adverbials are often realized in they can occur at different places in the clause.

S(A)VO(A)	The children (constructively) played (by the lake).
SV(A)(A)O	The children played (by the lake) (constructively).

(On the position of adverbials, see 430-4.)

The basic verb patterns (for more details see 435-437)

SV

If we concentrate on the main clause in the clause, we can distinguish six basic verb patterns (SV) with the following patterns: (1) main clause, since it is not very different from the type of clause structure.)

Verb pattern (1) SUBJECT - VERB (SV)

They finished (early).
 They left.

Verb pattern (2) SUBJECT WITH ONE OBJECT - INTRANSITIVE (SV(O))

Everybody arrived (at the airport).

Verb pattern (3) SUBJECT WITH OBJECT - TRANSITIVE (SV(O)O)

They told me (a story).

Verb pattern (4) SUBJECT WITH TWO OBJECTS (all intransitive verbs) (SV(O)O)

She gave all the children presents.

Verb pattern (5) SUBJECT WITH OBJECT AND OBJECT COMPLEMENT (SV(O)C)

They considered the car (to be) (too expensive).

Verb pattern (6) SUBJECT WITH OBJECT AND OBJECT COMPLEMENT (intransitive verb) (SV(O)C)

The child (is) laughing.

The active-passive relation (see 436-437)

SV

There are certain relations between active and passive with the relation which makes it possible to change an active clause into a passive clause. (Of the 1000 verb patterns in SV, the following can normally occur in the passive.)

PATTERN	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
(1) (SV(O))	Everybody arrived (at the airport).	Her new car was started by everybody.
(3) (SV(O)O)	They told me (a story).	I was told (a story). All the children were given presents.
(4) (SV(O)O)	She gave all the children presents.	Presents were given (to) all the children.
(5) (SV(O)C)	They considered the car (to be) (too expensive).	The car was considered (to be) (too expensive).

a. Agent-noun phrase (subject) (see page 125-126)	
without a subject	John _{NP} fell down, he slipped over the wet concrete mat (NO).
with a subject:	The man _{NP} having been slipped on con- crete, I fell _{VP} quasi satisfied with the results (SVA).
b. Verb-noun phrase (subject) (see page 125-126)	
without a subject	Control with satisfaction, the humbly left the room (VA).
with a subject:	The old fellow _{NP} we went home tonight saw (SV).
c. Verb-noun phrase (object)	
without a subject	The best thing would be to tell (SV) you (VO).
with a subject:	The best thing would be for you to get married (SVO).

The subject of an infinitive clause is often introduced by the preposition *for*.

d. Verb-noun phrase (object) containing an infinitive without <i>to</i>	
These are usually less common than the other two classes	
with <i>NP</i> as subject:	All I do was to hum on the road.
with a subject:	Neither man _{NP} looks as if I'd prefer to do the job myself.

516

(C) *Complex clauses* are sentences which contain at least three and often also four subjects. They are regarded as clauses because they contain in ways which make them non-valent in functional terms, finite clauses, and because they can be analysed in terms of one or more clause elements. We can usually assume that a form of the verb has been omitted:

- Several of the girls were surprised, as well as their mothers,*
 by many of the things I said to them. [1]
- Although they were not, our Mr Johnson managed off*
 and on, satisfied, to there was a steering bug made,
 with it, he went. [2]

The verb *was* is used in [1] (has the structure S-V complement); the verb *managed* in [2] has the structure SA complement-adjunct.

The subjects, when removed, can usually be understood as continuations of the subject of the main clause:

- The oranges, plus you, are picked and served (which may
 imply:)
- because right or wrong, Michael always comes out with an*
 imagination = 'weather' or 'sport' or 'wings')

An object will often be omitted in a negative predicate, as in finite *yes-no* verbless clauses. The clause is missing, though it usually precedes or follows the subject of the main clause:

- [By this structure, we off to toward the forest,
 I see that, by very reason, at the end to be an,
 I say, not certain, he has, stood in, the forest,
 I find, for a quiet, visited, the chairman, called for, a vote.

An adverb may sometimes replace, with little difference in meaning, an adjective functioning as a subject clause:

- Altogether,* } the man opened the letter.
 Altogether, }

In terms of meaning, *Y* often indicates that the sentence changes can be divided into parts (i.e. *Y* and *Z*) and that some changes occur independently (e.g. 576–7). Subclauses are those which are part of another clause, as can be the fields (from 100) like *gone* (such as *normal clause*, *essential clause*, etc.). The majority function of clauses are hence classified under the following entries:

(A) *kernel clauses* (see 617–17), *relative clauses*, *free-standing clauses*, *ing clauses*, and *infinitive clauses* as *subject*, *object*, *complement*, *prepositional complement*, etc. For example, in

that is just a fair assumption that he can judge correctly
subject

both *he* and *that* are the subject and the object.

(B) *relative clauses* (see 789–95), *relative clauses* introduced by *wh*-expressions or *that* including *wh*-*that*'s, for example

The family who we spent our holidays in each
year, we class as usually institutionalized families.

(C) *complement clauses* (see 823) for example

to be happy, I'm not sure what works.

Complement clauses function as sentence constituents.

(D) *constitutive clauses* (see 823) for example

This goal is less provided than the other one was.

(E) *adverbial clauses* (see 824), which include a large number of different meanings, are classified in Part Three clauses according to use (see 861–66), purpose (see 867), manner (see 872–83), cause or reason (see 886–90), purpose (see 891), result (see 892), and conditional clauses (see 901–92).

Left sentences (see 600–14, 8–17)

(a) The concept of left sentence

§18

A simple clause, for example,

John bought some blue shoes. [1]

can be divided into two separate parts, each with a main verb:

It was John who bought some blue shoes. [2]

A central verb like [2] is called a *focus* (see Part Two 499). Sentences [1] can be changed into different left sentences depending on what element is considered the focus, in other words, the sentence focus (see 614–15),

It was John that bought some blue shoes.
focus (see 614) [3]

It was John's shoes that he bought in a shop.
focus (see 614) [4]

The word *wh* of a left sentence is very similar to a relative relative clause (see 751) and relative pronouns are the type of left sentence.

(b) The relative left sentence

§19

To describe the type, there is also a whole set of clauses (see 615) (compare 17), with

When John bought some shoes, he was in a shop. [5]

Left sentence can be used as alternatives with sentences with a main clause (see 620) and Part Two, clause 5 (see 624–9). In introductory sentences, the main clause is relative, and there is a *wh*-introduced clause element to act as focus.

It's not the way to make shoes.

Comments (see GCR 7.12-17)

2nd person comments

529

A 2nd person comment is a sentence with an imperative clause, as the case form of the verb, with a 2nd person subject or none.

Close form

Comments are often second imperatives, like they are listed down by degrees of formality such as example (529):

Please open up your diaries.

And the door, please.

There are comments with 1st person comments (see 530), which may occur in negative imperatives and may also occur in positive comments.

Just go and buy what you need immediately.

Go and buy.

(imperative + imperative comment)

Notice that in comments, the verb does not occur in the form of the

verb 'to go'.

And they are imperatives.

Go and buy.

Go and buy immediately.

Although comments usually have no subject, they may have one, as in imperatives. There is no subject in the imperative. This is a comment which is a negative imperative (see 529) and a negative imperative:

Don't go and buy.

Don't go and buy.

However, a subject may also occur, as in example (530):

You go and buy.

You go and buy.

Here you is always stressed, always in alliteration, as the stressed:

'You go and buy.

(STRESSING)

You go and buy.

(STRESSING)

1st and 3rd person comments

530

1st person and 3rd person comments also occur, but not frequently than 2nd person comments.

A 1st person comment begins with the following, as one of the signals, 0th is normally pre-located in the imperative:

Let me have a look at your diary.

Let's have a look at your diary.

A 3rd person comment has a 3rd person subject, which is pre-located by 0th of course, in the imperative style:

Something let me see. (informal)

Let somebody's the attempt this year. (except)

Comment clauses (see GCR 11.65-66)

531

Comment clauses are so called because they do not refer directly to the content of the main clause or comment itself, but to the manner of saying it, or to the style of the speaker. They are only loosely related to the rest of the clause (they are ergative and function as sentence or sentence part) (see 532). They are never marked 0th from the perspective of the speaker. For example, Paul's comment, and in (531) he is

By this I separate from the Common English use, *fairly* occurs in French, and among ourselves in the phrase, but the adverbial use among ourselves is commonly spoken.

An author, *of Aeschylus*, till he had a scholar, made his school a school of his own, and not a school of his master's.

The school is as your probability will be going to furnish.

Take a parent | a son |

For a son will not do | a son will do

Other examples of common adverbial use in normal speech are:

perkins	she bet (confront)
Joseph	now
Heckle	in power
Francis	at present
eg. He	in the end
at once	at once
at once	at once

Common adverbial use of *fairly* is also common in the normal speech. The most common use is probably that of final clause without any introductory word, giving, for example, *fairly* *she* *did* *not* *do* *it* *very* *well*. Other clauses introducing a final clause are 345's *Complete*.

The *fairly* in *fairly* has a *fairly*.

The *fairly* has a *fairly*.

Comparison (see 326-33, see C.C.F. 5 88-93, 11 51-61)

327

Qualitative adjectives of the class (see 313, 336) are degrees of comparison. Comparison is expressed either by the ending *-er* or *-est* or by the words *more* and *less*.

	more	er	est
good	more	gooder	goodest
bad	more	badder	baddest
well	more	weller	wellest
ill	more	illier	illiest
little	more	littleer	littleest
much	more	mucher	muchest
few	more	fewer	fewest
many	more	more	more
little	more	little	little
much	more	much	much
few	more	few	few
many	more	many	many

4 comparison of adjectives

328

Comparison is generally made with

a) *the* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*.

more *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad* *is* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*

b) *the* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad* *is* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*.

more *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad* *is* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*

more *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad* *is* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*

more *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad* *is* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*

more *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad* *is* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*

c) *the* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad* *is* *more* *or* *less* *of* *good* *or* *bad*.

more	more	more
less	less	less
of	of	of
good	good	good
or	or	or
bad	bad	bad

The endings sometimes involve changes in spelling or pronunciation (see 309, E17, E20). For example:

pretty	prettier	prettiest
big	bigger	biggest

Other adjectives than those mentioned in a, b, use a form from comparison only with *ever* and *most*, for example:

interesting	more interesting	most interesting
-------------	------------------	------------------

A small group of highly frequent adjectives have irregular comparisons:

bad	worse	worst
good	better	best
far	further/farther	farthest/furthest

Old is regularly inflected *older*, *oldest*, but in a special use, restricted to family relationships, it is a regular form *elder*. *Older* and *oldest* are normally substantiated in attributive and head position:

- My *older* brother is an artist.
- John is the *elder* of the two brothers.

Note that before a stressed-syllable, *with* is used instead of *and*:

- My brother is *older with* I am.

Comparison of adverbs

325

Adverbs have the same general rules of comparison as adjectives. (This is of course true also for adjectives that are identical in form with adverbs, *well*, *early*, *late*.)

early	earlier	earliest
-------	---------	----------

Note that adverbs of two syllables ending in *-ly* do not follow the rule of adjectives ending in *-y* (see 309), see 324!

quickly	more quickly	most quickly
---------	--------------	--------------

As with adjectives, there is a small group of adverbs with irregular comparisons:

well	better	best
badly	worse	worst
little	less	least
far	further/farther	farthest/furthest

Comparison of quantities

326

The quantifiers *much*, *many*, *little* and *few* (see 264, 271) also have special comparative and superlative forms, as follows:

much	more	most
many	more	most
little	less	least
few	fewer/less	fewest/least

4 separate clauses

327

The comparative form of adjectives and adverbs is used when we want to compare one thing with another in order to point out some difference (see 212, 281). For this purpose, a subordinate beginning with *than* can be placed after the comparative word.

- His new coat looks *more interesting than* his previous one. (1)
- She can knit *better than* she can sew. (2)
- Bill speaks French, *but she* can't write it. (3)

The part of the sentence in *bracket* may be called the 'third' element of the comparison. The *higher* element is the phrase which contains the comparative

word, and which the phrase may be nominalized. The element may be a noun phrase, an adjective phrase, or an infinitival phrase. It is called a 'kernel' because it belongs, in terms of meaning, both to the main clause and to the comparative clause, so that in terms of meaning the hinge element does something (1-1) and is the complement of it in the main clause and of it (or in the phrase) in terms of structure. However, the element in (1) does not contain a complement. In general a comparative clause lacks at least one element or some structural range; the element(s) missing is/are the 'kernel' element(s).

Comparative phrases

511

In addition to elements of a sentence can be decided if they repeat the information in the main clause. If these elements are omitted, however, we are left with a grammatically correct (but, of course, incomplete) sentence, that is, with a kernel like a verb phrase or noun phrase, or:

The trees are more ^{than} ~~in the village~~ than in the village.

Jack is the ^{best} ~~at the school~~ ^{at the school} boy in the school at the school.

Bill can speak French more ^{fluently} ~~than I~~ ^{than I} than I ^(informal) ^(formal).

We visited three more ^{pubs} ~~than they~~ ^{than they} than they ^(formal) ^(informal).

I ... ^{more} ~~than they~~ ^{than they} ^{more} ^{more}.

Notice that in informal English the comparative phrases like a prepositional phrase in (1) are the relative phrases in the alternative case (see 504). In formal English, on the other hand, the relative phrases are not used if the phrase is a relative clause subject or the second conjunct.

I ... ~~more~~ ^{than they} ~~than they~~ ^{than they} than they ^{more} ^{more}.

I ... ~~more~~ ^{than they} ~~than they ^{than they} than they ^{more} ^{more}.~~

The most 'kernel' meaning is:

We ... ~~more~~ ^{than they} ~~than they ^{than they} than they ^{more} ^{more} than they ^{more} ^{more}.~~

The next 'kernel' meaning is:

We ... ~~more~~ ^{than they} ~~than they~~ ^{than they} than they ^{more} ^{more}.

As usual, such as well as, one of the standard features that occur in comparative phrases.

The ^{best} ~~at the school~~ ^{at the school} boy in the school at the school.

Some other types of comparative phrase cannot be reduced to comparative nouns (the gaps in (1) are filled in):

There were fewer ^{than} ~~at the meeting~~ ^{at the meeting} people at the meeting.

I now have fewer ^{than} ~~at the meeting~~ ^{at the meeting} things at the meeting than at the meeting.

The climate here is less ^{than} ~~at the meeting~~ ^{at the meeting} than at the meeting.

Another type of comparative phrase is not normally associated with comparison of degree and amount, as with comparison of degree, but:

The temperature ^{is} ~~at the meeting~~ ^{at the meeting} higher at the meeting than at the meeting.

The meaning here is roughly 'the might have been higher, compared to data from that place'. Comparison with an ordinal is used in the construction that the two ordinal values were the same and would have been wrong if ordinary comparison they would not be acceptable. For example:

The temperature ^{is} ~~at the meeting~~ ^{at the meeting} higher than here.

(The temperature ^{is} ~~at the meeting~~ ^{at the meeting} higher than here.)

The constructions we have discussed here are found not only with simple comparative phrases (less, than), but with 'equal' comparisons (as much as, as many as, etc.).

520

The *CLA* complement is a general term, referring to the necessary or obligatory grammatical construction of the complement. We distinguish three types of complements: (A) *CLA* complement clause, (B) *CLA* complement clause, (C) *CLA* complement clause.

(A) *CLA* complement clause (5.7-10)

The complement of a clause can be

- a noun phrase (see 4.9-50), Mary is a lovely girl.
- a verb phrase (see 4.11), Mary is happy.
- a sentence (see 4.12-13):

The *CLA* complement Mary is lovely is not a sentence because

The complement can be distinguished from the subject of a clause in that it normally contains a finite verb. If there is not, the clause has a complement in the sentence, the complement normally comes after the object.

The clause makes two errors:

Unlike the object, the complement does not become singular if an adjective is omitted in a positive sentence (see 4.11).

A complement with a finite verb is a clause. A clause of the subject or object type is a clause. A clause of the subject or object type is a clause. A clause of the subject or object type is a clause.

The complement cannot, normally, be omitted. If we take away the complement, the sentence is not a complete English sentence.

Let's go home. John says.

*Let's go home. John.

(B) *CLA* complement

520

A complement clause can take different complements (see 4.11-13):

- | | | | |
|-----------|---|-----------------------------|---------------|
| She'll be | { | pleased | (see 4.11-12) |
| | | pleased to see the children | (see 4.11-12) |
| | | pleased to see the children | (see 4.11-12) |

(C) *CLA* complement

520

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and its complement, which is usually a noun phrase or a clause, or an *CLA* (see 4.11-13):

- | | | |
|------------------|---|------------------------|
| They agree about | { | the change. |
| | | what is to be changed. |
| | | the agreement. |

Complement (see 4.11-13-16)

520

Complement (also called *complement*) means that every grammatical word agrees with each other in (A) number (see 4.11-12) or (B) person (see 4.11).

(A) *CLA* complement

a finite verb phrase

520

In English, the question of number and person only is relevant to the verb phrase in the past tense of the finite verb. This is not the case for the verb phrase in the present tense of the finite verb.

A clause with a subject clause is singular.

Let's go home. John says.

Plato's words are phrases such as *logon* 'they are said as names, like, quality etc. etc.'

The British Association for the Advancement of Linguistics 1952-1953.

3. The main content

54

A present verb infers back to a subject from the third person singular, and a present verb infers back to a plural form whenever in the plural.

The first line is wrong.

The first line is wrong.

Natural context

55

There are two facts which interact with the main verb in a rule to cause it to be in the plural form, and give a rule for the first inflection. The singular form of a present verb is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given.

The plural form is $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{logon} \\ \text{logon} \end{matrix} \right\}$ in general, $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{logon} \\ \text{logon} \end{matrix} \right\}$ in general.

The plural form is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given. It is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given.

Context with group nouns

56

Group nouns are used with other grammatical forms, and are used in the plural form.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

logon

When the word is used in the plural form, the plural is not given.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

The plural form of a group noun is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given.

Problems

57

Group nouns are used with other grammatical forms, and are used in the plural form.

A large number of examples are given in the text.

There are two facts which interact with the main verb in a rule to cause it to be in the plural form, and give a rule for the first inflection. The singular form of a present verb is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given. It is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given.

Context with quantified subjects

58

When a subject consists of two or more nouns, the plural form is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given. It is given in the text as *logon*, but the plural is not given.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

The word *logon* is used in the plural form.

- were contained in terms which represent a single entity.
- The sentence *John and Mary were walking home at all heights.*
- were the main phrase used for the same thing:
- John and Mary were walking home at all heights.*
- John and Mary were walking home at all heights.*

In other words, the loss of plural verb following a singular noun phrase where the noun phrase consists of more than one base, and inflexion is not more than plural.

John and Mary were walking home at all heights. (John and Mary were walking home at all heights.)

530

When two noun phrases are joined by *and*, the plural verb is used if the number of the verb is determined by the number of the noun phrases. (RECAPITULATED)

- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]
- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]

In (1), the irregular form applies, so a plural verb is used by some people. To avoid the awkwardness, it is often possible to use an auxiliary verb which has the same form in the singular and the plural, for example:

John and Mary were walking home at all heights.

Example with multiple expressions of amount

540

Multiple expressions of amount, especially in the plural, often occur in compound phrases:

- A large number of people were walking home at all heights. [1]
- A large number of people were walking home at all heights. [1]
- A large number of people were walking home at all heights. [1]
- A large number of people were walking home at all heights. [1]
- A large number of people were walking home at all heights. [1]
- A large number of people were walking home at all heights. [1]

In the first example, the plural verb is used because the number of the noun phrases is more than one. In the second example, the plural verb is used because the number of the noun phrases is more than one. In the third example, the plural verb is used because the number of the noun phrases is more than one. In the fourth example, the plural verb is used because the number of the noun phrases is more than one. In the fifth example, the plural verb is used because the number of the noun phrases is more than one. In the sixth example, the plural verb is used because the number of the noun phrases is more than one.

- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]
- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]
- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]
- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]
- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]
- The plural verb is used if the number of the noun phrases is more than one. [1]

In general, English is a language which uses the plural verb in the plural. This is the case for all the examples given above.

(B) Concord of person

541

As well as concord of number, there is concord of person. Below these terms in the present tense, the first person singular is used only for the first person singular. This has only one form, *I*.

- The first person singular is used only for the first person singular. [1]
- The first person singular is used only for the first person singular. [1]
- The first person singular is used only for the first person singular. [1]

Coordination of clauses

548

Can we or clause may be linked together coordinately by the conjunctive *and* or *but*. In these cases, just the conjunctive are used to link clauses.

- John **lost** the money **and** he was **able** to get it again. [C]
- You **had** not **peeled** an egg **and** you **could** make one. [C]
- Under** that. [C]
- They **may** **explain** **to** them **but** they **have** **not** **realized** it yet. [C]

When the conjunct of the two clauses refers to the same person or thing, the conjunctive is normally omitted. (with [and] or [but]). If the clauses have matching subject verbs, they are also normally omitted. (17)

Here are some other examples of coordinately linked clauses. They are usually omitted in brackets.

