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THE USES AND FORMATION OF THE ENGLISH VERB TENSES

The Uses of the English Tenses

Type of Tense	**Type of Action Expressed**
Simple	- actions occurring at regular intervals - general truths, or situations existing for a period of time - non-continuous actions
Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions
Perfect	- non-continuous actions completed before a certain time
Perfect Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions completed before a certain time

The Formation of the Indicative Mood of the Active Voice

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	do/does *	bare infinitive **
Present Continuous	am/is/are	present participle
Present Perfect	have/has	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have/has been	present participle
Simple Past	did *	bare infinitive ***
Past Continuous	was/were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle

Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle
Simple Future	will (shall) ****	bare infinitive
Future Continuous	will (shall) be	present participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous	will (shall) have been	present participle

The Formation of the Subjunctive Mood of the Active Voice

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	do *	bare infinitive
Present Continuous	be	present participle
Present Perfect	have	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been	present participle
Simple Past	did *	bare infinitive ***
Past Continuous	were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle

The Formation of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	am/is/are	past participle
Present Continuous	am/is/are being	past participle
Present Perfect	have/has been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have/has been being	past participle
Simple Past	was/were	past participle
Past Continuous	was/were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been being	past participle
Simple Future	will (shall) **** be	past participle
Future Continuous	will (shall) be being	past participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have been	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous	will (shall) have been being	past participle

The Formation of the Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	be	past participle
Present Continuous	be being	past participle
Present Perfect	have been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been being	past participle

Simple Past	were	past participle
Past Continuous	were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been being	past participle

* In the Simple Present and Simple Past tenses of the Active Voice, the auxiliaries are used only for emphasis, and for the formation of questions and negative statements. Auxiliaries are never used with the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**.

** When used without the auxiliary, the third person singular of the Simple Present, in the Indicative Mood of the Active Voice, has the ending **s**.

*** When used without the auxiliary, the Simple Past form of the verb is used. For regular verbs, and for many irregular verbs, the Simple Past has the same form as the past participle.

**** The other modal auxiliaries **could**, **may**, **might**, **must**, **should** and **would** form conjugations in the same way as **will** and **shall**.

THE ACTIVE VOICE OF THE VERB TO SHOW

Simple Past: showed
Past Participle: shown

INDICATIVE MOOD

Simple Present	**Simple Past**
I show	I showed
you show	you showed
he shows	he showed
she shows	she showed
it shows	it showed
we show	we showed
they show	they showed

Present Continuous	**Past Continuous**
I am showing	I was showing
you are showing	you were showing
he is showing	he was showing
she is showing	she was showing
it is showing	it was showing
we are showing	we were showing
they are showing	they were showing

Present Perfect	**Past Perfect**

I have shown
you have shown
he has shown
she has shown
it has shown
we have shown
they have shown

I had shown
you had shown
he had shown
she had shown
it had shown
we had shown
they had shown

Present Perfect Continuous

I have been showing
you have been showing
he has been showing
she has been showing
it has been showing
we have been showing
they have been showing

Past Perfect Continuous

I had been showing
you had been showing
he had been showing
she had been showing
it had been showing
we had been showing
they had been showing

Simple Future

I will (shall) show
you will show
he will show
she will show
it will show
we will (shall) show
they will show

Simple Conjugation with Would

I would show
you would show
he would show
she would show
it would show
we would show
they would show

Future Continuous

I will (shall) be showing
you will be showing
he will be showing
she will be showing
it will be showing
we will (shall) be showing
they will be showing

Continuous Conjugation with Would

I would be showing
you would be showing
he would be showing
she would be showing
it would be showing
we would be showing
they would be showing

Future Perfect

I will (shall) have shown
you will have shown
he will have shown
she will have shown
it will have shown
we will (shall) have shown
they will have shown

Perfect Conjugation with Would

I would have shown
you would have shown
he would have shown
she would have shown
it would have shown
we would have shown
they would have shown

Future Perfect Continuous

Perfect Continuous Conjugation with Would

I will (shall) have been showing	I would have been showing
you will have been showing	you would have been showing
he will have been showing	he would have been showing
she will have been showing	she would have been showing
it will have been showing	it would have been showing
we will (shall) have been showing	we would have been showing
they will have been showing	they would have been showing