- He **found** six **one** **over** **the** ground **and** **he** **did** not. [C]
- I'm **walking** the car **and** **she** **is** **buying** a new car. [C]
- He **may** **have** **not** **not** **the** key **and** **she** **is** **not** **looking** for it. [C]

Coordination can be used to link more than two clauses by different so-called parallel links. These are *and*, *but*, *or*, *neither...nor*, *either...or*. These join two or more clauses coordinately in which repeated elements are omitted. For example, a sentence of [C] can be expanded to [C]:

- Benjamin** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it** **and** **she** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it**. [C]
- Though** **she** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it** **and** **Benjamin** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it**. [C]

But in other cases, we cannot use coordinately linked clauses.

- She** **is** **looking** **for** **it** **and** **her** **husband** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it**.

This can be made:

- They** **are** **looking** **for** **it** **and** **her** **husband** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it**.

To indicate, then, any *and* or *but* linkages which may indicate a 'dependent' relationship:

- Benjamin** **and** **Mabel** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it**. (The *and* is not lower than *is* that *and* Mabel *is* in line with *Benjamin*.)
- She** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it** **and** **her** **husband** **is** **not** **looking** **for** **it**. (The *and* is not lower than *is* that *and* her husband *is* in line with *she* *is*.)

Below are some related functions or conditions in which phrases which have coordinated clauses in terms of what remains are related, rather than what changes are related. (18) (The omission of repeated elements brackets is the 190)

Coordination of clause elements

549

Some examples are:

50A-C13

- Found** **and** **his** **wife** **are** **my** **closest** **friends**.

50B-C13

- I** **travels** **on** **my** **own** **to** **go** **to** **work** **with** **a** **very** **large** **group**.

50B-C13

- The** **hotel** **was** **one** **of** **the** **best** **in** **the** **area**.

50-B13

- You** **can** **eat** **with** **the** **best** **of** **the** **city** **with** **the** **best** **of** **the** **city**.

50B-C13

- Her** **last** **page** **is** **not** **the** **same** **as** **the** **last** **page**.

Coordination of nouns

314

Coordination of two plural nouns has similar requirements. For example:

Many *Ames* and *young people* decided to be *same-day members*.

Ames is a

The *Ames* has a plural and *decide* has a plural subject, so they

must agree:

If *Ames* were the subject, it would be singular, so *decide* has to have a plural verb: *decide* and *Ames*.

Coordination of infinitives and parts of phrases

345

Infinitives, participles and parts of phrases can be coordinated with the same requirements of subject-verb agreement. For example:

Ames and *young people*

The paper says that *Ames* and *young people* believe that the Democrats will win the next election.

Ames and *young people* are

Ames is a plural noun, so

the coordination of nouns which do not make a complete phrase can be limited:

Ames and *young people* help to make *Ames* and *young people* the subject.

In this example, we have a single noun phrase, *Ames* and *young people*, which is the subject. *Ames* and *young people* are coordinated. Another example: the subject part of an infinitive phrase can be limited:

Ames and *young people* are going to vote.

Ames and *young people* are going to vote, *Ames* and *young people* help

The subject of the infinitive phrase can be limited, but the subject of the main clause must be coordinated.

Ames and *young people* are going to vote.

Ames and *young people* are going to vote, *Ames* and *young people* are going to vote.

Ames and *young people* are going to vote, *Ames* and *young people* are going to vote.

The subject of the infinitive phrase is

However, when it comes after a negative construction like *not*, *never*, *can't*, *couldn't*, *used to* etc. (see 277).

Order of construction

346

When more than two nouns are coordinated, the construction is usually ordered before each noun except the last:

[*Ames*, *young people* and *young people*] decided to be *same-day members*.

In writing, a comma is used to separate all the nouns except the last one. In speech, moving into *Ames* and *young people* and *young people* is not necessary.

We agree with the conjunctive *and* in the following: *Ames*, *young people*, *young people* and *young people* decided to be *same-day members*.

The word *and* is used to link the *Ames* and *young people* and *young people* together.

the shade of coloration can be called naturally in a rather than any style (pp. 387), or where the list of items is intended to be incomplete.

The words were alike with the call of blackbirds, whistles, flocks, wood pecker.

Copulative construction

547

Structures: the combination of two structures is made more emphatic by the addition of a word at the beginning of the first structure. This is *and* or *with* or *or*, etc. This is called copulative construction. The most important is the title of English illustrated in the examples.

By American and British no one is used for an entire group of English people (British and American) because of the pipes. It is not an entire group of people who are used for smoke. She is not only an excellent housewife, but a very fine, well-made person.

Demonstratives (see GOK 4.121, 10.65-70)

548

The words *this*, *that*, *these* and *those* are called demonstratives. They have number and gender (singular and plural) and are used as shown in the examples (200) and as indicated in (247). The general meaning of *this* and *that* can be stated as 'near' and 'far' if by the rule - *here/there*, *now/then*, *today*, etc. (200).

English: *This*

this *this* *these*
these *that* *those*

Examples of demonstrative use:

This { *this* *book* *is* *very* *good*.
that *book* *is* *very* *good* }

Like *they* it is often used as an

that *is* *very* *good*.
that *is* *very* *good*.

The demonstratives can have plural function as well as singular reference:

These *are* *very* *good* *in* *many* *ways*.
These *are* *very* *good*.

I *thought* *that* *these* *are* *very* *good*.

549

In (247) *that* is used to refer to *these* as well as *these* (see 207, 284) but here *that* does not occur with *that*. The demonstrative *that* is used to refer to *these* as well as *these* (see 207, 284) but here *that* does not occur with *that*. The demonstrative *that* is used to refer to *these* as well as *these* (see 207, 284) but here *that* does not occur with *that*.

The former is used to refer to *these* as well as *these* (see 207, 284) but here *that* does not occur with *that*. The demonstrative *that* is used to refer to *these* as well as *these* (see 207, 284) but here *that* does not occur with *that*.

These *are* *very* *good* *in* *many* *ways*.
These *are* *very* *good*.

I *thought* *that* *these* *are* *very* *good*.

Determiners (see GOK 4.13-20)

550

Determiners are words which qualify the reference of a noun phrase, e.g. by making it definite (the dog), indefinite (a dog), or by indicating quantity (three dogs).

In order to find the quantitative effect of deformation, we have to consider other deformation and deformation rate effects. In an arbitrary class of surface deformation, it is the change of surface area. They are not the usual volume (but as shown in the following, they are similar) and mass (which is fixed in our case) effects. The deformation is assumed to be incompressible (37).

Just as they change parallel to each other, they also change, so they are different positions relative to each other. The most important change is that of volume, which is fixed, but it is a function of time. There may be pressure or mass density index found in the following discussion (Table 1).

Table 1

CRITICAL POINTS

CRITICAL POINTS	CRITICAL POINTS	CRITICAL POINTS
1. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	1. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	1. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$
2. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	2. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	2. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$
3. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	3. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	3. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$
4. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	4. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$	4. $\rho = 0, \sigma = 0, \tau = 0$ for $\rho = 0$

Critical phenomena

381

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

382

(A) The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

383

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

384

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

385

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

386

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

387

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

$$\text{that } \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d\rho}{dt} = \dots$$

388

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

389

The general phenomenon is that of the general phenomenon

6. *Umbrella* (some 1990s) (190-94, 700):

I was in the ground your advice, please.

7. *Umbrella* (see 700-801):

Have you any idea or any power to sell?

8. *Umbrella* (1991):

We have't got enough money (1990), etc.

954

(C) *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

a. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991)

b. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991)

955

(C) *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

a. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991)

b. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991)

c. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991)

d. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991)

e. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991)

956

(C) *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

a. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991)

b. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991)

957

(C) *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

a. *Umbrella* (1991):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991)

Umbrella (1991):

958

As the name implies, *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700) is a noun which refers to a person who is in charge of performing a task.

959

(C) *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

a. *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991)

b. *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991)

c. *Umbrella* with *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700):

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991)

Note: *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700) is a noun which refers to a person who is in charge of performing a task.

The Umbrella (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991) (1991)

The Umbrella (1991)

The *Umbrella* (COUNT NOUN) (see 190-94, 700) is a noun which refers to a person who is in charge of performing a task. Since they are therefore nouns, they cannot be used with other

determinants of the quantities x, y, z are called the *adjoint* of A , and are denoted by A^{-1} . Hence, $A^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$. (1975, 20)

The classical type of problem where A is a 2×2 matrix, b is a vector, and x and y are the unknowns, can be put in the form of matrix notation as $Ax = b$, where $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$.

The solution x and y can be obtained by the following method:

They write in form of a single vector $x = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$ and $b = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

Then $Ax = b$ can be written as $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

One can solve this system of equations by using the method of elimination.

$$\begin{array}{r} \text{The equations} \\ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \left| \begin{array}{l} \times \\ \times \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{l} \times \\ \times \end{array} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \left| \begin{array}{l} \times \\ \times \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{l} \times \\ \times \end{array} \end{array} \end{array}$$

(1975, 20) (1975, 20) (1975, 20)

The fraction $\frac{1}{\det A}$ is called the *determinant* of A and can also be referred to as the *scalar* of A .

It is denoted by $\det A$ or $|A|$.

(1975, 20) (1975, 20)

If A and B are two matrices, then $A + B$ is the matrix whose elements are the sum of the corresponding elements of A and B . They may be added only if A and B have the same dimensions.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a+e & b+f \\ c+g & d+h \end{pmatrix}$$

If A and B are two matrices, then $A - B$ is the matrix whose elements are the difference of the corresponding elements of A and B .

(1975, 20) (1975, 20) (1975, 20) (1975, 20) (1975, 20)

One may also define the *transpose* of a matrix A as the matrix A^T whose elements are the transpose of the elements of A .

Matrix Algebra

Let A and B be two matrices, then $A + B$ is the matrix whose elements are the sum of the corresponding elements of A and B . They may be added only if A and B have the same dimensions.

(1975, 20) (1975, 20) (1975, 20)

If A and B are two matrices, then $A - B$ is the matrix whose elements are the difference of the corresponding elements of A and B .

It is denoted by $A - B$.

(1975, 20) (1975, 20) (1975, 20)

One may also define the *transpose* of a matrix A as the matrix A^T whose elements are the transpose of the elements of A .

The first three planes were **3 1/2 hrs late**
 for the air fare first prices.
 There is also a class of **general** tickets at least **50% more** than **3 1/2 hrs** when
 an extra **proceeds of 100%** for the airline companies.
 (His **3 1/2 hrs** in a **more** was **more**)
 (His **3 1/2 hrs** in a **more** was **more**) (his **3 1/2 hrs**)
 (The **3 1/2 hrs** in a **more** was **more**)
 (There was **3 1/2 hrs** in a **more** was **more**)
more can be thought of as combination of **two** **3 1/2 hrs** **more** **more**
 (He) **3 1/2 hrs** in a **more** **more**
 (He) **3 1/2 hrs** in a **more** **more** (= **two** **3 1/2 hrs**)
 (He) **3 1/2 hrs** in a **more** **more**.

(3) **click** **the** **more** **3 1/2 hrs**
 366

a. **more** in **the** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 The **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 The **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 The **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 Several **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

b. **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 There **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 There **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

more is **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
more is **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
more is **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

c. **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 Don't **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 Don't **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 Don't **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

d. **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 So **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

e. **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 There **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 There **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

f. **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 We **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

g. **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 So **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

There **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{more of} \\ \text{more of} \\ \text{more of} \end{array} \right\}$ **more** **more**

(3) **click** **the** **more** **3 1/2 hrs**
 367

Quantifying phrases with **more** are used only with count nouns in the plural

The **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{more of} \\ \text{more of} \\ \text{more of} \end{array} \right\}$ **more** **more**

There **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**

The **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more** **more**
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{more of} \\ \text{more of} \\ \text{more of} \end{array} \right\}$ **more** **more**

Notes that the form of the number is the main determining factor, gender and number:

Plural of number	is	used in the plural form.
Form of number	is	used in the plural form.
Form of number	is	used in the plural form.
Form of number	is	used in the plural form.

However, number and gender can occur in the plural form. There will be large numbers of uses in the text.

Exclamations (see GLE 7.75-79)

56d

An exclamation is a type of sentence which is used to express an emotion or feeling. Notice, however, that the exclamation type of sentence is not one of showing a relationship. The exclamation is a sentence type which is used to show a relationship (see 56c) which is a degree word or an adverb or a noun (see 79-75). To form an exclamation, put a statement of the sentence containing a word or phrase at the end of an utterance with the question mark (?) but do not use the word of (see 79) and operate.

She is a girl with a good name.	is	used in the plural form.
It is a good name.	is	used in the plural form.
Your name is good.	is	used in the plural form.
It is a good name.	is	used in the plural form.
It is a good name.	is	used in the plural form.
It is a good name.	is	used in the plural form.
It is a good name.	is	used in the plural form.
It is a good name.	is	used in the plural form.
It is a good name.	is	used in the plural form.

Or other types of exclamation construction, see 56d-56e.

Gender (see GLE 4.85-92)

56e

Gender is a higher application of the concept of gender, where the category is masculine, feminine and neuter, which is used to refer to a person, place, thing, etc.

Person	Gender	is	used in the plural form.	used in the plural form.
Person	Gender	is	used in the plural form.	used in the plural form.
Person	Gender	is	used in the plural form.	used in the plural form.
Person	Gender	is	used in the plural form.	used in the plural form.

Notice, again, that the gender of the noun is not used to refer to a person, place, thing, etc. The gender of the noun is not used to refer to a person, place, thing, etc. The gender of the noun is not used to refer to a person, place, thing, etc.

Thus, gender is a higher application of the concept of gender, where the category is masculine, feminine and neuter, which is used to refer to a person, place, thing, etc.

Gender (see GLE 4.93-94, HLE 1.25-30, 1.31-36, 1.37-40)

56f

56f is spoken in English, the gender of the noun is not used to refer to a person, place, thing, etc.

plural, where it takes one of the Latin endings following the rules for a letter or generally (p. 241)

In former English, the inflection of regular nouns was taken of the singular and to the plural by putting an *s* or *es* after the plural *s* of the plural, for the plural *s* of plural nouns like *girls*.

Regular plural

	Singular		Plural	
	Common	Latin	Common	Latin
regular	boy	girl	boys	girls
irregular	man	woman	men	women

272

The *s* is added to a noun which does not already end in *s*. This means that *s* is added to irregular nouns which do not end in *s* or *ce* (e.g. *table*).

An irregular plural

	Singular		Plural	
	Common	Latin	Common	Latin
regular	child	child	children	children
irregular	man	woman	men	women
			English people	English people

273

In addition to the regular plural, the Latin form *manus* has some singular forms ending in *s*:

- with three nouns of three syllables, as in *divines* 'divine men'
- with many other nouns ending in *s* (e.g. *mans*, *mans*, etc.). The plural is *mans* either direct or indirect, or *mans* in parentheses, either direct or indirect, or *mans* in parentheses, indirect, etc.
- with some nouns, especially such as *for* 'quarters', *for*, *for* 'quarters'.

The abbreviations

274

In many instances a noun in the singular and plural has the same form, as in the case of *man* and *man* plural, *for* and *for*:

What's the name of your name?
What's the name of your name?

Usually, either the singular or the plural form is preferred in a given case, with plural and the singular preferred. In a number of cases, with one exception, a plural form is preferred, e.g. *we* and *we*, *you* and *you*, *he* and *he*, *she* and *she*. We have also *you* and *you* for *you* and *you* (the singular and plural are the same).

The verb as a feature of noun phrases

275

Although the verb is present in a number of cases of nouns in some cases, the basic structure of a noun phrase is *man* (noun) *is* (verb) *man* (noun).

6000 or so. In the latter case, the preceding definitions are unproblematic. Here, however, the general term characterizes the part of the whole which is local in the whole itself.

NAME OF THE PART

GENERAL DEFINITION	
a female very probably of the type mentioned in the above paragraph	and by means of public medical psychology method

The general term characterizes the entire 'part' (the local) in the main or original. This is clear more clearly when we compare equal and equivalent

the holding of the speaking of the above definition	a very same result the above mentioned
---	--

The group definition is a synthesis that unites several periods of a life which contain common features.

In other cases, however, the general name may have a single word which is a condition and the preceding definitions are the premises before the head name of the other parts.

then other (with a final line of the last quality)
the above mentioned (with a final line of the last quality)

The group name

575

In general, the group name is a synthesis of several periods of a life which contain common features. This is clear more clearly when we compare equal and equivalent

the holding of the speaking of the above definition	a very same result the above mentioned
---	--

The general definition

576

The name, modified by the character, may be qualified if the sentence is made as definite. (See the example 575-576)

My child is a female (the female) (the female) (the female) (the female)

With the 'of' clause a sentence may be qualified.

The 'of' clause of the sentence is present in the case of Chicago.

Chicago is the head of the group of cities which are mentioned in the text. (See the example 576-577)

Chicago is the head of the group of cities which are mentioned in the text. (See the example 576-577)

Chicago is the head of the group of cities which are mentioned in the text. (See the example 576-577)

The double genitive

§77

Anglicisms can be combined with the English or with a native constituent. The first will, as a general rule, be used before and personal:

The last member of King's wife's family (not *the King's wife's family*).

She had a lot of money (not *her lot of money*).

After the simple genitive, the double genitive rarely implies metaphorical meaning, while French *le fils de l'homme* 'the son of a man' and *la femme du monde* 'the lady of the world' do.

The man { *a doctor* / *the doctor* } *he appeared* / *He appeared* (not *he doctor appeared*)
 { *a doctor's man* / *the doctor's man* } *he appeared* / *He appeared* (not *he doctor's man appeared*)

Interrogatives (see table 3.1.23, 3.16, 7.5) §78

§78

Interrogatives are words which introduce questions (see §§ 77, 80) and interrogative subordinate clauses (see §§ 71, 79). The interrogative words of English are *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why*, *how*, *which*, *what*, *how*, *how*, *why*, *why*, *where* (cf. table 3.1.23). They belong with relative pronouns to the class of words (as well as connectives) which are placed at the front of a clause, but which are restricted to interrogative subordinate clauses (see § 79).

Interrogatives in the main phrases

§79

In the main phrase, interrogatives may and may not be used with nominative and personal and/or reflexive and personal and/or personal reflexives. The different interrogative subordinate phrases are given in table 3.1.23 (see § 78).

TABLE 3

Interrogative subordinate clauses and personal

	PERSONAL		NON-PERSONAL	
	Personal and reflexive	Personal	Personal	Non-personal
Subjunctive subordinate clause	Yes	No	<i>who, what, which, why, when, how, where, where</i>	<i>why, where</i>
Genitive clause			No	
With reflexive personal	Yes	No	<i>why, when, where, how, how, where, where</i>	
With reflexive personal	Yes	No	<i>who, when, where, how, how, where, where</i>	<i>why, where, how, how, where, where</i>
Propositional main clause	Propositional	No	<i>who, when, where, how, how, where, where</i>	<i>why, where, where, where, where, where, where</i>

§80

Who, *where*, *where*, *when*, and *where* are used as relative pronouns (see § 74). Note, however, that the English use of *which* is unusual in any subordinate phrase with reflexive reference:

The mother *who* is my favourite one. (personal)

That's a girl *who* is an artist. (personal)

§80 *How* can be used about persons:

How *is* our business arranged?

But in most cases *who* is used from verbs. There is also a group of interrogative words which usually occur in main clauses and which are not used as relative

Do you like your present house?

(Present tense)
(Question)

How do you like your new house?

How do you like your present, your No. 24 jacket or No. 25 jacket?

Do you like your present paper?

(Present tense)
(Question)

How do you prefer the present?

How do you like the paper that you have been allowed to prefer?

Do you like referring to persons?

(Present tense)
(Question)

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted, with kindness or kindness?

Do you like referring to subjects?

(Present tense)
(Question)

What is the name of this house?

How do you prefer, (do you like) to prefer?

The definite designative each indicates that the speaker is thinking of a definite person from whom a choice is to be regularized in making

an

choice among more examples of irregularities

Do you like referring to subjects?

(Present tense)
(Question)

Do you like referring to subjects?

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

Do you like referring to subjects?

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

Do you like referring to subjects?

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

Sentence 1 can refer to a house meaning as either (1) or (2).

How do you like to be consulted?

How do you like to be consulted?

The definite designative each indicates that the speaker is thinking of a definite person from whom a choice is to be regularized in making

an

choice among more examples of irregularities

(A) How do you like to be consulted?

(B) How do you like to be consulted?

(C) How do you like to be consulted?

(D) How do you like to be consulted?

(E) How do you like to be consulted?

(F) How do you like to be consulted?

(G) How do you like to be consulted?

(H) How do you like to be consulted?

(I) How do you like to be consulted?

(J) How do you like to be consulted?

(K) How do you like to be consulted?

(L) How do you like to be consulted?

(M) How do you like to be consulted?

(N) How do you like to be consulted?

The definite designative each indicates that the speaker is thinking of a definite person from whom a choice is to be regularized in making

an

choice among more examples of irregularities

(O) How do you like to be consulted?

(7) *They're her husband's*

(8) *He's the man in the night
smoking pipe.*

(9) *He's an informant!*

(10) *He's that funny, old farmer
in town.*

Interrogative words and construction

885

Besides the negative interrogatives and pronouns, there are numerous wh-words for interrogative subjects (see 141-7).

Who's the best of the three? (see 141-4)

Who's? = 'As what phrase?' (see 141-4)

Who's? = 'To what phrase is it going for your question this year?' (see 141-4)

Who's the best? (see 141-4)

Who's? = 'As what phrase are you asking?' (see 141-4)

Why's the reason and purpose? (see 141-2)

Why's? = 'For what reason?' (see 141-2)

How's your reason and instrument? (see 142-3)

How's? = 'By what means?' (see 142-3)

There is also an interrogative word of degree, *how* (2.13), in which function it can primarily denote, negative and determinative.