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Simple Present	**Simple Past**
I show	I showed
you show	you showed
he show	he showed
she show	she showed
it show	it showed
we show	we showed
they show	they showed

Present Continuous	**Past Continuous**
I be showing	I were showing
you be showing	you were showing
he be showing	he were showing
she be showing	she were showing
it be showing	it were showing
we be showing	we were showing
they be showing	they were showing

Present Perfect	**Past Perfect**
I have shown	I had shown
you have shown	you had shown
he have shown	he had shown
she have shown	she had shown
it have shown	it had shown
we have shown	we had shown
they have shown	they had shown

Present Perfect Continuous	**Past Perfect Continuous**
I have been showing	I had been showing
you have been showing	you had been showing
he have been showing	he had been showing
she have been showing	she had been showing
It have been showing	it had been showing
we have been showing	we had been showing
they have been showing	they had been showing

THE VERB TO BE AND THE PASSIVE VOICE OF THE VERB TO SHOW

INDICATIVE MOOD

Simple Present	**Simple Present**
I am	I am shown
you are	you are shown
he is	he is shown
she is	she is shown
it is	it is shown
we are	we are shown
they are	they are shown

Present Continuous	**Present Continuous**
I am being	I am being shown
you are being	you are being shown
he is being	he is being shown
she is being	she is being shown
it is being	it is being shown
we are being	we are being shown
they are being	they are being shown

Present Perfect	**Present Perfect**
I have been	I have been shown
you have been	you have been shown
he has been	he has been shown
she has been	she has been shown
it has been	it has been shown
we have been	we have been shown
they have been	they have been shown

Present Perfect Continuous	**Present Perfect Continuous**
have been being	I have been being shown
you have been being	you have been being shown
he has been being	he has been being shown
she has been being	she has been being shown
it has been being	it has been being shown
we have been being	we have been being shown
they have been being	they have been being shown

Simple Past	**Simple Past**
I was	I was shown
you were	you were shown
he was	he was shown

she was	she was shown
it was	it was shown
we were	we were shown
they were	they were shown

Past Continuous	**Past Continuous**
I was being	I was being shown
you were being	you were being shown
he was being	he was being shown
she was being	she was being shown
it was being	it was being shown
we were being	we were being shown
they were being	they were being shown

Past Perfect	**Past Perfect**
I had been	I had been shown
you had been	you had been shown
he had been	he had been shown
she had been	she had been shown
it had been	it had been shown
we had been	we had been shown
they had been	they had been shown

Past Perfect Continuous	**Past Perfect Continuous**
I had been being	I had been being shown
you had been being	you had been being shown
he had been being	he had been being shown
she had been being	she had been being shown
it had been being	it had been being shown
we had been being	we had been being shown
they had been being	they had been being shown

Simple Future	**Simple Future**
I will (shall) be	I will (shall) be shown
you will be	you will be shown
he will be	he will be shown
she will be	she will be shown
it will be	it will be shown
we will (shall) be	we will (shall) be shown
they will be	they will be shown

Future Continuous	**Future Continuous**
I will (shall) be being	I will (shall) be being shown
you will be being	you will be being shown
he will be being	he will be being shown

she will be being
it will be being
we will (shall) be being
they will be being

she will be being shown
it will be being shown
we will (shall) be being shown
they will be being shown

Future Perfect

I will (shall) have been
you will have been
he will have been
she will have been
it will have been
we will (shall) have been
they will have been

Future Perfect

I will (shall) have been shown
you will have been shown
he will have been shown
she will have been shown
it will have been shown
we will (shall) have been shown
they will have been shown

Future Perfect Continuous

I will (shall) have been being
you will have been being
he will have been being
she will have been being
It will have been being
we will (shall) have been being
they will have been being

Future Perfect Continuous

I will (shall) have been being shown
you will have been being shown
he will have been being shown
she will have been being shown
it will have been being shown
we will (shall) have been being shown
they will have been being shown

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Simple Present

I be
you be
he be
she be
it be
we be
they be

Simple Present

I be shown
you be shown
he be shown
she be shown
it be shown
we be shown
they be shown

Present Continuous

I be being
you be being
he be being
she be being
it be being
we be being
they be being