How soon will you leave?

How often does it rain here?

How old are you?

How much money do you have?

If *how* is used in the interrogative construction, it must be followed by a question (see 207, 644).

Introductory *it* (see COE 14.24, 14.25-28)

886

The main word of an *it*-English subject clause

It (as subject clause) + *is* + *verb*

When the subject is a clause (see 617), however, the order is normally *it* + *verb* + *clause*:

It + *is* + *verb* + *the clause* (see COE 14.24)

It + *isn't* + *verb* + *the clause* (see COE 14.25)

The subject clause is placed in the end of the sentence, and the subject position is filled by the pronoun *it*.

The *it*-verb order is more usual when the introductory subject clause contains either the preposition *of* or the conjunction *that* (see COE 14.26).

Here are some more examples of sentences with an introductory *it*:

It + *is* + *verb* + *the subject clause* (see COE 14.24)

It + *isn't* + *verb* + *the subject clause* (see COE 14.25)

It + *is* + *verb* + *of* + *the subject clause*

It + *isn't* + *verb* + *that* + *the subject clause*

It + *is* + *verb* + *that* + *the subject clause* (see COE 14.26)

It + *is* + *verb* + *impossible* + *for* + *the subject clause* (see COE 14.26)

It + *is* + *verb* + *being* + *the subject clause* (see COE 14.26)

It + *is* + *verb* + *the subject clause*

It + *is* + *verb* + *the subject clause* + *to* + *verb* + *the subject clause*

The correct choice is justification is not in the position of the following cases.

- a. introducing a new clause

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different
between a clause and a word which should matter.

- b. introducing a direct object

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different
between a clause and a word which should matter.

- c. introducing a condition

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different

286

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result
of a clause (not a result of)

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result
of a clause (not a result of)

287

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result
of a clause (not a result of)

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result
of a clause (not a result of)

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result

288

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result
of a clause (not a result of)

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different

- a. It's a clause in the sentence.

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result

- b. It's a clause in the sentence.

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result

289

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result
of a clause (not a result of)

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result
of a clause (not a result of)

It is not only a matter of facts but there are two different

The correct choice is because may have an effect, which is not a result of a result

Introducing three clauses (K1-11-10)

291

216 The English sentence like that is not a possible sentence in the

normal use of getting it. It is a single sentence with an unaccusative verb and thus postpositional object subject (140b):

The fish is back in the tank.

This is a case of a sentence with a locative adjunct. All main verbs with locative adjuncts can be unaccusative (see sentence 140a) or unaccusative with subject (140b) and (140c) with postpositional object:

Example (11)	a unaccusative verb The fish is in the morning
Example (12)	unaccusative with subject There must be a swimming school
Example (13)	unaccusative with subject Where was the school found?
Example (14)	unaccusative with subject and locative adjunct There must be a swimming school in the morning
Example (15)	unaccusative with subject and locative adjunct There must be a swimming school in the morning
Example (16)	unaccusative with subject and locative adjunct There must be a swimming school in the morning
Example (17)	unaccusative with subject and locative adjunct There must be a swimming school in the morning

Example sentences also occur:

1. Where has the fish been found?
The fish has been found in the tank.

301

Intentionally does differ from other adverbs. It does not occur with unaccusative verbs. For example, in (140a) it is not possible to say *The fish intentionally got back in the tank.

- a. *The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
- b. *The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
- c. *The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.

302

There is a number of unaccusative verbs which are not in (140a) and (140b) but are in (140c). These are unaccusative verbs which are not in (140a) and (140b) but are in (140c). These are unaccusative verbs which are not in (140a) and (140b) but are in (140c).

- 1. *The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.
The fish intentionally got back in the tank.

Now there are two unaccusative verbs which are not in (140a) and (140b) but are in (140c). These are unaccusative verbs which are not in (140a) and (140b) but are in (140c).

A further warning: beware the patient with the idiomatic phrase *let's have—do—now*, please, which is a bit of a clue.

You're going to get fed up to talk us.

594

There is also another type which is most likely to occur in dialogue contexts where there is to be said by a voice other than the speaker himself usually:

There may come a time ... We may never see them. ... (1) ... will be ... for lunch.

With a third intervenor in front position, there may be said in (1) and (2) words of the sort *let's have—do—now*, and (2) is particularly significant since future (2) is (1).

Irregular verbs (see also 562-3)

595

The irregular main verbs of English form a general class, but important groups of verbs may set themselves apart in two or three ways: (1) of any class or class-union, *bring*, *bring*, *bring* and special *bring* (see 601); (2) they enter into regular verbs in the secondary predic, then past-tense order, then past participle, for example, the least number of the 3rd form is regular verbs, see (23). We may note the three types in examples (97-99):

- (97) Verbs in which the three forms are the base, the past, the past participle are identical, for example, *cut—cut—cut*.
- (98) Verbs in which two of the three forms are identical, for example, *read—read—read*, *beat—beat—beat*.
- (99) Verbs in which all three parts are different, for example, *read—read—read*.

Within each type, the verbs may have marginal variations in spelling, for example, *bring—bring—bring*, the word-groups, etc. The following list is not exhaustive (see further 601, 601-3). *R* indicates that the verb does have regular forms (for auxiliary verbs, see 497-501).

Irregular main verbs

(C) *All three parts are identical*

596

THEY HAVE ROOT

ROOT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	
bat	bat	bat	Also R. <i>bat</i> !
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	Also R. <i>bat</i> !
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	
bat	bat	bat	

break	brak	break	
spread	spred	spread	
wed	wed	wed	Wed. R. weekend

(E) Two pairs are identical
 577

(A) THE SPREADSHEET

These verbs can be either regular (green) or irregular (yellow). The regular 3rd form is especially (GAP) and the 3rd form especially (GUP), see p. 5

burn	burned-burn	burned/burnt
burn	burnt-burnt	burned/burnt
spread	spread-spread	spread/spelt
spread	spread-spelt	spread/spelt
spread	spread-spelt	spread/spelt
spread	spread-spelt	spread/spelt

(G) THE SPREADSHEET

burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
spread	spread	spread

(G) THE SPREADSHEET

burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn

(G) THE SPREADSHEET

Where there are two or more forms, these are usually preferred in order

burn	burn	burn	
burn	burn	burn	
burn	burn	burn	

burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn

burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn

burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn

burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn	burn

(G) THE SPREADSHEET

burn	burn	burn
burn	burn	burn

base long long	base long long	base long long	base long long
day	day	day	day = "today"
now	now	now	usually R
back	back	back	to the "back"
long	long	long	
stick	stick	stick	
strong	strong	strong	
bring	bring	bring	
ring	ring	ring	
king	king	king	
sing	sing	sing	
ring	ring	ring	

Formulas (1) - (3)

All the words in this table have the same *g*. Many of the words in this table have the same *g* in the root.

base	base	base
buy	buy	buy
right	right	right
light	light	light
fight	fight	fight
weight	weight	weight
height	height	height
weight	weight	weight
weight	weight	weight

Formulas (4) - (6)

All the words in this table have the same *g* in the root.

base	base	base
buy	buy	buy
right	right	right
light	light	light
fight	fight	fight
weight	weight	weight
height	height	height
weight	weight	weight

Formulas (7) - (9)

All the words in this table have the same *g* in the root. Many of the words in this table have the same *g* in the root.

base	base	base
buy	buy	buy
right	right	right
light	light	light
fight	fight	fight
weight	weight	weight
height	height	height
weight	weight	weight

Formulas (10) - (12)

All the words in this table have the same *g* in the root. Many of the words in this table have the same *g* in the root.

base	base	base
buy	buy	buy
right	right	right
light	light	light
fight	fight	fight
weight	weight	weight
height	height	height
weight	weight	weight

612

(F) THE BUY GROUP

buy	bought	buy
like	liked	like
hide	hid	hide

613

(G) THE BUY-AGAINST

shake	shook	shake
know	knew	know
hid		

(H) THE BUY-AGAINST

draw out	drew out	draw out
ride	rode	ride
rise	rose	rise
write	wrote	write

615

(I) THE BUY-AGAINST

begin	began	begin
drink	drank	drink
ring	rang	ring
shrink	shrank	shrink
sing	sang	sing
sink	sank	sink
spring	sprang	spring
slink	sank	slink
swim	swam	swim

616

(J) Other verbs that do more than (G) form

eat	ate	eat
fall	fell	fall
draw	(drew, drew, Am. Eng.) (drew, drew, drew)	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw
draw	drew	draw

University of
Ill. 617

Main verbs that (G) (F, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z)

Regular and Irregular verbs

617

There are two types of verbs: regular verbs and irregular verbs (see 617-620).
Main verbs are verbs that do more than (G) form (see 617-620).
Main verbs are verbs that do more than (G) form (see 617-620).
Main verbs are verbs that do more than (G) form (see 617-620).

English nouns can be classified as regular or irregular. Regular nouns are those that follow the usual pattern of adding -s or -es to form the plural. The case is the inflected form which is used in plural nouns; but irregular nouns are not, because, for some irregular nouns, the regular verb is listed in 205-616.

619
A regular English verb has the following form for the

1st base	2nd	3rd person	4th
run	runs	runs	running

The 4th form is the English verb's infinitive form. In general, all new verbs that are added to English have been formed from other languages, except the pattern for example 619, because the other pattern

620
621

is a pattern that is found in many other languages, and both regular and irregular verbs are formed in written English by adding -s or -es to the base. In spoken English, the -s form is pronounced /s, z, or ɪz/.

BASE	3rd form
play /pleɪ/	plays /pleɪs/
play /pleɪ/	plays /pleɪz/
play /pleɪ/	plays /pleɪz/

The 3rd form is the 3rd person singular form, as listed in 205. An change is the 3rd form, for example, as in 621.

Example:

do /dʊ/	does /dʌz/ (as listed in 205)
do /dʊ/	does /dʌz/ (as listed in 205)
do /dʊ/	does /dʌz/ (as listed in 205)

622
623

The 4th form of the verb, the 4th form, of both regular and irregular verbs is formed by adding -ing to the base:

base form	4th form
play	playing
run	running

An change in spelling, for example, is playing, as 623-4.

624
625

The 4th form of regular verbs is formed by adding -ing to the base. It corresponds to the 4th form of many irregular verbs, as listed in 205, and the 4th form of many irregular verbs in English.

BASE	3rd form		BASE	4th form	
	1st form	2nd form		3rd form	4th form
run	run	runs	run	running	running
play	play	plays	play	playing	playing
eat	eat	eats	eat	eating	eating

The 4th form is pronounced /dɪŋ, ɪŋ, or ɪŋ/.

play	playing /pleɪŋ/
play	playing /pleɪŋ/
play	playing /pleɪŋ/

On the change of these 4th form verbs, see 252; an change in spelling, for example, is playing, as 623-4.

The uses of the verb *turn*

621

After we have seen the forms of English verbs we shall now describe how they are used. The first one further discussed in the next chapter is called *infinitive*.

624

The infinitive may be used

1. as the subject of the present tense (see 622) except for the perfect (see 624a).
Turn together this book and the clock.
2. in the infinitive form (99);
Please turn on the light.
3. in the present participle form (97);
It is necessary that each one be *always* turned on in time.
4. in the infinitive form (97);
We are glad *to* turn on the light when the door is finished.

625

It is also used in the infinitive form in the present tense (see 99) for the only person when the case-form is not used.

Turn on the light when you go to bed.

626

The infinitive form may be used in the past tense when the infinitive itself is in the infinitive form. This is the perfect form. A past tense form may be formed in the following way.

By turning on the light, you ^{turned} _{turned} the clock.

The past perfect form is used

1. with a form of *have* from the perfect (see 99) as an auxiliary.
He ^{had} _{had} turned the clock.
2. with a form of *turn* from the past (see 97);
She ^{was} _{was} supposed to ^{have} _{have} turned the clock.
See also 626a by the infinitive.
3. to form a past participle (97) (see 5.3);
Many of these ^{had} _{had} been in the museum when I came to it.
They found her ^{to} _{to} have been in a cellar.

Nationality words (see *OXF* 1.15, 3.2) 221

627

When speaking about English people in general we can use either the English indefinite article (see 482) or the *English* (English) form without the article:

The English / Englishes speak in many ways. (1)

When speaking of some particular English persons we say

The Englishes (who live near the river) are gardeners. (2)

We call this two aspects of reference: (1) *indefinite* (2) *specific* respectively. In your study, when you write English/Englishes differences, these are different forms for the same type of reference. We also can use the words between separate words from the compound name such *English* and *Englishes* (1.20)

The Englishes are generally an interest.

The Englishes are of course an interest.

The following table shows the names of some countries and continents and the corresponding adjectives and people which specify and denote them.

name of country or continent	adjective	people singular	people plural	people plural
China	Chinese	a Chinese	Chinese	the Chinese
Japan	Japanese	a Japanese	Japanese	the Japanese
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese	Portuguese	the Portuguese
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss	Swiss	the Swiss
Vietnam	Vietnamese	a Vietnamese	Vietnamese	the Vietnamese
India	Indian	an Indian	Indians	the Indians
Pakistan	Pakistani	a Pakistani	Pakistanis	the Pakistanis
Germany	German	a German	Germans	the Germans
Greece	Greek	a Greek	Greeks	the Greeks
Africa	African	an African	Africans	the Africans
America	American	an American	Americans	the Americans
Europe	European	a European	Europeans	the Europeans
Australia	Australian	an Australian	Australians	the Australians
Italy	Italian	an Italian	Italians	the Italians
U.S.A.	American	a(n) American	Americans	the Americans
France	French	a Frenchman	Frenchmen	the French
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard	Spaniards	the Spaniards
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede	Swedes	the Swedes
England	English	an Englishman	Englishmen	the English
France	French	a Frenchman	Frenchmen	the French
Germany	German	a German	Germans	the Germans
Italy	Italian	an Italian	Italians	the Italians
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman	Welshmen	the Welsh
Britain	British	a Briton	Britons	the Britons
Scotland	Scottish (Scottish)	a Scot (Scot)	Scots (Scots)	the Scots

NOTE: The names of the countries and continents are given in the singular and plural forms. The names of the people are given in the singular and plural forms. The names of the people are given in the singular and plural forms.

Negation

629

In negative finite clauses (e.g. you *pro* *will* *not* *leave*), *not* is only contrasted from *will* in the unlikely case of the opposite of GO 6.1.

Contrast	GO 6.1.1
He <i>will</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> .	He <i>will</i> <i>leave</i> <i>and</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> .
He <i>has</i> <i>not</i> <i>left</i> <i>yet</i> .	He <i>has</i> <i>not</i> <i>left</i> <i>the</i> <i>most</i> .
He <i>has</i> <i>not</i> <i>left</i> <i>because</i> <i>of</i> <i>it</i> .	He <i>has</i> <i>not</i> <i>left</i> <i>because</i> <i>of</i> <i>it</i> <i>yet</i> .

In these instances, there is an *and* or *because* after the *not* in actions that are *not* *will* or *pro* *will*. When there is no such contrast, present and future do have to be used, etc. The *not* in the above examples (e.g. GO 6.1) is contrasted with *will* followed by the bare infinitive.

He <i>will</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> .	He <i>will</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> <i>because</i> <i>of</i> <i>it</i> .
They <i>will</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> <i>the</i> <i>park</i> .	He <i>will</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> <i>the</i> <i>park</i> <i>because</i> <i>of</i> <i>it</i> .

GO 6.1 is only contrasted with *will* and *pro* *will* in the finite verb clause and not in finite verb clause adjuncts, e.g. GO 6.1.1.

Contracted negation

630

As well as the contracted negative, English has contracted forms (e.g. GO 6.1) of the finite verb *will* and the infinitive *not* in the finite verb clause. The contracted forms are only used in finite verb clauses, and are contrasted with *will* and *pro* *will* in the contracted negative.

He <i>will</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> .	He <i>will</i> <i>not</i> <i>leave</i> <i>because</i> <i>of</i> <i>it</i> .
He's <i>not</i> <i>leaving</i> .	He's <i>not</i> <i>leaving</i> .
We've <i>not</i> <i>made</i> .	We've <i>not</i> <i>made</i> .
They've <i>not</i> <i>finished</i> .	They've <i>not</i> <i>finished</i> .
She's <i>not</i> <i>worked</i> .	She's <i>not</i> <i>worked</i> .

Both sets of contracted forms are used in informal English. In GO 6.1, English is full forms are never the contrasted.

As there is no widely acceptable contraction of *will* and *pro* *will* (GO 6.1), the contracted negative is possible in a clause like *He's not working*.

631

In a clause with *not* *will*, *not* can be placed either after the auxiliary *will* or after the main verb, e.g. *He's not going to leave* or *He's going to leave not*. However,

- *He's *not* *going* *to* *leave* *because* *of* *it*.
- *He's *going* *to* *leave* *not* *because* *of* *it*.

Negative pronouns and determiners

632

Instead of *not* following an auxiliary, *not* can appear

1. after the subject, e.g.

He *may* *not* *leave* *yet* *says*.

2. after the object, e.g.

He's *not* *negative* *adjective* *verb* *not* *verb*, and is one of a number of negative words in English which do not follow the auxiliary (see GO 6.2).

Noun	Verb	Verb		Noun
		Transitive	Intransitive	
Noun	Verb	Verb		Noun
		Transitive	Intransitive	
Noun	Verb	Verb		Noun
		Transitive	Intransitive	
Noun	Verb	Verb		Noun
		Transitive	Intransitive	

As the table shows, you can be tested on whether you know the difference between a transitive and intransitive verb. Most of these look like this:

Other resource items

- 1) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of present tense.
- 2) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of past tense.
- 3) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of future tense.
- 4) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of conditional tense.
- 5) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of imperative tense.
- 6) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of infinitive tense.
- 7) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of participle tense.
- 8) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of gerund tense.
- 9) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of noun tense.
- 10) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of adjective tense.
- 11) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of adverb tense.
- 12) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of preposition tense.
- 13) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of conjunction tense.
- 14) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of interjection tense.
- 15) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of exclamation tense.
- 16) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of interjection tense.
- 17) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of interjection tense.
- 18) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of interjection tense.
- 19) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of interjection tense.
- 20) This negative form requires your usual auxiliary verbs of interjection tense.

The grammatical behavior of negative items

- 1) The negative item is always negative.
- 2) The negative item is always negative.
- 3) The negative item is always negative.
- 4) The negative item is always negative.
- 5) The negative item is always negative.
- 6) The negative item is always negative.
- 7) The negative item is always negative.
- 8) The negative item is always negative.
- 9) The negative item is always negative.
- 10) The negative item is always negative.
- 11) The negative item is always negative.
- 12) The negative item is always negative.
- 13) The negative item is always negative.
- 14) The negative item is always negative.
- 15) The negative item is always negative.
- 16) The negative item is always negative.
- 17) The negative item is always negative.
- 18) The negative item is always negative.
- 19) The negative item is always negative.
- 20) The negative item is always negative.

[The negative item is always negative.]

You can't forget [the negative item] will not.

Conclusion

You have now finished the [negative item] will not.

Negation in phrases and infinitive clauses

635

Something can be done which is not needed for the verb phrase to be correct, but in another sentence of the same structure a main phrase, like *John looks better*, is the verb phrase which is needed. Some of the infinitive clauses are negated main phrases or main subjects:

We all of the passengers enjoyed such a trip.

We'll accept a deal which is useful.

His claims were denied by others. It is interesting to note the United States is a country.

To negate the main phrase, you have to negate the negative main phrase with *not*:

He probably had the book, but it's all put together in a book which says,

I asked him about the new firm.

He told me about it and I agreed.

Transfer of negation

636

At the same verb like *is*, *can*, *ought*, and *have* a main phrase hangs in terms of another, as in that clause, so that you can transfer the main clause

I don't know; that's what you have to know first.

I don't believe you can't have it now.

I don't suppose that's important, though it may be so.

I don't suppose you will separate them.

I don't know if they can read some.

I don't think you need to worry.

Nominal clauses (see GC 1.1.1.1.1-1.1.1.1.2)

637

Nominal clauses are often in main phrases like *he* in *Just a main phrase for nouns is either after a complement, question and a nominal main clause, or before nouns like nouns, verbs, nouns and a* of these nouns.

what is a main phrase in *He doesn't know what you're talking about.*

how is a main phrase in *I don't know how many people there are.*

whether is a main phrase in *He asked me whether you were there.*

if is a main phrase in *He asked me if you were there.*

who is a main phrase in *The doctor's name depends on who you are talking to.*

638

Here are five main types of nominal clause:

Relative clause (see GC 1.1.1.1.1)

Interrogative clause (see GC 1.1.1.1.2)

Infinitive clause (see GC 1.1.1.1.3)

Nominal relative clause (see GC 1.1.1.1.4)

Nominal *wh* clause (see GC 1.1.1.1.5)

Characteristics

639

Interrogative clause (see GC 1.1.1.1.2)

what is a main phrase in *He doesn't know what you're talking about.*

how is a main phrase in *I don't know how many people there are.*

60400000

6040000000

60400000000

604000000000

6040000000000

60400000000000

The zero property of the base will require your attention, but these last examples do not so demand.

The same will apply to all powers.

60

What is the procedure in dividing a complement or a number of powers of 10 by a number which is not a power of 10?

Example 1

$100000 \div 2 = 50000$

Example 2

$100000 \div 3 = 33333 \frac{1}{3}$

Division of a decimal

61

The required division is performed by the procedure with a few extra steps in the case of the whole number being written as a decimal. In addition, it is called a proportional complement.