Present Continuous

I be being shown
you be being shown
he be being shown
she be being shown
it be being shown
we be being shown
they be being shown

Present Perfect

I have been

Present Perfect

I have been shown

you have been
he have been
she have been
it have been
we have been
they have been

you have been shown
he have been shown
she have been shown
it have been shown
we have been shown
they have been shown

Present Perfect Continuous

I have been being
you have been being
he have been being
she have been being
it have been being
we have been being
they have been being

Present Perfect Continuous

I have been being shown
you have been being shown
he have been being shown
she have been being shown
it have been being shown
we have been being shown
they have been being shown

Simple Past

I were
you were
he were
she were
it were
we were
they were

Simple Past

I were shown
you were shown
he were shown
she were shown
it were shown
we were shown
they were shown

Past Continuous

I were being
you were being
he were being
she were being
it were being
we were being
they were being

Past Continuous

I were being shown
you were being shown
he were being shown
she were being shown
it were being shown
we were being shown
they were being shown

Past Perfect

I had been
you had been
he had been
she had been
it had been
we had been
they had been

Past Perfect

I had been shown
you had been shown
he had been shown
she had been shown
it had been shown
we had been shown
they had been shown

Past Perfect Continuous

I had been being

Past Perfect Continuous

I had been being shown

you had been being	you had been being shown
he had been being	he had been being shown
she had been being	she had been being shown
it had been being	it had been being shown
we had been being	we had been being shown
they had been being	they had been being shown

COMMON ENGLISH IRREGULAR VERBS

Bare Infinitive	Simple Past	Past Participle
be	was/were	been
bear	bore	born
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forecast	forecast	forecast

forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mistake	mistook	mistaken
partake	partook	partaken
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
read	read	read
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot

show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank **or** shrunk	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spin	span **or** spun	spun
spit	spit **or** spat	spat
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode	strode
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

CHAPTER 1. THE SIMPLE PRESENT OF THE VERB TO BE

1. Grammar

The **grammar** of a language is an analysis of the various functions performed by the words of the language, as they are used by native speakers and writers.

There are many different ways of analyzing a language. In such an analysis, words can be given various names, depending on the function which they perform. For instance, words which perform the function of naming things are commonly referred to as **nouns**, and words which perform the function of expressing states or actions are commonly referred to as **verbs**.

It should be kept in mind that many English words can perform more than one function. For instance, in the following sentences, the underlined words can be referred to as **nouns** because they perform the function of naming things.
e.g. I have lost my comb.
Water is one of the necessities of life.

However, in the following sentences, the same words can be referred to as **verbs** because they perform the function of expressing actions.
e.g. I comb my hair every morning.
Do you water your plants once a week?

In this book, widely used terms such as **noun**, **verb**, **pronoun** and so on, will be used in order to explain the way in which words function in the English language.

2. Verb forms

English verbs may have different forms, depending on the **subject** of the verb, and depending on when the action expressed by the verb takes place.

In the following sentences, the subjects of the verbs indicate who or what is performing the actions expressed by the verbs. The verbs in these examples are underlined.
e.g. We live in the city.
He lives on Queen Street.

These examples illustrate how the form of a verb may vary, depending on the subject of the verb. In the first example, the subject is **we**, and the form of the verb is **live**. In the second example, the subject is **he**, and the form of the verb is **lives**.

The different verb forms which indicate when the action expressed by a verb takes place are usually referred to as **tenses**.
e.g. We always walk to work.
We walked to work yesterday.

In the first sentence, the verb **walk** is in the Simple Present tense. In the second sentence, the verb **walked** is in the Simple Past tense. Present tenses are usually used to express actions which are taking place in the present; whereas past tenses are usually used to express actions which took place in the past.

The **infinitive** form of a verb can be used without reference to any particular subject or any particular time. In English, the infinitive form of a verb begins with the word **to**. For instance, **to walk** is the infinitive of the verb used in the two preceding examples.

3. Uses of the simple present tense

The Simple Present is one of four present tenses in English, and is used in various ways. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Simple Present tense are underlined.

For instance, the Simple Present can be used to refer to actions which occur at regular intervals.
e.g. We visit our friends every Sunday.
They take a holiday once a year.
Geese fly south every fall.