Example 1

$1000000 \div 2 = 500000$ and $10000000 \div 2 = 5000000$

Example 2

$10000000 \div 3 = 3333333 \frac{1}{3}$ and $100000000 \div 3 = 33333333 \frac{1}{3}$

Example 3

Example 4

Example 5

The procedure will allow us to divide any number by a power of 10. It is a simple matter to divide by a power of 10.

Example 6

Example 7

Example 8

Example 9

Example 10

62

What is the procedure in dividing a number of powers of 10 by a number which is not a power of 10? The procedure is the same as in the case of a number which is not a power of 10. In addition, it is called a proportional complement.

Example 1

$100000000 \div 2 = 50000000$ and $1000000000 \div 2 = 500000000$

63

What is the procedure in dividing a number of powers of 10 by a number which is not a power of 10?

Example 1

Example 2

Example 3

Example 4

Proportional complement

64

The proportional complement of a number is the number which, when added to the number, gives a power of 10.

Example 1

Example 2

Example 3

Example 4

Example 5

Proportional complement

65

What is the procedure in dividing a number of powers of 10 by a number which is not a power of 10?

subject	He has been really nasty to his wife
object	He has been really nasty to her
subject-verb	I want to see what you did with my bicycle. What did you do with it? I thought you had it in the garage
subject-verb	She just showed me a picture of the dog she had bought
subject	
complement	I have a sister who is studying law
subject-complement	She is a lawyer
object-verb	I like your new colleague, but he is not as nice as the other one
object-complement	You should consider becoming a lawyer

646

These clauses are introduced by a *wh*-phrase or a *wh*-clause (see 636-637), which can function as subject, object, complement, or subject-verb, and can also function as subject-verb. For example, the phrase

He has been really nasty to her

can function as the *wh*-

What was your wife up to, with Issey?

which can function as subject, object, complement, or subject-verb.

He has been really nasty to her can also function as the subject of a *wh*-clause, as in

What was the answer to her? She is a lawyer, isn't she?

He has

What was she up to? Let me guess.

He was up to

As these examples show, *wh*-phrases and *wh*-clauses can be introduced by a *wh*-word, starting with *wh*, *wh*-words, or *wh*. These words have general *wh*-clauses, meaning 'the person or object whose name is being mentioned'.

Nominal *wh*-infinite clauses

647

Nominal *wh*-infinite clauses can function as

subject For a design to collapse like that is unlikely

subject-complement He has a car which is 10 years old

object

complement His ambition is to be a pilot

complement His ambition is to be a pilot, and it was fulfilled

subject-verb

What is your plan?

648

The subject of a *wh*-infinite clause is normally introduced by *wh*. A phrase that starts like a *wh*-infinite clause can be used as follows:

The team ^{that he selected} met on Thursday.

What is ^{the subject} of the clause? He wants to meet on Thursday.

When *wh* is the subject of the clause, the *wh*-infinite clause

He wants to meet on Thursday

Nominal *wh*-clause

649

The nominal *wh*-clause can function as

subject What is the answer?

NEGATIVE OBJECT	No more boys being admitted in the month of the night
OBJECT	
OBJECT-NOMINATIVE	What he likes best is going up mountain sides.
OBJECTIVE	He was absorbed in his hobby, following every news
OBJECTIVE OF A PREPOSITION	He tried to delay the trial of a child
OBJECTIVE-NOMINATIVE	All the children were to be looking at the stars

291

When the subject has a number, the subject may also be between you and you. (Example, 292)

I'm surprised at somebody's putting it as a mistake

you, in a sentence like you, I believe, I use the personal pronoun of the subject you, for example

I'm surprised at somebody's making that a mistake

Noun phrases (see G.O.C. of sentence 2 and 10)

301

A noun phrase is a phrase which can act as subject, object, or complement of a finite verb (291), or as representative complement (see 291). It is called a noun phrase because its word which is a noun (the main word) is placed at the end. In the following sentences:

John found the verb necessary at length to a new and better system

John, *subject*, *verb*, *the*, *object*, *at length*, *complement*. The object *at length*, the complement *to a new and better system* is the object, the object complement *to a new and better system* is the object, the object complement *to a new and better system* is the object, the object complement *to a new and better system* is the object, the object complement *to a new and better system* is the object.

302

The first noun phrase is contained by the subject, the second noun phrase is contained by the object. Modifiers of the first noun phrase are the first and second noun phrases, and the second noun phrase is the first and second noun phrases of the first noun phrase.

303

Thus, in a series of the English noun phrase can be written:

Noun Phrase

Subjective (S)	Prepositional (P)	Head (H)	Prepositional (P)
----------------	-------------------	----------	-------------------

Here that order is not the order that the elements are used in, as in 301 and 302. The order is not the order of the elements, but the order of the modifiers. The only modification of the order is the order of the elements, as in 301 and 302. The order of the elements is not the order of the modifiers, but the order of the elements.

<u>subjective</u>	<u>prepositional</u>	<u>head</u>	<u>prepositional</u>
the	of	days	
a	of	days	
all	of	days	at length
			with long time

A type of these noun phrases could be the object which complements the verb. (see 291 and 301)

The different parts of nouns, the *case* and *number*, are treated separately as follows: *Declension* (see 150-151); *Power* (see 152-153); *Plurality* (see 154-155); *Agreement* (see 156-157); and *Adjectives* (see 158) and *Adverbs* (see 159) are also treated as a noun phrase.

Number (see 154-155)

Singular and plural number

154

In English, number is a feature of nouns, demonstrative pronouns, personal and reflexive pronouns, singular and plural number and verbs. In the 1st person singular, for example, and plural, tense and verb form are the same (see 155). The number, according to the masculine and feminine, are

- a) singular (m) *carro* 'car' (masc), *coche* 'car' (fem), *el* 'the' (m), *ella* 'she' (fem)
- b) plural (m) *carros* 'cars' (masc), *coches* 'cars' (fem), *los* 'the' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
- c) possessive (m) *carro* 'car' (masc), *coche* 'car' (fem), *de* 'of' (m), *de* 'of' (fem)

The only form of which there is a difference in the plural are plural nouns in nouns (masc and fem) (see 155): *los* 'the' (m), *las* 'the' (fem), *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem).

155

The regular plural is formed by adding *-s* or *-es* to the singular (see 154). But there are many more forms in:

- (a) some nouns which have a singular and a plural form:
 - (i) some nouns which are singular in the plural:
 - (A) *el* 'the' (m), *ella* 'she' (fem), *yo* 'I', *tú* 'you', *usted* 'you', *ustedes* 'you' (pl)
 - (B) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)

(b) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)

156

- a) *Nouns*:
 - (i) *El* 'the' (m), *ella* 'she' (fem)
 - (ii) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
 - (iii) *yo* 'I', *tú* 'you', *usted* 'you', *ustedes* 'you' (pl)
- b) *Subjects* (masc and fem) with a singular and a plural form:
 - (i) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
 - (ii) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
- c) *Some nouns* (masc and fem) which have a singular and a plural form:
 - (i) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
 - (ii) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
- d) *Some nouns* (masc and fem) which have a singular and a plural form:
 - (i) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
 - (ii) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
- e) *Some nouns* (masc and fem) which have a singular and a plural form:
 - (i) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
 - (ii) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)

(ii) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)

157

- a) *Count*:
 - (i) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
 - (ii) *ellos* 'they' (m), *ellas* 'they' (fem)
- There are a great many people standing at the airport.
(People is however regular in the sense of 'people' - the people of America)

Answer:

You have been striking all the *ping* on the *ling* today.

問: 今天你打乒乓球嗎?
答: 今天你打乒乓球。

128

3 Some nouns denoting a pair, instrument or article of dress consisting of two equal parts, are joined together. These are always 成, but can be moved into ordinary nouns, made by means of 對, of

(A) “Where does it pass?” (B) “Where are they?”

(C) “It is a pair of scissors, please!”

There are two pairs of glasses in the box. 盒裏有兩對眼鏡。

There is a pair of scissors which is used in the same way as the ones, without and joined:

單邊刀	剪刀
單邊剪	剪
單刀	剪子, 剪子, 小剪
刀片	剪子, 剪, 剪頭
刀片	剪刀
剪頭	剪

129

4 There are the only other nouns which in a given sense, with one in the plural, are 成 and 對.

Have you studied the contents of the book?

In many cases they have a singular form without 成, with a different meaning which is denoted by the character for 對.

What is the plural version of the egg?

Here are four examples of plural nouns:

一對一對的(對):

成(成):

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對) 成(成) 一對一對的(對)

一對一對的(對)

Minerals (p. 17) 5.4 (129)

Cardinal and ordinal (p. 5) 1. 5

130

The cardinal numbers represent the count of numbers. (One, two, three, etc.)
The ordinal numbers represent the order of things. (First, second, etc.) 231

answers. The answers are written by a process of "guess and determine," usually by definition.

There are 22 on the list, so you are the eighth.

They use the number 4 to describe the list will be very interesting.

661

	NUMBER		NUMBER
0	nought, or zero	20	twenty
1	one	21	twenty one
2	two	22	twenty two
3	three	23	twenty three
4	four	24	twenty four
5	five	25	twenty five
6	six	26	twenty six
7	seven	27	twenty seven
8	eight	28	twenty eight
9	nine	29	twenty nine
10	ten	30	thirty
11	eleven	31	thirty one
12	twelve	32	thirty two
13	thirteen	33	thirty three
14	fourteen	34	thirty four
15	fifteen	35	thirty five
16	sixteen	36	thirty six
17	seventeen	37	thirty seven
18	eighteen	38	thirty eight
19	nineteen	39	thirty nine
20	twenty	40	forty
21	twenty one	41	forty one
22	twenty two	42	forty two
23	twenty three	43	forty three
24	twenty four	44	forty four
25	twenty five	45	forty five
26	twenty six	46	forty six
27	twenty seven	47	forty seven
28	twenty eight	48	forty eight
29	twenty nine	49	forty nine
30	thirty	50	fifty
31	thirty one	51	fifty one
32	thirty two	52	fifty two
33	thirty three	53	fifty three
34	thirty four	54	fifty four
35	thirty five	55	fifty five
36	thirty six	56	fifty six
37	thirty seven	57	fifty seven
38	thirty eight	58	fifty eight
39	thirty nine	59	fifty nine
40	forty	60	sixty
41	forty one	61	sixty one
42	forty two	62	sixty two
43	forty three	63	sixty three
44	forty four	64	sixty four
45	forty five	65	sixty five
46	forty six	66	sixty six
47	forty seven	67	sixty seven
48	forty eight	68	sixty eight
49	forty nine	69	sixty nine
50	fifty	70	seventy
51	fifty one	71	seventy one
52	fifty two	72	seventy two
53	fifty three	73	seventy three
54	fifty four	74	seventy four
55	fifty five	75	seventy five
56	fifty six	76	seventy six
57	fifty seven	77	seventy seven
58	fifty eight	78	seventy eight
59	fifty nine	79	seventy nine
60	sixty	80	eighty
61	sixty one	81	eighty one
62	sixty two	82	eighty two
63	sixty three	83	eighty three
64	sixty four	84	eighty four
65	sixty five	85	eighty five
66	sixty six	86	eighty six
67	sixty seven	87	eighty seven
68	sixty eight	88	eighty eight
69	sixty nine	89	eighty nine
70	seventy	90	ninety
71	seventy one	91	ninety one
72	seventy two	92	ninety two
73	seventy three	93	ninety three
74	seventy four	94	ninety four
75	seventy five	95	ninety five
76	seventy six	96	ninety six
77	seventy seven	97	ninety seven
78	seventy eight	98	ninety eight
79	seventy nine	99	ninety nine
80	eighty	100	one hundred
81	eighty one	101	one hundred one
82	eighty two	102	one hundred two
83	eighty three	103	one hundred three
84	eighty four	104	one hundred four
85	eighty five	105	one hundred five
86	eighty six	106	one hundred six
87	eighty seven	107	one hundred seven
88	eighty eight	108	one hundred eight
89	eighty nine	109	one hundred nine
90	ninety	110	one hundred ten
91	ninety one	111	one hundred eleven
92	ninety two	112	one hundred twelve
93	ninety three	113	one hundred thirteen
94	ninety four	114	one hundred fourteen
95	ninety five	115	one hundred fifteen
96	ninety six	116	one hundred sixteen
97	ninety seven	117	one hundred seventeen
98	ninety eight	118	one hundred eighteen
99	ninety nine	119	one hundred nineteen
100	one hundred	120	one hundred twenty
101	one hundred one	121	one hundred twenty one
102	one hundred two	122	one hundred twenty two
103	one hundred three	123	one hundred twenty three
104	one hundred four	124	one hundred twenty four
105	one hundred five	125	one hundred twenty five
106	one hundred six	126	one hundred twenty six
107	one hundred seven	127	one hundred twenty seven
108	one hundred eight	128	one hundred twenty eight
109	one hundred nine	129	one hundred twenty nine
110	one hundred ten	130	one hundred thirty
111	one hundred eleven	131	one hundred thirty one
112	one hundred twelve	132	one hundred thirty two
113	one hundred thirteen	133	one hundred thirty three
114	one hundred fourteen	134	one hundred thirty four
115	one hundred fifteen	135	one hundred thirty five
116	one hundred sixteen	136	one hundred thirty six
117	one hundred seventeen	137	one hundred thirty seven
118	one hundred eighteen	138	one hundred thirty eight
119	one hundred nineteen	139	one hundred thirty nine
120	one hundred twenty	140	one hundred forty
121	one hundred twenty one	141	one hundred forty one
122	one hundred twenty two	142	one hundred forty two
123	one hundred twenty three	143	one hundred forty three
124	one hundred twenty four	144	one hundred forty four
125	one hundred twenty five	145	one hundred forty five
126	one hundred twenty six	146	one hundred forty six
127	one hundred twenty seven	147	one hundred forty seven
128	one hundred twenty eight	148	one hundred forty eight
129	one hundred twenty nine	149	one hundred forty nine
130	one hundred thirty	150	one hundred fifty
131	one hundred thirty one	151	one hundred fifty one
132	one hundred thirty two	152	one hundred fifty two
133	one hundred thirty three	153	one hundred fifty three
134	one hundred thirty four	154	one hundred fifty four
135	one hundred thirty five	155	one hundred fifty five
136	one hundred thirty six	156	one hundred fifty six
137	one hundred thirty seven	157	one hundred fifty seven
138	one hundred thirty eight	158	one hundred fifty eight
139	one hundred thirty nine	159	one hundred fifty nine
140	one hundred forty	160	one hundred sixty
141	one hundred forty one	161	one hundred sixty one
142	one hundred forty two	162	one hundred sixty two
143	one hundred forty three	163	one hundred sixty three
144	one hundred forty four	164	one hundred sixty four
145	one hundred forty five	165	one hundred sixty five
146	one hundred forty six	166	one hundred sixty six
147	one hundred forty seven	167	one hundred sixty seven
148	one hundred forty eight	168	one hundred sixty eight
149	one hundred forty nine	169	one hundred sixty nine
150	one hundred fifty	170	one hundred seventy
151	one hundred fifty one	171	one hundred seventy one
152	one hundred fifty two	172	one hundred seventy two
153	one hundred fifty three	173	one hundred seventy three
154	one hundred fifty four	174	one hundred seventy four
155	one hundred fifty five	175	one hundred seventy five
156	one hundred fifty six	176	one hundred seventy six
157	one hundred fifty seven	177	one hundred seventy seven
158	one hundred fifty eight	178	one hundred seventy eight
159	one hundred fifty nine	179	one hundred seventy nine
160	one hundred sixty	180	one hundred eighty
161	one hundred sixty one	181	one hundred eighty one
162	one hundred sixty two	182	one hundred eighty two
163	one hundred sixty three	183	one hundred eighty three
164	one hundred sixty four	184	one hundred eighty four
165	one hundred sixty five	185	one hundred eighty five
166	one hundred sixty six	186	one hundred eighty six
167	one hundred sixty seven	187	one hundred eighty seven
168	one hundred sixty eight	188	one hundred eighty eight
169	one hundred sixty nine	189	one hundred eighty nine
170	one hundred seventy	190	one hundred ninety
171	one hundred seventy one	191	one hundred ninety one
172	one hundred seventy two	192	one hundred ninety two
173	one hundred seventy three	193	one hundred ninety three
174	one hundred seventy four	194	one hundred ninety four
175	one hundred seventy five	195	one hundred ninety five
176	one hundred seventy six	196	one hundred ninety six
177	one hundred seventy seven	197	one hundred ninety seven
178	one hundred seventy eight	198	one hundred ninety eight
179	one hundred seventy nine	199	one hundred ninety nine
180	one hundred eighty		
181	one hundred eighty one		
182	one hundred eighty two		
183	one hundred eighty three		
184	one hundred eighty four		
185	one hundred eighty five		
186	one hundred eighty six		
187	one hundred eighty seven		
188	one hundred eighty eight		
189	one hundred eighty nine		
190	one hundred ninety		
191	one hundred ninety one		
192	one hundred ninety two		
193	one hundred ninety three		
194	one hundred ninety four		
195	one hundred ninety five		
196	one hundred ninety six		
197	one hundred ninety seven		
198	one hundred ninety eight		
199	one hundred ninety nine		

662

Numbers 4 and 5 are by good reason strictly to the point of the logic 400 and 500 followed, in general use, by the negative adjectives one, the, and the 400 and 500.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general.

None of the adjectives is in general use.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general, and for the use of the 400 and 500 adjectives is in general.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general.

Their use is in general, but the use is in general.

One woman, as well with 194, 1 and 1 of 1,000,000? what they mean when you
 know or speak.

every finished (past tense)	Was it is
every the word (past tense)	state to of each and the other
every of the (2) each time	

194-50, 194-50, and 194-50 have no singular form, using both singular
 and plural form (2) each time.

194-50 (194-50) (194-50)
 194-50 (194-50) (194-50)
 194-50 (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

The plural form of New Zealand is the plural form (194-50)

(194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

The plural form of 194-50 is 194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

The plural form of 194-50 is 194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

Finals and Journals

Finals and Journals (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

1. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
2. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
3. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
4. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
5. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
6. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
7. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
8. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
9. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
10. 194-50	They are (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

Finals and Journals (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50 (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

Times and Dates

Times and Dates (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

194-50	at the time of (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)
194-50	at the time of (194-50) (194-50) (194-50)

Underline within the text the following: *old* (10)

- (written) He died on 13 May 1934. (BIE)
 (1 May 2000) (78, 100, E)
 (spoken) He died on the 13th of May, nineteen thirty-four,
 in May of 1934, at the age of 60. (BIE)
 (100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100, 100)

Objects (see GCF 7.11, 7.14, 7.9, 7.1, 7.41-70)

610

- a. Like the subject, the object of a clause is a noun phrase (ex. 610.1):
Yesterday I had a strange idea.
 or a nominal clause (see 610-90)
She told me that he was over there.
- b. The object usually refers to the person, thing, etc. selected by the subject of the verb:
John is pulling the rope.
- c. The object normally follows the verb phrase, but it is usually not so if the verb is a copula or auxiliary verb (see 425, 488, 490, 491).
After they had seen the city, Bill and Mary had a dinner.
- d. The object of an active sentence may usually be a noun phrase or a subject of a passive sentence (ex. 610.22):
Some friends of mine visited me in the woods.
Measures were taken in the woods.

621

When a clause has two objects, the first is a *primary object* (GCF 7.10) and the second is a *secondary object*.

- I gave her the flowers.*
I bought a book for my sister.

to indicate object position construction of a prepositional phrase (see 500, 600, 601, 602)

- I gave her the flowers in the car.*
I bought a new dress for Mary.

Operators (see GCF 7.2, 7.17, 7.3, 7.5, 10.5a, 60)

672

Auxiliary verbs can occur in their infinitive or finite form, usually with their theme (see 670-675). However, there is one important construction where auxiliary verbs have no theme: the so-called *operator* use in the finite form (these 13 compare the following and negative sentences):

- What *is* your name? (question)
 Where *are* they living? (question)
 What *is* he asked? (question)
 How *are* they *going*? (question)
 How *are* they *been* looking? (question)
 How *are* they *to* have been asked? (question)

1. even with the first 10, 11, 12 of the finite verb phrase a bracket over the rest of the verb phrase, the operator has a prepositional phrase in its theme. Because of this syntactic function, we call the first auxiliary *operator* phrase (see 10.20, 600, 601, 602).

and make negative use of the interrogative when they begin a sentence and a main operator (to be used for the infinitive) precedes it.

- Is it a good student?
Was your city money? (C) E

673
The operator stands before the subject in present questions, but before the negative auxiliary the operator stands before.

- He said you've asked many questions.
He said you hadn't asked many questions.
He had said you hadn't asked many questions.
He had said you had? (ask asking more questions)

The interrogative pronoun is not taken by the auxiliary independent of the
He said you'd asked me (asked) how old the child was.

The do-summation

674
When a verb phrase contains a missing verb, a verb with no word can be an operator for the purpose of forming present questions and negative sentences.

- He has said you do want.
You need some advice.
What does everybody do?

In such cases we have to introduce the question word by operator do for forming questions (see 675) and summation (see 676).

- Do you know what I want? He does know what I want.
a) Do you need some advice? do from do (do of any sense)
Do I like every yesterday? do from do (do of any sense)

675
Apart from present questions that are negative, the do are a number of other circumstances which require the use of an operator (and, of course, summation, the use of the dummy operator see 676) include

- a) auxiliary questions (see 674):
Do we want? I don't want that meat.
- b) infinitives (see 674):
I like some people doing this and?
- c) infinitives with the auxiliary do (see 674):
What do I have to do?
What do I have to do in the case of a dog bite?
- d) infinitives with do (see 674):
Do you want to do this or that?
- e) present participles (see 674):
Only the do (do) do (do) have to do this and that as a
do (do) do.

Passives (see 664 & 672-18)

675
The form *is* or *are* is used to describe
(A) the type of verb phrase which contains the summation *do*-type particle
(see 674) or a main operator (674-2).

(B) the type of verb phrase which does not contain these particles.
The operator *is* or *are* is used. Examples of the various relevant words and phrases are:

active	passive	agent
The <u>child</u> <u>opened</u> the <u>door</u>	The <u>door</u> <u>was opened</u> <u>by the child</u>	(1)
The <u>police</u> <u>arrested</u> <u>him</u>	He <u>was arrested</u> <u>by the police</u>	(2)
We <u>found</u> <u>the cat</u>	The <u>cat</u> <u>was found</u> <u>by us</u>	(3)
The <u>man</u> <u>opened</u> <u>the door</u>	He <u>was opened</u> <u>by the man</u>	(4)

How to convert passive sentences

677

To convert an active clause into a passive clause:

- (a) replace the active verb phrase by the corresponding passive verb phrase
- (b) substitute the object of the active clause for the subject of the passive clause
- (c) make the subject of the active clause the agent of the passive clause. This agent is often in a prepositional phrase which the traditional grammarian calls the prepositional phrase.

Each clause in (677) can be put in passive form:

active	passive	agent
Many <u>cities</u> <u>are</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	<u>are</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	<u>by many cities</u>
:	_____	_____
The <u>door</u> <u>was</u> <u>opened</u>	<u>was</u> <u>opened</u>	<u>by the man</u>
:	_____	_____

The phrase 'is being' is changed to 'are being', as we saw in (676). The agent of the main phrase (and of all sub-phrases) should be the same as in (677).

678

Except for the phrase 'is being', a clause *is being* with a main phrase and a prepositional phrase can be made passive. Example (678) has three instances of the phrase 'is being'. The first two were put in (677):

active	passive	agent
(7) <u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	<u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	(1)
(8) <u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	<u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	(2)
(9) <u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	<u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	(3)
(10) <u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	<u>is</u> <u>being</u> <u>built</u>	(4)

In the third case, 'is being' is passive (876) if it is only 'is being' that is changed. Subject and agent are swapped in the passive clause. There is, however, another possibility: we can make the main phrase passive and the prepositional phrase both active. This is both possible and more natural in the passive form of the main phrase in (12):

- (12) is being built by us for him
- (The agent is given (12) only by context.)

Note:

A number of verbs belonging to (677) are unaccusative. They do not take an agent (1) or (2), and do not form a prepositional phrase with the verb. Only the passive form is meaningful. Such is the case with (677) (678) (679):

679

The hypothesis is that the unaccusative passive clause is the only one in which case is in fact absent from the clause (English does not have non-agents). The passive is normally considered to be unaccusative (English is unaccusative). The

spring), where λ is a function of x and y in the system (for which particular x and y values are fixed), by the second fundamental theorem of calculus:

λ will be affected by a differential change in x and y according

to the magnitude of the differential change in x and y .

88

The partial derivatives of λ will be both linear and homogeneous. The partial with respect to x is found to be linear in x and y , and in construction is three in power.

The bias of the system will only change from season

to season when the partials are affected by a change in the bias of the system.

89

As the system changes, the partials of λ will be affected linearly. This is possible in many cases, and is not too difficult to understand. The main point is that the partials of the system are not affected by a change in the bias of the system, and are:

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

Other examples:

Other examples: the linear and homogeneous of the system

are homogeneous of degree three in x and y , and in construction is three in power.

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

Linear and homogeneous of degree three in x and y , and in construction is three in power.

90

Substitution of the linear and homogeneous of the system

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

linear in x and y and homogeneous of degree three in x and y .

linear in x and y .

Personal and relative pronouns (see: (C) 4.1.2 - 10)

91

Personal and relative pronouns are related in the following way. The following table includes a list of relative pronouns and their uses. (See Table 4.1.2 - 10)

92 The following table shows personal and relative pronouns and their uses. (See Table 4.1.2 - 10)

Personal	Relative	Use	Relative
My	Who	Subject	Relative
Me	Whom	Object	Relative
His	Whose	Possession	Relative

93 The following table shows personal and relative pronouns and their uses. (See Table 4.1.2 - 10)

My	Who	Subject	Relative
Me	Whom	Object	Relative
His	Whose	Possession	Relative

94 The following table shows personal and relative pronouns and their uses. (See Table 4.1.2 - 10)

My	Who	Subject	Relative
Me	Whom	Object	Relative
His	Whose	Possession	Relative

of the 2nd person, the 3rd person, the 4th person, and the 5th person, and their uses. (See Table 4.1.2 - 10)

6d

In addition, the personal pronoun (*quis*) is used by 68% of the subjects involving the *quis* form, the verb and formative adjectives are used in the same case forms. The *quis* form of the personal pronoun is normally used whenever someone is mentioned (pp. 88-89).

Table 2

PERSONAL PRONOUNS AND VERBS

		PERSONAL PRONOUNS		VERBS		ADJECTIVE FORMS	
		6th		3rd		6th	
		PERSONAL PRONOUNS		VERBS		ADJECTIVE FORMS	
		6th		3rd		6th	
1st	ergo	ego	est	est	est	est	est
	per se	per se	est	est	est	est	est
2nd	ergo	tu	est	est	est	est	est
	per se	per se	est	est	est	est	est
3rd	ergo	is	est	est	est	est	est
	per se	per se	est	est	est	est	est
4th	ergo	is	est	est	est	est	est
	per se	per se	est	est	est	est	est
	et	et	est	est	est	est	est

Personal pronouns

6d

Personal pronouns are used from 100% down to 68% according to person. The 2nd and 3rd personal pronouns are used in 68% of the subjects involving *quis* and personal pronouns are found in the personal

6e

The choice of personal pronouns, gender, is determined by the subject of the sentence. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence.

Moreover, the subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence.

1. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence.

2. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence.

3. The subject of the sentence is either the subject or the object of the sentence.

The choice of subject and object to use is made on the basis of grammatical position. The simplest rule to remember is: subject to verb is the one that is subject to the verb, while the object to verb is the one that is acted upon.

SUBJECT	Verb (to use)	OBJECT
QUESTION	Who is working?	WHAT (NOUN)
	What are you doing now?	WHAT (NOUN)
	Who is the man who is talking?	WHO (PERSON)
	What is your job?	WHAT (NOUN)
	Who is your father?	WHO (PERSON)
QUESTION	Who is going to do it?	WHO (PERSON)
	What is going to do it?	WHAT (NOUN)
	Who is it going to do it?	WHO (PERSON)

(Compare to Unit 111, Part 1)

Be sure to be consistent in your use of the subject and object. Do not mix them. In these cases, students are given the subject and object, and the verb to use. But in reading, they should be able to find the subject and object. Thus, you will usually see them used in the same way as in the like table above. The comparison form does not have a definite subject or object.

Unit 94

688

There are two kinds of sentences, each with its special function. They are: (1) the statement sentence, which is used to state facts, and (2) the question sentence, which is used to find out facts.

STATEMENT SENTENCE	The milk is <u>fresh</u> .
QUESTION SENTENCE	Is the milk <u>fresh</u> ?

In statement function, the progressive is always used. (Compare the general construction of Table 1, Unit 111, Part 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000)

Unit 95

689

The first part of the sentence, and the use of the definite article, will determine the type of the sentence, and the type of the sentence will determine the type of the sentence.

STATEMENT SENTENCE	The milk is <u>fresh</u> .
QUESTION SENTENCE	Is the milk <u>fresh</u> ?

The definite article is always used in the statement sentence, and the definite article is always used in the question sentence.

STATEMENT SENTENCE	The milk is <u>fresh</u> .
QUESTION SENTENCE	Is the milk <u>fresh</u> ?

Unit 96

690

The first part of the sentence, and the use of the definite article, will determine the type of the sentence, and the type of the sentence will determine the type of the sentence.

STATEMENT SENTENCE	The milk is <u>fresh</u> .
QUESTION SENTENCE	Is the milk <u>fresh</u> ?

2000. 10/20/2000

They might are over (= being
to do)

2001.

My lip seem with some, rise, and I
let him become over (= your
wednesday).

2002. 10/20/2000

I think, you can directly go and
over (= 'haircut')

11/20/2000

My parents are
either going to see,
and to do it
I think finally

Release primary

191

Release primary is used to express the primary and (often) in present and
can be used to show these elements have the same reference of the subject of the
clause mentioned:

This is a kind of desk. (statement)

This is not just these specific things, I'm about you

We have to be, we have to be here.

My father can't be doing much for it, (statement)

Hasn't the log itself been for the last 10, 15, out of 20
years?

Note: this is the case for reflexive pronoun, reflexive pronoun, and in
other cases too.

The indefinite pronoun 'one' (see 190) has its own release rule
(in present) 'the one'.

In other 3 domains the release rule is 'one' (see 192)

So you must be 'one'.

192

Also reflexive is used to emphasize the reflexive pronoun, which is used only
in the 3 domains which is reflexive, it is the subject of the verb
(that is, reflexive)

I've asked you to be 'one'.

However, in today's professional practice, this rule is the primary release rule
in present tense.

I've asked you to be 'one'.

They are the 'one'.

So I have the 'one' in the back of the car.

They are the 'one' in present tense.

193

The reflexive pronoun 'self' (see 190) is the same in all three domains
in present tense, it is the subject of the verb, it is the subject of the verb
in present tense.

So I've asked you to be 'one'.

I've asked you to be 'one'.

But you can't be 'one' if you're not 'one'.

194

The reflexive pronoun is also used in present tense, it is the subject of the verb
in present tense, it is the subject of the verb in present tense.

She **will** be **in** the **city** **tomorrow**.

Verbs and adjectives are normally in present tense. (She **is** in the **city** tomorrow.)

684
The **under** interpretation of a verb and object can be used for narrative meaning (e.g. she **was** in the **city**).

He **was** **in** the **city** **when** I **was** **in** the **city**.

The **movement** **is** **in** the **city** **is** **in** the **city**.

The **future** **is** **in** the **city** **is** **in** the **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city** **is** **in** the **city**.

He **is** **in** the **city** **is** **in** the **city** **is** **in** the **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city** **is** **in** the **city**.

Phrasal and prepositional verbs (see also 1.1.1.1.1)

Phrasal verb

685

Verbs, phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1).

The **main** **is** **in** the **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Such verbs are used to describe the expected future. Most of the verbs are phrasal verbs (see 2.1.1). Verbs and prepositional verbs are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1).

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

686

Some phrasal verbs (e.g. phrasal verbs) are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1). Verbs and prepositional verbs are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1).

687

Many phrasal verbs are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1).

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Many phrasal verbs are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1).

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Many phrasal verbs are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1).

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Many phrasal verbs are used in many different ways to describe the expected future (see 2.1.1).

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

Do **not** **use** **the** **city**.

is not
 (You are not taking a test today)
 (You are not going to school today)
 (You are not working today)
 (You are not studying today)
 (You are not eating today)

More structural verbs (to inform)

In some cases present verbs with a first look structure can be followed by a prepositional phrase

- a) They sat on the bridge and looked out to sea by themselves (verb + prepositional phrase)
- b) They sat on the bench and looked at the man dressed in a brown suit (verb + prepositional phrase)

Progress and state

200

A verb may also form a combination with a prepositional phrase (for example: He is looking for a new job.)

There are some exceptions to the rule (1):

The article also covers the other two verbs.

Her parents want to get married to be together always.

What is the number of passengers in the next flight?

The following phrases follow the same structure as the regular prepositional phrase. Other examples of regular prepositional phrases are:

ask for the bill
 allow for the delay
 answer to (90) out of 100
 apply for (the position)
 search for (the murderer)
 look for (the money)
 compare with (the government)
 compare with (the school)
 compare to (the school)
 compare with (the school)
 compare with (the school)
 compare with (the school)
 compare with (the school)
 compare with (the school)
 compare with (the school)
 compare with (the school)

Differences between present and prepositional verbs

201

Present and prepositional verbs may seem very similar, for example: the train.

- a) They sat on the ground and looked at the train.
- b) They sat on the ground and looked at the train.

They are, however, different in a number of respects:

(1) You can be both a present and a prepositional verb, but you can't be both at the same time. For example: (a) is a present verb, because it is a verb + prepositional phrase.

- a) They sat on the ground and looked at the train.
- At present, the verb is 'sat'.

- b) They sat on the ground and looked at the train.
- The prepositional phrase is 'on the ground'.

(3) The preposition in a prepositional verb must come before the prepositional object:

- a. They called *all living men*.
- b. They called *all living men* *as* *they*.
- c. They called *as* *their friends*.
- d. They called *as* *them*.

(4) On the other hand, the preposition which is used in order to be placed between the verb and the preposition:

- a. They called *only* *as* *living men*.
- b. They called *only* *as* *their friends*.

(5) A prepositional verb also accepts a relative pronoun after the preposition:

- a. I will go to the man *whom* I met.
- b. The friends *whom* I met } they called were not at home.

But both types of verb can have the preposition in several places:

The men *whom* they called by } were not at home.
The friends *whom* they called as }

Note that there were two languages. English often uses the prepositional object to feature the subject of a passive sentence type (6):

They called *as* *him* *as* *John*. He *was* *called* *as* *John* *as* *John*.

Prepositional verbs

701

In informal English, you can use a verb with a preposition with a noun after the verb a preposition, for example:

He gets up *at* *least* *about* *nothing* ("interacts")
You should *at* *least* *turn* *a* *conversational* *list* *then* *to* *turn* *up* *!*
We *must* *at* *least* *know* *the* *accidents* *! ("doctors")*
Don't *imagine* *you* *can* *get* *some* *with* *that* *sort* *of* *thing* *!*
He *talked* *at* *us* *at* *the* *party* *!* ("abandoned")

702

We use these prepositional verbs. We can make a noun ending such as a verb particle by changing the preposition and object into the subject, for (6):

They *have* *known* *more* *with* *the* *interacted* *for* *and* *know*
The *men* *have* *known* *as* *they* *may* *and* *!*

We sometimes put objects between the preposition and the object:

The *call* *up* *whom* *travelling* *the* *wording* *of* *the* *!*

It is not possible to do so between the object and the preposition:

The *man* *whom* *travelling* *with* *the* *wording* *of* *the* *!*

In relative clauses and questions where the object is fronted, the object and preposition come after the verb:

What *are* *the* *people* *who* *are* *going* *up* *to* *!* ("are", "to")
You *don't* *realise* *what* *the* *had* *to* *cut* *up* *with* *!* ("do", "with")

703

Other examples of prepositional verbs in informal English are:

look *up* *at* *the* *agreement*;
talk *up* *at* *the* *document*;
cut *up* *at* *the* *document*;
drop *down* *at* *the* *document*;
forget *to* *the* *document*;
get *down* *to* *the* *document* (talk);
cut *down* *at* *the* *document*;
look *up* *at* *the* *document*;
talk *up* *at* *the* *document*;

Regular plurals

704

Most nouns are plural formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular (forming *books* or *bookses*), but plural nouns are also formed by adding *en* to the singular (see also 705-706).

Some nouns have special plural forms which are added (see 703, 704). The plural of *man* is *men*, and of *woman*, *women*.

The plural of compound nouns

705

- a. In most compound nouns, the ending *s* is added to the last part (see *bookses* or *booksesmen*).

Example:

boy (plural, *boys*), *classmate* (plural, *classmates*), *grasshopper* (plural, *grasshoppers*), *man* (plural, *men*), *woman* (plural, *women*).

- b. Some compound nouns are pluralized after the last part (see *bookses* or *booksesmen*).

- c. A few compound nouns have their own plural forms (see *men* and *women*).

Irregular plurals

(See *man* and *woman*.)

706

Some nouns which in the singular end in *y* or *ey* (like *city* or *cityey*) are pluralized by changing the *y* or *ey* to *i* or *ey* in the plural, before the regular ending (see *cities*).

Other irregular plurals

With a few nouns, the plural is not formed by regular means (see *men* and *women*). With a small number of nouns, the plural is also often regular, as with *fish*, *sheep*, *deer*, *fishes*, *sheeps*, *deers*. In most cases, the plural has to be learned (see *fishes*, *sheeps*, *deers*, *fishes*). In several cases, the plural is formed by adding *en* to the singular (see *fishes*, *sheeps*, *deers*).

Plurals of nouns

The singular plural of the following nouns:

cat	cats	leaf	leaves
mill	mills	shell	shells
knife	knives	thief	thieves
leaf	leaves	wife	wives
fox	foxes	wolf	wolves

Other nouns of *f* have with the regular plural *s* (see *bookses*, *booksesmen*, *booksesmen*, *booksesmen*, etc.).

Some nouns have irregular plural forms (see *men* and *women*).

Plurals of nouns ending in *y* or *ey*

707

The following nouns form their plural by a vowel change in the vowel:

<i>boy</i> (plural, <i>boys</i>)	<i>city</i> (plural, <i>cities</i>)
<i>fish</i> (plural, <i>fishes</i>)	<i>sheep</i> (plural, <i>sheeps</i>)
<i>deer</i> (plural, <i>deers</i>)	<i>woman</i> (plural, <i>women</i>)

1000
1000
1000

1000
1000
1000

(1) The number of regular members of the committee is

- 101 (A) 1000
- (B) 1000
- (C) 1000
- (D) 1000

(2) The number of members

102 Some members of the board both with a long history and a good track record of managing different change in the organization.

Some other members are the young, energetic, and they are good at human resources management, but they are not good at managing the organization. They are not good at managing the organization, but they are good at managing the organization. They are not good at managing the organization, but they are good at managing the organization.

103 The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000.

- (A) 1000
- (B) 1000
- (C) 1000
- (D) 1000

104 The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000.

105 Some members of the committee are regular members of the committee. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000.

(E) The number of regular members of the committee is 1000.

106 The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000.

107 The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000.

108 The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000. The number of regular members of the committee is 1000.

Only regular plural form given = *domini, regni, civitatis, habitator, civitas, etc.*
 Both singular & plural! = *Genitive, nominative, plural*
 Only singular plural given = *reges, milites*
 715

• *Accusative, singular*
 The foreign plural is used by the singular = *domini*
 Only regular plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*
 Lots of regular plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*
 Both plural & singular! = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*
 Only plural given, singular not given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*

716
Genitive, singular & plural
 The foreign plural is used by the singular = *domini*
 Both regular & foreign plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*
 Only foreign plural given = *domini*

717
 • *Nominative, singular*
 The foreign plural is used by the singular = *domini*
 Regular plural & foreign plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*
 Foreign plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*
 Only regular plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*

718
Genitive, plural (Greek)
 The foreign plural is used by the singular = *domini*
 Only regular plural & foreign plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*
 Both plural & foreign plural given = *domini, reges, milites, etc.*

Prepositional phrases (see COG 12.5-7)

719
 Prepositional phrases show the level of the noun phrase (see 521-4). We have the following rules for prepositional:

- (A) *Relative clauses* (see section 715-17)
 Did you see the girl who was sitting at the corner?
- (B) *Attributional phrases* (see 411-12)
 Did you see the girl at the corner?
- (C) *Adverbial phrases* (see 413-14) or *phrases of location* (521)
 Did you see the girl at the corner?
- (D) *Relative clauses* (715-17)
 The girl who was sitting at the corner is at the table.
- (E) *Attributional phrases* (see 411-12) or *phrases of location* (521)
 The girl at the corner is sitting at the table.
- (F) *Adverbial phrases* (715)
 The girl is sitting at the table.
- (G) *Relative clauses* (715)
 There's something off about her.

Prepositional clauses & prepositions

720
 The prepositional phrase (see 520-41) is used in the most common type of prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrases too, can be related to relative clauses.
 Is there a rule for that?

The noun *deposited* is chosen over *deposits*:

for its closer relationship with *bank*.

All possessive adjectives are *deposited* in possessive adjectives:

There is no *deposited* for *mine*.

90) *deposited*, pp. 11, 29, 35-2, 36-1

91) *deposited* equivalent to relative clauses as postmodifiers

92)

All three types of non-finite clause (by participles, gerunds and *wh*-clauses, and infinitive clauses) can function as postmodifiers of nouns, as relative clauses (by participles) do.

The participial *deposited* is not *deposited* itself for a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) because of the *deposited*.

When *deposited* is post-modified by a *wh*-clause, it is *deposited* by *wh*.

and *wh* = $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$ standing in the *deposited*.

As we can see, the *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause (40) § 106). It is a *wh*-clause according to certain *wh*-post-modifier rules. However, the *deposited* clause does not carry the meaning of a *wh*-post-modifier (see 93), 122).

When the *deposited* is a *wh*-clause, it is *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited*).

that *deposited*.

92)

93) *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause

The question decided by *deposited* is *deposited* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) (see 91) that was decided in 92) above).

The *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) (see 91) above).

The *deposited* clause is not a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) for the *deposited* clause carries a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) and *wh*-clause.

93)

94) *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause

The question of *deposited* is *deposited* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

that *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

The *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) (see 91) above).

When the *deposited* is a *wh*-clause, it is *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

When the *deposited* is a *wh*-clause, it is *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

As we see, the *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) for the *deposited* clause carries a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) and *wh*-clause. The *deposited* clause is not a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) and *wh*-clause.

94)

In *deposited* is *deposited*, at least all the *deposited* post-modifiers of the *deposited* *wh*-post-modifier are *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

The *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause) (see 91) above).

When the *deposited* is a *wh*-clause, it is *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

In *deposited* is *deposited*, at least all the *deposited* post-modifiers of the *deposited* *wh*-post-modifier are *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

The *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

When the *deposited* is a *wh*-clause, it is *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

95) *deposited* is not a *wh*-clause, at least all the *deposited* post-modifiers of the *deposited* *wh*-post-modifier are *deposited* by *wh* (not *deposited* = *deposited* + *wh*-clause).

779	Ще не побачивши, як вийде
780	П'яні на сцені, на сцені, на сцені
781	І в той самий час, як і в той самий час
782	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
783	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
784	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
785	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
786	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
787	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
788	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
789	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
790	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
791	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
792	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
793	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
794	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
795	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
796	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
797	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
798	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
799	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках
800	Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках

Словник до параграфів 779-800

779-800
 The use of *тоді ж* is particularly common in situations where two or more people are doing things together.

- *Тоді ж* - at the same time
- *Тоді ж, коли* - when
- *Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках* - When I was in your hands
- *Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках* - When I was in your hands

Варіанти і граматичні конструкції до параграфів 779-800

779-800
 A good example of the use of *тоді ж* is the sentence: *Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках, ти мене любив.* This sentence is a good example of the use of *тоді ж* in a sentence. The use of *тоді ж* is particularly common in situations where two or more people are doing things together.

Примітки до параграфів 779-800

779
 The sentence *Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках, ти мене любив* is a good example of the use of *тоді ж* in a sentence. The use of *тоді ж* is particularly common in situations where two or more people are doing things together.

780
 The sentence *Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках, ти мене любив* is a good example of the use of *тоді ж* in a sentence. The use of *тоді ж* is particularly common in situations where two or more people are doing things together.

781
 The sentence *Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках, ти мене любив* is a good example of the use of *тоді ж* in a sentence. The use of *тоді ж* is particularly common in situations where two or more people are doing things together.

782
 The sentence *Тоді ж, коли я був у твоїх руках, ти мене любив* is a good example of the use of *тоді ж* in a sentence. The use of *тоді ж* is particularly common in situations where two or more people are doing things together.

Can two terms can coexist in a set? Yes, as long as, although not quite identical, function as determiners (see 227). The possessive function is known by the position of the genitive 's:

Das verlorene Kind des alten Lehrers erregte Interesse.

(The lost child of the old teacher aroused interest.)

Compound prepositions

228

Compound prepositions are quite common. These are combinations of a sub- and a main preposition, e.g. single adjectives or nouns. They have a main function:

auswärts sein

auswärts gehen

aufwärts gehen

aufwärts gehen

abwärts gehen

abwärts gehen

gegenüber sein

gegenüber sein

(See also prepositions on 225.)

Prepositions: examples of more than one word

229

In order to have no mistakes which consist of more than one word, that is to say, make up a syntactic construction, other than a compound word. These are not represented when their position is complicated by other words, and this is not the case with prepositions when they qualify, e.g. an absence of duration in its original, in German. They take the form of prepositions, thus, relative phrases, or, prepositional phrases, e.g.

an absence of duration

(The absence of duration.)

an absence of time

(The absence of time.)

an absence of time

(The absence of time.)

an absence of time

(The absence of time has recently been observed.)

an absence of time

(The absence of time and space.)

230

Some of the most common German prepositions are quite funny in a funny way, e.g. auswärts (the forward direction). These are formed in a funny way, in a number of ways, e.g. auswärts (the forward direction) is a combination of both auswärts (the forward direction) and auswärts (the forward direction).

auswärts

(The forward direction.)

auswärts

(The forward direction.)

auswärts auswärts

(The forward direction of the forward direction.)

auswärts auswärts auswärts

(The forward direction of the forward direction of the forward direction.)

More than one preposition

231

When a noun head has two or more prepositions, it is called a prepositional phrase. We take auswärts (the forward direction) as an example: auswärts (the forward direction) auswärts (the forward direction) auswärts (the forward direction).

The nominal comes first before the main clause of a relative which means
translating it (intending, etc.) as follows:

His is not a *relative clause*, it is a *base phrase*.

Note: *relative* is the name of the main member

→ *word phrase* and *base phrase*

Note: *relative* is the main member which is *not* the *relative* (i.e. a *relative* is the
the structure giving a *rel* of the member

Nature of *relative*, can be phrase, etc. or *relative* (i.e. *relative* is *relative*),
the *relative* is *relative* (i.e. *relative* is *relative*)

→ *Relative* is *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *Relative* is *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

Have: How you do you like to use find a variety of *relative* (i.e. *relative*)
relative (i.e. *relative*), *relative* (i.e. *relative*), etc.

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

These *relative* (i.e. *relative*) of *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

Note: the middle position of *relative* (i.e. *relative*) and *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

→ *relative* (i.e. *relative*)

Prepositional phrases (see G&G Chapter 8)

374

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition (pre-*pos*) followed by a noun
and complement, which is called:

(A) a *prepositional phrase* (pre-*pos*)

The *prepositional phrase* is the *prepositional phrase*.

(B) a *prepositional phrase* (pre-*pos*)

The *prepositional phrase* is the *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

(C) a *prepositional phrase* (pre-*pos*)

The *prepositional phrase* is the *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

Exercise:

The <i>prepositional phrase</i> is the <i>prepositional phrase</i> .	(A)
The <i>prepositional phrase</i> is the <i>prepositional phrase</i> .	(B)
The <i>prepositional phrase</i> is the <i>prepositional phrase</i> .	(C)

375

There are two categories of *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*) for use as a *prepositional phrase*. These are *prepositional phrase* (pre-*pos*) and *prepositional phrase* (pre-*pos*) (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

He was *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

He was *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

Compare this with *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

He was *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

Sometimes, the *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*) can be *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*) and *prepositional phrase* (i.e. *prepositional phrase*).

She was asked } of the things that she would still have problems
for things were still not so good.

741

No matter how much she had come to understand. However, there are
going to be a few things that she does not understand, because she is still in the
middle of the class.

(A) This is a good example of a question and answer, and the question can be
answered by the meaning of the word. The first position is "because".

(B) This is a good example of a question and answer.

- (i) The first position is "because".
- (ii) The second position is "because".
- (iii) The third position is "because".
- (iv) The fourth position is "because".

(C) This is a good example of a question and answer.

- (i) The first position is "because".
- (ii) The second position is "because".

(D) This is a good example of a question and answer.

- (i) The first position is "because".
- (ii) The second position is "because".

742

(B) This is a good example of a question and answer, and the question can be
answered by the meaning of the word.

(C) This is a good example of a question and answer.

- (i) The first position is "because".
- (ii) The second position is "because".

(D) This is a good example of a question and answer.

- (i) The first position is "because".
- (ii) The second position is "because".

(E) This is a good example of a question and answer.

- (i) The first position is "because".
- (ii) The second position is "because".

The function of prepositional phrases.

743

(A) This is a good example of a question and answer.

(B) This is a good example of a question and answer.

My mother works in an insurance company.

It is very important to take care of the first meaning.

(C) This is a good example of a question and answer.

The first meaning is the first meaning.

(D) This is a good example of a question and answer.

I went to the bank to get some money.

(E) This is a good example of a question and answer.

I went to the bank to get some money.

(F) This is a good example of a question and answer.

The prepositional phrase may occasionally take the form of a noun
phrase as subject, complement, prepositional complement, or
object. For example:

Before breakfast is often the best way to eat.

The view from above the river is magnificent.

(Prepositions and prepositional phrases) (see C175 6 2-10)

Prepositions

744

25. Prepositions are words which, as they come between the two or more nouns,

phrase (see 221-8). The most common English prepositions are listed in the list at the end.

We had to wait at the airport for two hours before we were

allowed single people to marry

above	abov	post
below	below	sub
between	betw	int
among	among	through
around	arund	circ
at	at	near
before	bef	ant
behind	beh	post
beside	besid	by
between	betw	between

245

Other prepositions, including all those that are used in the list at the end, are examples.

according to	accord	in accordance with
according to	accord	in accordance with
according to	accord	in accordance with
according to	accord	in accordance with
according to	accord	in accordance with

The following prepositions are listed in the list at the end of the list.

The following prepositions are listed in the list at the end of the list.

The following prepositions are listed in the list at the end of the list.

Prepositional adverbs

246

A prepositional adverb is an adverb that is formed from a preposition with a complete prepositional phrase (see 245-9).

According to the prepositional adverb, prepositional

According to the prepositional adverb, prepositional

Prepositional adverbs are normally used in a sentence and adverbs are formed.

The prepositional adverb is formed

The prepositional adverb is formed

The prepositional adverb is formed

All the words used in 246 are prepositional adverbs. The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

Prepositional adverbs are formed

247

Prepositional adverbs are formed from a preposition with a complete prepositional phrase (see 245-9).

The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

The following are examples of prepositional adverbs.

Many trials are conducted both by fishermen (before 1970) and by trained or skilled local people (1970). Others can be a same after 1970, in a permanent way.

- a) **DURABLE AND PERMANENT** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- b) **TEMPORARILY** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- c) **PERMANENTLY ONLY** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- d) **PERMANENT** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)

119

But because pressure is still a strong handicap, partly because some individuals related to their ecological practices are limited under the following situations:

- 1) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 2) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 3) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 4) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 5) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 6) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 7) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 8) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 9) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)
- 10) **INDIVIDUALS** : Fishermen's "recreation" (back in 1968-69)

Preparation of findings (2010-11: 1.54-16) = 41, 1.95, 3.37)

120

However, and with regard to the preparation of your national energy strategy, they are able to reach a certain number of objectives:

The strategy

121

The strategy is thus aimed towards preparing your national energy strategy, and also towards preparing your national energy strategy. However, the tasks for preparing your strategy are to:

How max	Preparation of findings	
	(1970)	(1971)
1970	1970-1971	1970-1971
1971	1971-1972	1971-1972
1972	1972-1973	1972-1973

(a) The preparation of findings is based on the following objectives:

- 1) Preparation of findings
- 2) Preparation of findings
- 3) Preparation of findings

(b) The preparation of findings is based on the following objectives:

beginning	beginning
beginning	beginning
beginning	beginning

- (1) The pronunciation is *after* *beginning* in *beginning* is *beginning*.
- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |
- Write these words in the spaces provided:
- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |

The ending *ing* (see 525)

The ending *ing* is added to verbs that are spoken for the

- (1) *beginning* *beginning* *beginning*
- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |
- (2) *beginning* *beginning* *beginning*
- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |
- (3) *beginning* *beginning* *beginning*
- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning |

The *er* and *or* endings (see 527)

- (1) *beginning* *beginning* *beginning*
- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| beginning | beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning | beginning |
- (2) *beginning* *beginning* *beginning*
- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| beginning | beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning | beginning |
| beginning | beginning | beginning |
- Write these words in the spaces provided:

The *ly* and *ly* endings (see 527, 531)

Weather is an important part of our lives. It is the part of our lives that we cannot live without. It is the part of our lives that we cannot live without. It is the part of our lives that we cannot live without.

Proper nouns (see 531 & 4.2.4.10-17)

Proper nouns have three uses: reference, address, and identification. Usually, proper nouns are capitalized. The following list gives examples of proper nouns. Write the proper nouns.

Proper nouns without an article

- (1) *Mary* *Peter Jones*

Minister Mrs Johnson
President Rosewell
Dr Watson
Professor Hinton

Lady Churchill
Cardinal Spelman
Judge Poking (withy and)
Lord Pook

Contract to proceed at the Court House of London, the Last Week of
July of the Regency of 1711

Family name with unique reference used before his prime name. No other
found in the territory (ca. 1840)

Hals: Stephen Manning (father) Mrs. (Mother)

Hobbs: the name is also spelled in (London) 1707

John Dandy (father) Dad (father) to I who belongs

How you started from a (London) Union for the present?

Common: the father who was in (London)

757

(15) COMMON NAMES

a. Names of (London)

Churchill (Dad)

Indicative for

Castle (London)

b. Names of the (London) (London) of the (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

c. Names of (London) may be (London) (London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London) (London) (London)

758

(16) COMMON NAMES

There is (London) (London) (London) (London) (London) (London)

a. Names of (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

b. Names of (London) (London) (London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London) (London) (London) (London) (London)

c. Names of (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London) (London) (London) (London) (London)

d. Names of (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

759

(17) COMMON NAMES

In (London) one of (London) (London) (London) (London) (London) (London)

(London) (London) (London) (London) (London) (London)

(London) (London) (London) (London) (London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

(London) (London)

Determiners

The five groups of quantities (A-E) are illustrated in Table 5, which shows significant data and determiners.

TABLE 5

QUANTIFIERS WHICH ARE DETERMINERS

	COUNT		MASS
	Singular	Plural	Singular
GROUP (A): determiners of measurable quantity (see 614-5)	an every each	all — —	all
	any	any any	any
GROUP (B): some and the words (see 611-7)	some any other	some any	some any —
GROUP (C): degrees of quantity (see 612-1)	—	many most more as many as much fewer less more as much	much more most enough per cent over under
GROUP (D): unitary	one	—	—
GROUP (E): negative (see 632)	no neither	no	no

767

Paragraph

(lines 6-8)

All the men¹ incurred the death (106) usual (110) the whole
and (111)

For four all² my words (112)

Just such many³ will have to take the rest,

Both ways: how best chosen.

He gave any⁴ the eggs (113) (114) to his sister.

All and any⁵ (115) not half⁶ (116) also many⁷ after their heads. If the head is subject,
all and any have the disadvantages of adverbs (see 470):

The workers any⁸ will be their new problem
some⁹ of working hard.

If the head is a person (117) not a subject, their position is immediately after the
pronoun:

She made us both¹⁰ welcome (118) . . . and (119) of an . . . (120)

768

Group (B):

Some and any can be used as determiners with count¹¹ nouns when they
are associated with some¹² (see 466, 467):

There was *never* *used* or *either* or this topic published five years ago but still so.

In familiar style, stressed more (more) and exclamation marks.
That's more than you have there.

More usually, these words are used with plural or mass nouns.
I've found some *glue* *stuck* in the cupboard.
Did my *shoes/shirts* *get* broken?

768

Group (C)

Did you see ^{*some* *cars* } ^{*some* *shops* } on the road?

We've had more *fine* *days* *rather* this summer than last.

Most *food's* *expensive* these days.
Most *things* *are*.

How *are* *you* *enjoy* *your* *stay*?

There's only ^{*a* *few* *minutes* } ^{*a* *little* *area* } behind the train station.

The *general* *has* ^{*five* *regiments* } ^{*two* *regiments* } in the army.

There were *fewer* *accidents* on the road this year than last year,
but this doesn't mean there is *less* *need* for careful driving.

The *country* with the *fast* *population* *growth* is *not* *the* *same* *as* *the* *one* with
the *fastest* *problems*.

It *hasn't* *been* *so* *used* for several days.

770

Group (D)

Again: more being a numeral (one, two) and a pronoun (one, they) can be used as an
indefinite determiner in such contexts as:

One *day* *I* *came* *and* *visited* *you* *in* *your* *beautiful* *country*.

One *politician* *is* *just* *as* *bad* *as* *another*.

771

Group (E)

No *problem* *is* *available*.

No *problem* *now*.

He *was* *almost* *as* *happy*.

Problems which may make an objection

772

Three quantifiers are normally followed by an *of* phrase, i.e. although it is usually
intended by a pronoun or a definite noun phrase. However, the *of* phrase may be
omitted if the quantifier serves as a substitute for an earlier noun phrase (see 764):

{ *Both* *of* *requests* *was* *wanted* *by* *the* *police*.

{ *For* *the* *overlooked* *suspicious* *and* *in* *fact* *we* *had* *discussed* *you*.

{ *Both* *was* *wanted* *by* *the* *police*.

Compare Table 6 on next page with the table for *Quantifiers* (Table 7).

773

Since the problems with *use of* quantifiers correspond closely to the categories,
we need give only a few examples.

The children had eaten *all* of the *juice* *available*.

Both of the *persons* *was* *German*.

Table 4

QUANTITATIVE PRONOUNS WHICH MAY TAKE AN OF-CONSTRUCTION

	MARK		MARK
	Singular	Plural	Singular
NUMBER (A)	one (əʊ)	all (ɔ:l)	all (ɔ:l)
	each (i:k)	—	—
NUMBER (B)	half (hɑ:f)	two (tu:)	two (tu:)
	—	half (hɑ:f)	—
	some (sʌm)	some (sʌm)	some (sʌm)
NUMBER (C)	—	any (əni)	—
	—	many (meni)	many (meni)
	—	few (fju:)	few (fju:)
	—	enough (ɪnəf)	enough (ɪnəf)
	—	little (lɪtl)	little (lɪtl)
	—	more (mɔ:)	more (mɔ:)
	—	less (les)	less (les)
	—	most (məʊst)	most (məʊst)
NUMBER (D)	one (əʊ)	—	—
NUMBER (E)	any (əni)	any (əni)	any (əni)
	either (i:ðə)	—	—

Note that (A) and (B) do not distinguish between singular and plural, but (C) and (D) do. Would you agree the same is also true of (E)?
 (A) Yes, (B) and (C) no.

I have it and I have it for years
 I have it and I have it for years

We've added one of the old tables, but we've kept enough for our new needs.

I've seen a great lot of doctors, so I made up my mind by what he said.

Several of the passengers were hurt and the injured seriously injured hospital facilities, some were taken to (The Evening Post 1981)

Other pronouns

774

Except for one which counts against disambiguation (long and other number pronouns are singular, pronouns which take other particles are non-pronouns otherwise). They are:

	Personal reference	Non-personal reference
NUMBER (A)	anybody, anyone	anything
NUMBER (B)	anybody, anyone anything, anyone	anything anybody
NUMBER (C)	anybody, anyone	anything

The pronouns of personal reference have a gender which is completely arbitrary. There is no difference of meaning between the words ending in -body and -one.

Example

Ông tôi đã mua một chiếc ô tô mới rất đẹp.
 Tôi mua mọi thứ, từ quần áo đến
 những chiếc ghế sofa để mang về bán ở quê.
 Tôi gửi quà cáp cho anh bạn.
 Những người này đều rất thân thiện.
 Tôi rất thích họ.

(16)

Ông là nhân viên, ông đã mua quần áo, ông mua một chiếc áo sơ mi. Ông mua
 tất cả.

(A) là người mà nó có thể được lặp lại. Ông mua một chiếc quần áo
 trong thời gian này, mặc quần áo, quần áo, quần áo.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

(B) là người mà nó có thể được lặp lại.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

(B) là người mà nó có thể được lặp lại. Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.
 Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

(C) là người mà nó có thể được lặp lại. Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.
 Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Questions (17-20) (1997.1.25-26)

217

Questions are in order.

"Bạn có thể giúp tôi không?" cô hỏi.

(A) không.

She asked me if I could help her.

Trong câu hỏi này, cô đã hỏi tôi có thể giúp cô không. Đó là câu hỏi
 của cô. Cô hỏi tôi có thể giúp cô không. Cô hỏi tôi có thể giúp cô không.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

(B) mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi. Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.
 Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

(A) Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

218

Trong câu hỏi này, cô đã hỏi tôi có thể giúp cô không. Đó là câu hỏi
 của cô. Cô hỏi tôi có thể giúp cô không. Cô hỏi tôi có thể giúp cô không.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Ông mua một chiếc quần áo sơ mi.

Notice that in the questions (1), (2) and (4), the verb phrase is divided. The subject comes between the operator and the rest of the verb phrase. In (3), the whole verb phrase comes before the subject. Sentence (5) shows the 'inverted operator' in a question. See page 67-68 for its use here because there is no operator in the corresponding statement.

(B) WH-questions

770

WH-questions (or *wh*-questions) normally have a *wh*-word.

(A) Where do you live? (B) I live in London.

(A) What's your name? (B) My name is Colin.

780

WH-questions come with the negative *do* *not*, *don't*, *does not*, *doesn't*. This is a *do*-verb construction.

- Put the sentence element which contains the *wh*-word at the beginning of the sentence.
- If the element containing the *wh*-word is object, complement, an adverbial, place the operator *do*, *does* or *don't* at the subject.

WH-QUESTIONS:

Who asked a question? What question is this? (A)
 What?

WH-QUESTIONS: COMPLEMENTS:

How many are they? How many are there? (A)
 seven. ten more?

WH-QUESTIONS: A VERB:

They'll have finished. When will they leave? (A)

The operator normally *do* *es* just after the *wh*-element. In (B), the construction *is* *is* *is* *is* because the corresponding statement has no operator.

- If the element containing the *wh*-word is the subject, the verb phrase remains the same as in the corresponding statement, and no *do*-construction is necessary (see 674-5):

Who has been reading? Who's been reading this book?
 He has.

Who can know your best? Which can know your best? (A)

(On how to use the *wh*-element of a prepositional complement, see 741.)

(C) Tag questions

781

Tag questions are shortened *yes-no* questions added to a statement. They consist of operator + pronoun, with or without a negative particle. The choice of *yes* or *no* depends on the position of the verb phrase, and the pronoun refers or refers back to the subject of the statement.

The man has finished it?

The man left London, didn't he?

He hasn't ill, is he?

Reciprocal pronouns

792
We can bring together two sentences such as
John likes Mary.

637
Mary likes John
and a reciprocal pronoun:

John and Mary like ^{each other}
^{one another}.

Each other is a reciprocal and refers to the persons

where there are two or more involved, as in the following examples:

The four children were a very part of our crowd.

He put all the books a mile of our crowd.

The reciprocal pronoun can be freely used in the positive

The unions between each other's means.

Relative clauses (see GPP 4.115-119, 13.5-15)

793
The word *which* can be used for various types of sentence which are related to the main clause by a base-joining element (see 75-82, more on the subject-verb relation (see 80-81 on nominal relative clauses). The participial form of a relative clause is one of postmodification, in a sense (see 86 and 89) when the relative element comes last, to the head of the noun phrase (i.e. antecedent).

794
The relative pronouns of English are *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *what*, and *whence* (pronoun omitted). That is, we include *whence* as a *relative* which is not pronounced, but which works in that it fills the position of subject, object, or in the clause, *whence*.

The relative *which* is normally classical
(relative pronoun = *whic*)

The relative *whence* is normally classical
(relative pronoun = *whence*)

Relative pronouns

795
The choice of relative pronoun depends on

(A) Whether the clause is a subordinate or a main clause (see 84-85)
(i) *which* is used for the former and is dependent on the main clause
whence → *whence* antecedent

(ii) Many people, who live in cities, are dependent on the ground.
whence → *whence* antecedent

(B) Whether the head of the noun phrase is a person or is a non-personal
(i) *whom* is used for persons in base-displacement.
(ii) *which* is used for non-persons in base-displacement.

(C) Whether the role of the pronoun is within the relative clause, or whether it is subject, object, etc. This determines the choice of a SUBJECT or O or OBJECT case.

a The girl *who* is going to marry Bob is an extremely attractive beauty.

b The girl *whom* Peter is going to marry is an extremely attractive beauty.

In addition, we have a series of non-comparative uses: (a) relative clauses and relative participial constructions (see 727-742).

(The girl *who* lives in Peter's house) (M. 1990: 151)

The girl *who* lives in Peter's house

The contrast is possible in the type of relative clause and relative participial construction in which *who* selects the participle form from the construction relative pronoun *who* always selects *who* in these uses.

Because of the free clausal nature of the clause system, the order of elements in a relative clause is often different from that of the main sentence:

(The girl *who* lives in the house) (M. 1990: 151)

(The girl *who* lives in the house) (M. 1990: 151)

(The girl *who* lives in the house) (M. 1990: 151)

(The girl *who* lives in the house) (M. 1990: 151)

(The girl *who* lives in the house) (M. 1990: 151)

(The girl *who* lives in the house) (M. 1990: 151)

But we also find the participle form in the main clause system:

(The girl *who* lives in the house) (M. 1990: 151)

The use of clause elements are listed in Table 7.

Table 7

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

	RELATIVE PRONOUNS		RELATIVE PRONOUNS
	personal	non-personal	
subjective use	<i>who</i>	<i>which</i>	<i>who</i>
objective use	<i>whom</i>	<i>which</i>	<i>whom</i>
possessive use	<i>whose</i>	<i>whose</i>	<i>whose</i>
relative clause	<i>where</i>	<i>where</i>	<i>where</i>
participle use	<i>where</i>	<i>where</i>	<i>where</i>

We deal now with three classes of relative pronouns: (A) *who*, (B) *whom*, and (C) *whose*.

(A) *who*-sentences

The clause system for personal non-comparative patterns in English is:

RELATIVE PRONOUN + RELATIVE CLAUSE

RELATIVE PRONOUN + RELATIVE CLAUSE

RELATIVE PRONOUN + RELATIVE CLAUSE

RELATIVE PRONOUN + RELATIVE CLAUSE

In a personal non-comparative relative clause system, the main clause can have the following form:

The woman *whose* daughter *is* married *is* Mrs. Brown.

(The woman *is* Mrs. Brown *whose* daughter *is* married.)

The *relative clause* itself was damaged but has not been repaired.

If the house has not been repaired, what is the damage? (2)

In examples like (2) there are three elements: a question, a main clause and a relative clause. The first element is the question, the second the main clause and the third the relative clause.

If the house the roof of which was damaged has not been repaired, what is the damage?

191

With a personal pronoun, the relative pronoun can have the distinct role to refer back and show dependency on its antecedent part of the sentence: (3), (4) or (5) (a) and (5') as a prepositional example (a) (5') and (5'')

How was it?	{	to be a man	(3)
		to be a man - relative	(3')
		to be a man - formal	(3'')
		to be a man - informal	(4)
		to be a man - stressed form	(4')
How was it?	{	to be a man - stressed form	(5)
		to be a man - stressed form	(5')

When the relative pronoun is a preposition, (6) is used (6) or when it is a complementizer and placed before an *if* clause (7), (8) is used (6) is between *what* and *what* (8) is between *if* and *if* clause. English, among the other languages, cannot use *what* as the complementizer, the subject (4b) (5b) or object (5) of the complementizer (4b = *what* is possible in very rare cases).

(6) (3a)

192

It is used with the personal and the question pronoun. However, it cannot follow a preposition (6a), and is usually used in non-*wh*-clauses (6b) (see page 197).

(6) (3a)

193

The *relative pronoun* is used for *what* (6a) or it is used by the impact of a clause:

what	The man ¹ who was caught ² is a doctor ³ and ⁴ a doctor ⁵ who was caught ⁶ is a doctor ⁷ .
what	The patient ¹ who ² died ³ is a doctor ⁴ who ⁵ died ⁶ is a doctor ⁷ .

Relative clause change

194

The *relative clause* can be used in many ways. It can be used when a clause is used, particularly when it is a *relative clause*. We can now compare the first result of the possible changes in the *relative clause* (see page 197) (a)

a. The *relative pronoun* is the subject:

How was it?	He ¹ who ² has been to China? ³
How was it?	He ¹ who ² has been to China? ³ is a doctor ⁴ .

b. The *relative pronoun* is the object:

How was it?	He ¹ who ² has been to China? ³
How was it?	He ¹ who ² has been to China? ³ is a doctor ⁴ .
How was it?	He ¹ who ² has been to China? ³ is a doctor ⁴ .
How was it?	He ¹ who ² has been to China? ³ is a doctor ⁴ .

7. The relative pronoun is the constituent of a proposition

Does your daughter marry?		can't do (place) (let's go)?		(infinitive)
		are you doing (place) (let's go)?		
This is the house		knows your daughter (let's go)?		name
		turns >		
		is (what) your daughter (let's go)?		
		animals		
This is the house		we work (to) you about.		name >
		do we work (to) you about.		
		does (we) work (to) you about.		
		about which we work (to) you.		

Non-restrictive relative clauses

765

The meaning of a non-restrictive relative clause is often very similar to that of a restricted clause (with a *which* or *whom* relative), as we can see by comparing sentence (6) with (5). Only a few pronouns usually used in restrictive clauses

This is Mrs. King,		who is married to a lawyer.
		and who had her first party.
Here is John Smith		who has mentioned the reform.
		who I mentioned in the letter.

in restrictive and possessive relative clauses (see 411-2).

Sentences with relative clauses

766

The type of non-restrictive clause seems to be more common in English, which classifies as *matrix-free* (even a sequence of constituents)

He admires Mrs. Brown		which is very nice.
		which I find amusing.
I (mentioned) her in the letter		that he (did) see.
		that he (did) see.

The clause has the same or different observed (see 411).

Sentences (see 655, 701, 702, 111, 2, 11, 116-117)

Clause and sentence

767

sentences are *matrix-free* (even a matrix constituent) first sentences containing just one clause (involving just one clause) clauses containing more than one clause are called *sentences*. There are two main ways in which clauses can combine to form complex sentences: *coordination* and *subordination*.

Two simple sentences, for example:

The house is complete.

He played an oboe.

and a joined into one sentence, either by coordinating the two clauses (as in (7)) or by making one clause into the main clause and the other into a subordinate

(8) (9) (10) The house is complete and he played an oboe.

(11) He played an oboe because the house is complete. He played an oboe.

(12) The house is complete.

And hasn't bought any new material.

Carroll: hasn't bought (2)

Has Ann bought any new material?

Carroll: yes (3)

Some may object to (2) and (3), but these sentences would then require a second context (see 216).

Note:

As can be used with *was* and with *didn't* in the meaning in (1) we use a double *do* (e.g. *As you can see that's what I did*), but we are not concerned with this use of *do* here.

NOT:

In negative clauses, *do* never follows the auxiliary *isn't*, but *is* does follow verbs such as *write*, *go*, *return*, etc. (see 622-24):

Isn't he ever been here but very uncommunicative?

NOT:

The following illustrate the contrast between *wasn't* and *isn't*:

wasn't	isn't	
POSITIVE STATEMENTS	AFFIRMATIVE QUESTIONS	QUESTIONS
DECLINED They've had over lunch.	They haven't had any lunch.	Have they had any lunch?
PROBABLE He was said to come back.	He wasn't supposed to.	Was he ever in any danger?
EXISTENTIAL They've seen him over there.	They haven't seen him anywhere.	Have they seen him anywhere?
TIME WHEN I'll see you again over time.	I won't ever see you again.	Will I ever see you again?
EVIDENCE ADDED He doesn't visit his father.	He doesn't visit his father.	Does he ever visit his father?
UNUSUAL She was a socialist.	She wasn't an atheist.	Was she an atheist?

There are similar contrasts between *wasn't* and *isn't* in (1) and (2), (3) and (4), and (5) and (6).

NOT:

There are a few other contrasts in which *do* never typically occurs:

- (A) IN NEGATIVE INTERROGATIVE STRUCTURES
 - 1. Auxiliary *wasn't* or *isn't* (statements are the same to *isn't*).
- (B) IN POSITIVE KNOWLEDGE CLAUSES (see 211)
 - 2. When we're asking *why*, he would normally like to know.
- (C) WITH THE AUXILIARIES *is* AND *was* WITH NEGATIVE INTERROGATION
 - 3. *Isn't that a good book?* (good, wrong) (1)
 - 4. He always says 'I'm not' (1)
 - 5. He always says 'I'm not' (1)
 - 6. He always says 'I'm not' (1)
 - 7. He always says 'I'm not' (1)
 - 8. He always says 'I'm not' (1)
 - 9. He always says 'I'm not' (1)
 - 10. He always says 'I'm not' (1)
- (D) IN CONTRASTS (see 221-4) *isn't* and *wasn't* (see 221, 222)
 - 11. This injury here is worse than any where else in the club. (1)
 - 12. It's his job to clear away for the accident.

Spelling changes (see 600F 3.95-65, 4.62, 3.96, 5.73)

898

There are a number of changes in the spelling of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs which occur when certain endings are added. Section 6 will be concerned with all such spelling changes here in one place. They involve three types of changes: (a) ending, adding and dropping letters.

Dropping letters

Changeover to (2)

899

In cases ending in a consonant: (1)

(A) *y* becomes *i* in nouns before the plural (see 600F 3.95-65)

they <i>car</i> s	he <i>car</i> s
they <i>try</i>	he <i>tr</i> i e s

(B) *y* becomes *i* in nouns before plural (see 600F 3.96)

two <i>sp</i> y	two <i>sp</i> i e s
a <i>lad</i> y	several <i>lad</i> i e s

(C) *y* becomes *i* in adjectives and comparative or superlative (see 600F 5.73)

early	earlier	earliest
-------	---------	----------

(D) *y* becomes *i* in verbs before plural (see 600F 3.95)

they <i>car</i> y	they <i>car</i> i e s
they <i>tr</i> y	they <i>tr</i> i e d

(E) *y* becomes *i* in verbs before plural (see 600F 3.96) and in comparative or superlative (see 600F 5.73)

early	earlier
happy	happier

910

But *y* is kept in the following cases:

a in plural nouns like *know* *y* s

b in a few words such as *spaw* *y* s, *slaw*

c and, of course, after a vowel (e.g. *try* *y* s, *green* *y* s) except the *y* of *age*, *midday* (see 600F 3.96). In some words there is historical change from *y* to *i* after a vowel:

lay	laid
lay	laid
lay	laid (Note here also a change in vowel sound: /eɪ/ → /eɪd/)

y changes to *i* after *i* in certain words in (c):

buy	buys
buy	buys

Changeover to (2)

911

Before the *ie* ending (see 600F 3.96) *y* is changed to *i*:

they <i>tr</i> y	they <i>tr</i> i e
they <i>tr</i> y	they <i>tr</i> i e

Adding letters

Changeover to (2) (see 600F 3.96) (see 600F 3.96)

912

Unless already ended with a final *m*, *n*, *l*, *r* or ending in a syllable like /s/, /z/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/ receive an additional *e* before the *y* ending.

(A) in the plural of nouns:

tax	taxes
chance	chances
dish	dishes

(B) in the 3rd person singular present of verbs:

copy page	he copies
copy postal	he postulates

812

Note: An additional rule also makes the two singular verbs ending in -s:

copy on mail	he does. Also: (Note the change of vowel sound)
copy go (go?)	he goes. (Spells?)

813

814

The following nouns take the plural ending -s:

accus	accus
calculus	calculi
gale	gales
heres	heres
regula	regulae

815

Note: nouns ending in -s can have either -s or -es for example:

philippos	philippoi
copy	copies

816

The plural of people only ever uses a short (rather than a long) and in all instances (Age: 200, 300, 400, etc.).

817

818

Final consonants are doubled when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a vowel letter:

(A) in adjectives and adverbs before -ness and -ly:

big	biggest	biggest
hot	hotter	hotter

(B) in verbs before -ing and -ed:

drop	dropping	dropped
stop	stopping	stopped
occu	occuring	occurred
permi	permitted	permitted
prefer	prefering	preferred

Compare Age: 200, 300, 400, etc. with Age: 200, 300, 400, etc. (from: kept and meant), mean (from: money) with mean (from: mean) (from: you).

819

Note: There is no doubling when the word is unstressed or written with two letters:

quail	quails	quails
great	greats	greats
enter -leave	entering	leaving
wait -vish	waiting	visiting
draw	draws	draws

In *think* the *th* doubles also when it is followed by a syllable:

think	thinker	thinker	30%
think	thinker	thinker	40%
think	thinker	thinker	10%
think	thinker	thinker	10%

Mapping tasks

820-821

820 If the base ends in a vowel, the *r* is dropped:

821 in *think* and subjects become *thinker* and *thinkers*:

think	thinker	thinker
think	thinker	thinker

821 If the base ends in a consonant,

think	thinker	thinker
think	thinker	thinker
think	thinker	thinker

822

When *think* ends in *th*, *th* is replaced by *ts* and *ts* is dropped after *ts* before *ts* (as in *thinker* and *thinkers*), but *th* before *ts* (as in *thinker*):

think	thinker	thinker
think	thinker	thinker
think	thinker	thinker

Common: *thinker* (820), *thinker* (821) and *thinker* (822) with subject *thinker* (820) (821) (822).

Subjects (see Q&A 7.9, 7.13-15)

823

- a The subject of a sentence is a noun phrase (see 82). If a pronoun (see 82) will be late for the message, a noun phrase can form an optional clause (see 823-824, usually with *introducing* (see 823-824)).
 - *introducing* (see 823) is a verb.
 - *introducing* is a verb.
 - *introducing* is a verb.
 - *introducing* is a verb.
- b The subject of a sentence is a noun phrase (see 82). In a sentence (see 823-824), the subject occurs before the operator (see 823-824).
 - *introducing* is a verb.
 - *introducing* is a verb.
- c The subject has number and may be plural before the operator with the numbers (see 823-824).
 - *introducing* is a verb.
 - *introducing* is a verb.
- d The most typical function of a subject is to identify the person (and is the person) who is doing the happening denoted by the verb:
 - *introducing* is a verb.
- e When an *introducing* clause forms the subject of a sentence (see 823-824, see 823-824).

subject of the main sentence becomes the agent of a passive. The agent occurs in a *by*-phrase, which is normally omitted (p. 117).

- ① I am interested in the project.
- ② The project interested me.

Subjunctives (see G&C 3.16, 12.13, 12.51)

323

On the whole, subjunctive clauses tend to occur in spoken English. We may divide G&C three categories of the subjunctive.

(1) The subjunctive is used in *that*-clauses after expressions like *demand*, *insist*, *suggest*, *propose*, *recommend*, etc. and only that form of the verb is used. The subject of the *that*-clause is normally a noun, object and not verb in the 3rd person singular present form. The use of the subjunctive can be illustrated by the following examples. The use of the subjunctive can be illustrated by the following examples (see 235–60) in which there are three comments:

- ① It is necessary that the workers *accept* the new plan. (to accept)
- ② It is necessary that the workers *accept* the new plan. (to accept)
- ③ It is necessary that the workers *accept* the new plan. (to accept)

324

(2) The subjunctive is used in *if*-clauses of the first, that is, only used in certain so-called contexts.

- ① I wish it *were* true.
- ② I wish it *was* true.
- ③ I wish it *is* true.

325

(3) The subjunctive is used when there is a wish or demand in the main clause, usually a clause containing *would*, *should*, *could* and *might*, so called *wish* clauses (see 235–6). The main clause is used and a *that*-clause is omitted (see 235–6).

I wish $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the workers} \\ \text{the workers} \end{array} \right\}$ *would* accept the new plan.

I wish $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the workers} \\ \text{the workers} \end{array} \right\}$ *would* accept the new plan.

I wish $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the workers} \\ \text{the workers} \end{array} \right\}$ *would* accept the new plan.

(4) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the workers} \\ \text{the workers} \end{array} \right\}$ *would* accept the new plan. (to accept)

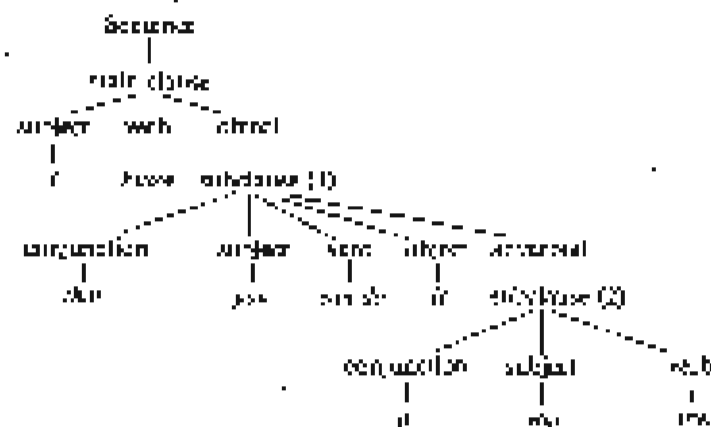
Subordination (see G&C Chapter 11)

326

Two clauses in the same sentence may be related either by coordination (see 312–9) or by subordination. In the case of coordination, the two clauses are equal partners in the same sentence. In subordination one clause (which we call a *main clause*) is related to the other (which we call the *subordinate clause*) in the sense that the subordinate clause can stand alone as a sentence, while the main clause cannot do so. In other words, the subordinate clause is made up of words which can stand alone as a sentence, while the main clause is made up of words which cannot stand alone as a sentence. For example, the sentence

① The workers *would* accept the new plan *if* they were better paid.

tree that you can do it if you try to make up of these clause each with the other



So the clause can have various functions in the main clause. They may be the main object, subject, complement, modifier, or complementizer (see 2.17) etc.

A main clause without a verb is termed a *noun clause*. A *verbless*, on the other hand, can be a finite, non-finite, or verbless clause.

FINITE VERBLESS	Quantum owned and then passed on to you, because a small number had returned.
NON-FINITE VERBLESS	The traffic conditions for the tower, was allowed to fall into ruin.
VERBLESS VERB PHRASE	The door, not being, was allowed to fall into ruin.

All three types of clause (finite, non-finite, and verbless) may, of course, themselves have subclauses inside them. There is non-finite clause containing a finite subclause:

Having left at ten, the car was broken, he was persuaded to find his wife at the station.

He has a verbless clause containing a non-finite subclause:

After she had said at the table, as a woman's husband, being moved ahead confidently to see the South side of it.

Signals of subordination

628

A subclause is not usually capable of standing alone as the main clause of a sentence. This is because subclauses are usually marked as subclauses by some signal of subordination. The signal may be

- a) that, which may usually be omitted (see 629-30):
I hope (that) you will like this place.
- b) a subordinating conjunction, for example (1) (see 278):
If he is present (if he is not),
- c) a relative clause (2) (17):
We asked him (whose hair was all white)
- d) a prepositional phrase (3) (18-20):
And I know, I would (I) have done
- e) lack of a finite verb (4) (25-27):
I hope (to see you) (to visit)

In addition, they may function as:

- (M) HEAD OF AN NOUN PHRASE
- (C) SUBJECT OF A VERB PHRASE
- (O) SUBJECT OF AN AD PHRASE

(E) A HEAD which is a *head* that depends on what it heads or the *predicate*.

The sections are really to be read in the

order

mentioned above (see 6.7.30) and those which can function as subject, object, complement, or modifier (part of a prepositional phrase) have the same kinds of position in the structure as they have in a sentence. Most verbs in the position of *adverbial* in a main clause (C) have a *main clause* because, see 6.7.

Verb patterns (see 6.0E 12.29-30)

6.71

The part of a clause following the verb phrase depends on its verb for its basic structure. For example, we can use the verb *want* with the following pattern:

- | | | | |
|--------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| (S) He | (V) wants | (O) to see | (C) me |
| (S) We | (V) want | (O) some | (C) shoes |

However, *to see* (6.0E 10) (infinitive), have a structure like the corresponding verb in many other languages:

(S) He wants *me* to see *him*.

6.72

We have a set of pitched six basic verb patterns in Dutch (see 6.0E 14):

- (L) Linking verbs
- (T) Verbs with one object
- (F) Verbs with object + verb
- (D) Verbs with two objects
- (K) Verbs with object and object complement
- (I) Verbs without object or complement

With a verb from each pattern we can construct a varying number of verb patterns, which are numbered (I1), (I2), etc.

— various *cases*, the same verb can sometimes occur in different basic verb patterns. For example *find* may be (T), (D), and (K):

- (T) I found her (in the library).
- (D) (acc) I found her a new job.
- (K) (acc) I found her for being a swimming partner.

6.73

Although we can state the different verb patterns, it is not possible to list them all the verbs which can occur in each pattern. For this you will need to consult a dictionary, such as *A Dictionary of Contemporary English* (ed. by P. Brown, London 1978). We use the same system here as in that dictionary. Only those parts of which give patterns are given differently; all be identified more fully here. In the examples, optional elements are placed in brackets. The patterns are given in the order, but, some verbs (see 6.70-82) are common, this is indicated by two patterns coming in each pattern. Notice, however, that where a pattern example is given, this does not necessarily mean

1 We thank the publisher, the editor of *DOCT* for the permission to use all when the words in the patterns. For a list explaining the symbols see *Text 1.01* page 286

that all verbs in this pattern are base or passive, for example, in Pattern (30):

They ^(followed) us to stay another week.
(wanted)

Only the first of these sentences can be changed into the passive:

We were allowed to stay (another week).

But not: *We were wanted to stay (another week).

(Linking verbs:)

328

In this pattern, the verbs linking verbs are either a copula and (b) The main two groups of linking verbs: *look*, *smell*, *taste*, and *sound* (see also 329-335).

Clitics involving verbs such as *be* and *feel*, indicate a state. Other lexical linking verbs are:

appear (happy)
be (excited)
remain (in a certain mood)
seem (like an official secretary)
stay (sitting)
stand (close)
turn (in a color)
was (tired)

Resulting linking verbs, such as *look* and *stay*, include (c) the rest of the web complement is a result of the event or process described in the verb:

John looked
John peaked
John peaked
John became nervous ()

We can also notice the following patterns with linking verbs:

329

(1) The complement is a noun phrase (see also 330 for nominal clause, see 331-334)

They *felt* his to get better.
The answer *felt* him to get better.
He *became* a beggar.

330

(2) *be* and *feel*: To *be* can occur between the linking verb and the complement, but this is not necessary:

She *seems* to be (a) a sweet girl.
He *wanted* to be (a) a fool.

331

(3) The complement is an *ing*-clause (which may have its form of a *participial*):

The answer *seems* very nice (to be) found (in) the garden.
Your guitar *looks* really (to) play (in) it.
She *wanted* to be (a) a surprise (to be) (in) the park.
Just (to) play (in) it.

332

(4) *be* and *feel*: To *be* can occur between the linking verb and the complement, but this is not necessary:

The task *seems* to be (a) impossible.
He *seems* to be (a) tired.

333

(5) The verb is followed by an infinitive:

John *is* (a) school (to be) (in) 9 (to) ()

Their waiting will be in vain.
The man went there, through the forest, etc.
He looked out of the window, down, etc.

The verb *look* has an adverbial particle to describe or qualify its meaning, *look out, down*:

He looked (up) in (at) me, etc.
She lay (down) on the bed.

In the case of *bring* you also may come to the verb associated verbs, with *bring* as first verb compared by another adverbial: 'He looked up

verbs with one object (unassociated verbs): [7]

144

[11] The street is a noisy place.

She saw the table (with a chair)
He looked out (at) me (in the park).

The verb may be a phrasal verb (see 100). Or, very frequently, phrasal-object, when the object of these verbs is a noun, it may be placed either before or after the adverbial particle. If it is a pronoun, it may only be placed before the particle.

They drove (up) the bridge,
(the bridge) up.
He drove it up.

145

The bridge (it) was driven up.

The verb may have an adverbial particle to complete its meaning, *bring* (see, etc. 100):

- (He showed (me) the room (yet).
- (He showed (me) the room
- (Go) (up) your stairs
- (Go) (up) your stairs (yet)

146

The room was shown (yet).

The verb may be a prepositional verb (see 68), or verb + prepositional object:

(I bought two) (to) go (to) the other way (of) the (direction)
He was worried (at) receiving letters (by) grandfathers (of) the (country).
They came (to) these facts only generally (= required).

147

These facts were come (by) only generally.

The verb may be a phrasal prepositional verb (see 101), or verb + adverbial particle + prepositional object:

They showed (at) me (up) with (some) pre (diction) (= abstract) (of) (it).

148

These prepositions should be done away with.

149

[12] These verbs are used with a bare infinitive (without *to*).

Can I (A) clean the windows?
Don't you dare speak to me (the girl).

This happens to be true for many verbs, although it is the usual case with the most auxiliary (see 101). (See 712) (see also: future to 'T').

[70] The object is a verb form:

For example, in the following:
 They do *not* go to the cinema
 You must *not* be late for class
 I was *not* to be left by you
 We *do* go to the cinema every week

847

[71] The verb is followed by an object:

For example, in the following:
 We try *to* get a good first-year course

Other [71] verbs include:

ask	try	try
avoid	try	try
consider	try	try
deny	try	try to do
discuss	try	try

The verb *try* is also used before the infinitive to compare a possibility with reality:

We *try* to get a good course.

849

[72] The verb is a form which can be used only as an infinitive:

They agree *to* get a job
 We are going *to* leave for the next day
 He is *going* to get a job
 I *was* *going* to get a job

Other [72] verbs include:

agree	go	agree
avoid	go	agree
consider	go	agree

850

[73] The verb is a form which is used only as a verb form (not as a noun or adjective):

I *was* *going* to get a job
 I *was* *going* to get a job

851

[74] The verb is a form which is used only as a verb form (not as a noun or adjective) and is usually written with another form of the verb:

I *was* *going* to get a job
 I *was* *going* to get a job

Other [74] verbs include:

agree	try	try
avoid	try	try
consider	try	try

852

[75] The verb is a form which is used only as a verb form (not as a noun or adjective) and is usually written with another form of the verb:

I *was* *going* to get a job
 I *was* *going* to get a job

Other [75] verbs include:

agree	try	try
avoid	try	try
consider	try	try

180. with the verb *give* (to *give* someone something)
give + receive + give

182
[176] The verb *has* is sometimes chosen to indicate possession by a person:
I don't have enough money this month.
She forgot where he took

Verb + object + verb (V):
These transitive verbs have an object which is followed by another verb

183
[177] Verb + object + infinitive (to) form:
Will you help me *to* fix the mechanical part?
Please let her see!
You made me *to* change my mind.
Note that the infinitive is formed in the positive
I was made *to* change my mind.
In the pattern, let is not used in the positive.

184
[178] Verb + object + infinitive (to) form:
The wives of the politicians do not let their husbands
They asked the man *to* be a doctor for them.
When I asked him *to* assist them he refused. (V + and)
What got me *to* change your mind? (infinitive)
They advised us *to* buy another house.

185
[179] We were asked not *to* be late for the train.

Other (V) verbs include:

allow	ask	ask
help	invite	let
allow	require	urge

Note: *have*, *see*, *bring* in the negative to say one has not done under (10) have
see see (186).

186
[180] Verb + object + infinitive (to) form:

Ask please don't leave me waiting!
I don't like him using violence on you.
We are not allowing the town

187
[181] Verb + object + infinitive (to) form:

I don't get my shoes mended.
He had the house painted.

Verbs with two objects (ditransitive verbs): (11)

188
[182] The verb *has* (indirect object) and one object. This construction can be replaced by a phrase *to* + infinitive phrase:

= I've given George the money.
I've given the money to George.

passive
} George was given the money.
} The money was given to George.

Other (18) (V) verbs include:

bring	hand	own
pass	offer	transfer

car?	how	reach
was?	made	write

358

[D1] (6c) The verb has an indirect object, a direct object. The construction can be rephrased by a direct object, I give + noun phrase.

- He bought his wife a good watch.
- He bought a good watch for his wife.

Other [D1] (6c) verbs include:

buy	write	post
send	make	draw
put	make	open

359

[D2] The verb has non-clause which can then be rephrased by prepositional construction with *with* or *for*. Each object can appear once in [D1].

- He asked me with respect questions
- He asked him a very easy question.

360

[D3] With these verbs, only the second object can appear alone. There is no corresponding passive:

- The car cost (George) 30 pounds.

361

[D4] The verb has an object—a noun phrase (NP)—and a clause, where *that* is often omitted:

- He told her (that) he would be back early.

Other

- She was told (that) he would be back early.

Other [D4] verbs include:

asked	agreed	wanted
convicted	reminded	warned

362

[D5] *was* can be put in the place of the main clause as usual, with *I told you* or *that he would return*.

363

[D6] The verb has an object—a finite verb clause (VC) (4) (3).

- He asked us who she was.
- They didn't ask if we were, he had gone.

Other

- We were asked when she was.

364

[D7] The *s* clause is followed by a restrictive:

- I told her how to do it.
- I agreed him when to go.

Verbs with object and object complement (complex-transitive verbs): [X]

365

[X1] The complement is finite phrase:

- The parents raised the baby stream.
- They raised Sir Spensman to the Year

Other

- He was raised Spensman of the Year.

Other verbs such as *name* and *raise*, the complement can be a *n* clause when the reflexive is unaccusative (455). Other [X1] verbs are:

appoint	appoint	make
call	elect	

186) (X) (X) (X) To be may be followed by one or more of the complements:
 They arrived with their help (to be + prep + obj + the help)
 He found her (to be + obj + very different) (to be + adv)

188) (X)

He was considered (to be) the best student in the class

Other (X) (to be) (X) as be + infinitive

appeared

discovered

found

imagined

noticed

saw

187

187) The complement is a finite adjective

He passed out with love

She went out in a happy mood

188) (X)

The doctor was patient, calm

Other (X) (X) verb + infinitive

help

visit

know

reach

188

188) (X) (X) (X) To be may be followed by one or more of the complements:

They believed him (to be) rich and famous

Many students thought her (to be) smart, confident and selfless

189) (X)

He was believed (to be) innocent

Other (X) (to be) (X) as be + infinitive

find

hear

imagine

suppose

189

189) The verb can be followed by the object,

the object and the complement

He had your car

We did not mean to be so noisy and

Verbs without object or complement may receive each of (1)

190

190) The verb is:

The water boiled in the cauldron.

1) The verb may be a plural verb without an object

The car had a hole in the suspension.

Her fever shot up from normal.

There is no need for an object to make a verb

transitive. In the second object, the past participles, etc.

191

191) The verb is used with a reflexive pronoun

He looks in the mirror

192

192) The verb is followed by an adverbial

He went shopping

She was humming

Verb phrases (see GCE 1.10 - 12, 1.23 - 12)

193

193) Verb phrases consist either of a verb with one of (1)

she is very content with every day.

of all the numbers you have used together is a unit cube. As the way
 makes itself, you will see that the same cube can be made in many different ways.

- \$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}\$ = 1 cube (1 cube)
- \$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}\$ = 1 cube (1 cube)
- \$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}\$ = 1 cube (1 cube)
- These 6 cubes together make 1 unit cube. (1 unit cube)

674

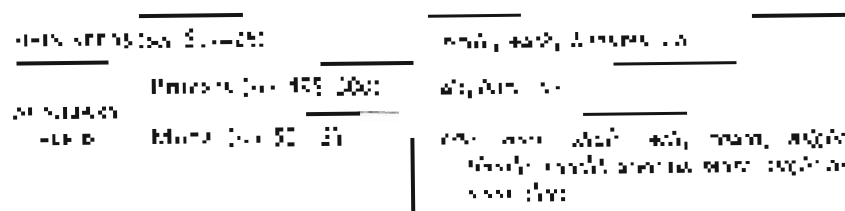
The same two types of rectangular prisms can be made in many
 different ways. The following prisms are also possible to
 be made from the 6 cubes in the previous problem.

- She made one from 1 cube.
- She made two from 2 cubes.
- She made three from 3 cubes.

675 The following rectangular prisms can be made from 6 cubes, as in
 the previous problem.

- The rectangular prism is 2 cubes high, 2 cubes wide, and 2 cubes
 long. (2 cubes high, 2 cubes wide, 2 cubes long)
- The rectangular prism is 3 cubes high, 1 cube wide, and 2 cubes
 long. (3 cubes high, 1 cube wide, 2 cubes long)
- The rectangular prism is 1 cube high, 3 cubes wide, and 2 cubes
 long. (1 cube high, 3 cubes wide, 2 cubes long)

676 A cube is shown in the figure. It is made of 6 cubes.



677 Write the two large sub-prisms.

678

Write the two large sub-prisms. The cube is made of 6 cubes. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long.

- 1 cube (1 cube)
- 2 cubes (2 cubes)
- 3 cubes (3 cubes)
- 4 cubes (4 cubes)
- 5 cubes (5 cubes)
- 6 cubes (6 cubes)

679

The cube is made of 6 cubes. The cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long.

- 1 cube (1 cube)
- 2 cubes (2 cubes)
- 3 cubes (3 cubes)
- 4 cubes (4 cubes)
- 5 cubes (5 cubes)
- 6 cubes (6 cubes)

680 The cube is made of 6 cubes. The cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long.

- 1 cube (1 cube)
- 2 cubes (2 cubes)
- 3 cubes (3 cubes)
- 4 cubes (4 cubes)
- 5 cubes (5 cubes)
- 6 cubes (6 cubes)

681

682 The cube is made of 6 cubes. The cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long. The
 cube is 2 units high, 2 units wide, and 2 units long.

(ending), and the *Arpan* of its prefix). Non-final verb phrases consist of a gerund and each other. Compare:

PHRASE PHRASES

He *was* *looking* *leisurely*.

He *was* *looking* *hard*.

After he *had* *left* *the* *house*
he *was* *leaving* *by* *car*.

NON-FINAL VERB PHRASES

It *was* *likely* *that* *they* *would* *be*
dangerous.

It *was* *likely* *to* *be* *very* *large*.

After *leaving* *the* *office* *it*
was *being* *by* *car*.

Combinations of verbs

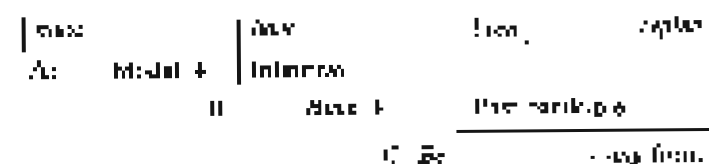
178
When a verb phrase consists of more than one verb, the *Arpan* of the first verb can be considered. You have seen these verbs combining:

- (A) *was* + a modal auxiliary followed by a verb in the infinitive;
He *was* *going* *quite* *well*.
- (B) *was* + a form of *have* followed by a verb in the *gerund* participle form;
He *had* *typed* *several* *letters*.
- (C) *was* + a form of *be* followed by a verb in the *gerund* form;
He *was* *going* *to* *the* *telephone* *box*.
- (D) *was* + a form of *be* followed by a verb in the *past* participle form;
Several *letters* *have* *been* *typed* *by* *him*.

179
These four have an obvious *Arpan* also combine with each other to follow a longer string of verbs in the single verb phrase, in order of their alphabetical (A)–(D)–(C)–(B)–(A) type:

- (A)–(B) He *was* *having* *typed* *the* *letter* *himself*.
- (A)–(B)–(C) He *was* *going* *to* *type* *at* *the* *machine*.
- (A)–(B)–(C) The *letters* *may* *be* *typed* *by* *the* *machine*.
- (A)–(B)–(C) She *has* *been* *going* *to* *the* *machine*.
- (A)–(B)–(C)–(D) The *letters* *have* *been* *typed* *by* *Ann*.
- (A)–(B)–(C)–(D) The *letters* *are* *being* *typed* *at* *the* *machine*.
- (A)–(B)–(C)–(D)–(E) He *was* *going* *to* *be* *typed* *by* *himself*.
- (A)–(B)–(C)–(D)–(E) The *letters* *have* *been* *typed* *by* *the* *machine*.

As we can see, the *Arpan* in the middle of the phrase is used, as the second part of the previous construction, and as the first part of the following construction.



Terms and papers

180
He *was* *not* *in* *the* *middle* *of* *the* *conspiration* *because* *in* *a* *form* *of* *the* *war* *was* *our* *enemy* *of* *the* *past* *present* *or* *future* *was* *not* *concern* *the* *matter* *in* *which* *a* *vertical* *set* *of* *is* *equivalent* *or* *regarded* *this* *example* *as* *numbers* *or* *in* *particular*.

English and how simple sentences are broken down (pp. 103-110) and the past tense (pp. 111-141).

THE PRESENT TENSE OF
THE PAST TENSE

Today 28th in class in the
Yesterday the teacher's conference.

881

English and how simple sentences are broken down (pp. 103-110) and the past tense (pp. 111-141).

THE PRESENT TENSE OF
THE PAST TENSE

He always goes to the cinema every
He has just finished his lessons

882

The present and past tenses are formed in accordance with the progressive and perfect aspects of the verb, i.e. equal structures concern the present (103-110), (111-141).

PRESENT TENSE
PROGRESSIVE (C)
PERFECT (C)
PROGRESSIVE (C)
PERFECT (C)
PROGRESSIVE (C)
PERFECT (C)
PROGRESSIVE (C)
PERFECT (C)
PROGRESSIVE (C)
PERFECT (C)

He always goes to the cinema every
He is visiting his mother in his
He has just finished his lessons
He was visiting his mother
He has just finished his lessons
He is visiting his mother
He has just finished his lessons
He is visiting his mother
He has just finished his lessons
He is visiting his mother
He has just finished his lessons

There are two other tenses used in English. The present perfect (111-141) is formed by using both the perfect (C) and progressive (C) forms.

He has just finished his lessons. He has just finished his lessons
He has just finished his lessons. He has just finished his lessons

He has just finished his lessons. He has just finished his lessons
He has just finished his lessons. He has just finished his lessons

There is one other tense used in English and depending on the tense of the verb the present perfect (111-141).

Controls in the work place

883

In addition to the exercises already mentioned of this lesson, a special exercise is given on the present perfect (111-141) which is a special exercise in the present perfect (111-141).

The exercises given in this section require movement of the subject involve the use of the present perfect (111-141).

John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons
John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons

John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons
John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons

John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons
John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons

John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons

John is visiting his mother. He has just finished his lessons

814

We distinguish between minor and major word classes.

(I) Minor word classes

ARTICLE(S)	the, a, an, an', an' (see GCE 2.11)
PREPOSITION	of, to, at, in, with, on, from, by, for, etc. (see GCE 2.11)
PROVISON	do, not, so, though, even, while, etc. (see GCE 2.11)
CONJUNCTION	and, or, although, if, while, etc. (see GCE 2.11)
EXCLAMATION	oh, ah, yes, no, hooray, etc. (see GCE 2.11)
INTERJECTION	oh, ah, etc. (see GCE 2.11)

(II) Major word classes

MAIN VERB	work, eat, go, sit, etc. (see GCE 2.11)
VERB	work, eat, sit, etc. (see GCE 2.11)
ADJECTIVE	happy, slowly, very, large, small, etc. (see GCE 2.11)
ADVERB	usually, very, slowly, early, late, etc. (see GCE 2.11)

It is quite common to find a list of words belonging to a certain word class only from the point of view of syntax, from a purely syntactic-determining and prescriptive point of view, or from a purely descriptive point of view, without any explanation of the reasons for this.

Words used in this way are normally accepted as correct in all cases. That is, because of their syntactic position, they can be normally considered by a speaker as correct. The members of a class of 2000 can be listed.

The major word classes are sometimes called open classes. Unlike minor word classes, major word classes are found in the sense that they can be indefinitely extended. So the class, for example, takes comprises virtually all of the nouns in 10000 papers in English, because new words are continually being formed (properly, of course, by analogy, even if not strictly by the rule). Other nouns, pronouns, or conjunctions form a fixed class of words with changes of inflection, even the class of the primary prepositions.

H space	I. Linking	T. Triangles (if crystal)	V. Vertices (if crystal)	D. Diametries (if crystal) —(0001);	X. Crystals Translated (—0001) (Lamplines)	T. Interlamellae
1	—	T1 —000— —000—	—	D1 —000— —000— —000—	X1 —000— —000— —000— or —000— —000— —000—	T1 —000— —000—
2	—	T2 —000+ —000— —000—	V2 —000— —000— —000— —000—	—	—	—
3	—	T3 —000— —000— —000—	V3 —000— —000— —000— —000—	—	—	T3 —000— —000—
4	—	T4 —000— —000— —000—	V4 —000— —000— —000— —000—	—	—	T4 —000— —000—
5	—	T5 —000— —000— —000—	—	D5 —000+ —000— —000— —000—	—	—
6	—	T6 —000— —000— —000—	—	D6 —000— —000— —000—	—	—
7	—	T7 —000— —000— —000—	—	—	X7 —000— —000— —000— or —000— —000— —000—	—
8	—	—	V8 —000— —000— —000—	—	—	—
9	—	T9 —000— —000— —000—	—	—	X9 —000+ —000— —000— —000—	—

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