The Simple Present is also used in stating general truths.
e.g. Gas expands when heated.
The Pacific Ocean is the largest ocean in the world.
Canada lies north of the United States.

In addition, the Simple Present is used when referring to printed material, and when describing events portrayed in a book, film, or other work of art.
e.g. The report presents the information clearly.
At the end of the film , the hero finds the hidden treasure.

Occasionally, the Simple Present is used to express actions occurring in the future or the past.

e.g. Our plane leaves at eight o'clock tomorrow night.
Burglar Steals Valuable Paintings

In the first example, the Simple Present is used to refer to something which will happen in the future. In the second example, which is written in the style of a newspaper headline, the Simple Present is used to refer to something which happened in the past.

4. The simple present of the verb To Be

A **conjugation** of a verb is a list showing the different forms a verb may take. When a verb is conjugated, it is usually accompanied by all of the **personal pronouns** which can act as subjects of a verb. Thus, a conjugation can show the different forms a verb must take when it

is used with different subjects.

The English personal pronouns which may be used as subjects of verbs are as follows:

I
you
he
she
it
we
they

It should be noted that in modern English, the same verb forms are used with the subject **you**, whether **you** refers to one or more than one person or thing. In an older form of English, there was another personal pronoun, **thou**, which was used with different verb forms, and which generally referred to one person or thing.

The Simple Present of the verb **to be** is conjugated as follows. In spoken English, contractions are often used.

Without contractions	**With contractions**
I am	I'm
you are	you're
he is	he's
she is	she's
it is	it's
we are	we're
they are	they're

In written English, an apostrophe: ' is used in a contraction, to indicate that one or more letters have been omitted.

a. Affirmative statements
An affirmative statement states that something is true. In an affirmative statement, the verb follows the subject.
e.g. I am awake.
They are ready.

In the first example, the verb **am** follows the subject **I**. In the second example, the verb **are** follows the subject **they**. In written English, statements are always followed by a period: **.** Statements and questions must begin with a capital letter.

In order to review the preceding points, see Exercise 1.

b. Questions
For the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, questions are formed by reversing the order of the subject and the verb, so that the verb precedes the subject.
e.g. Am I awake?

Are they ready?

In the first example, the verb **am** precedes the subject **I**. In the second example, the verb **are** precedes the subject **they**. In written English, questions are always followed by a question mark: **?**

See Exercise 2.

c. Negative statements
In the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, negative statements are formed by adding the word **not** after the verb.
e.g. I am not awake.
They are not ready.
In the first example, **not** follows the verb **am**. In the second example, **not** follows the verb **are**.

In spoken English, the following contractions are often used:

Without contractions	**With contractions**
is not	isn't
are not	aren't

See Exercise 3.

d. Negative questions
In the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, negative questions are formed by reversing the order of the subject and verb, and adding **not** after the subject.
e.g. Am I not awake?
Are they not ready?

In spoken English, contractions are usually used in negative questions. In the contracted form of a negative question, the contraction of **not** follows immediately after the verb. For example:

Without contractions	**With contractions**
Are you not awake?	Aren't you awake?
Is he not awake?	Isn't he awake?
Are we not awake?	Aren't we awake?
Are they not awake?	Aren't they awake?

It should be noted that there is no universally accepted contraction for **am not**. In spoken English, **am I not?** is often contracted to **aren't I?**. However, although the expression **aren't I?** is considered acceptable in informal English, it is not considered to be grammatically correct in formal English. In formal English, no contraction should be used for **am I not**.

See Exercise 4.

e. Tag questions
A **tag question** is a question added at the end of a sentence. A tag question following an affirmative statement generally has the form of a negative question, with the meaning: **Isn't that true?** In some languages, such tag questions are invariable. However, in English, tag

questions vary, depending on the verbs and subjects of the preceding statements.

In the following examples, the tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions. For example:

Affirmative statement	**Affirmative statement with tag question**
Are you not awake?	Aren't you awake?
I am awake.	I am awake, am I not?
You are awake.	You are awake, aren't you?
She is awake.	She is awake, isn't she?
We are awake.	We are awake, aren't we?
They are awake.	They are awake, aren't they?

These examples illustrate how the subjects and verbs of the preceding statements are repeated in tag questions. For instance, in the first example, the subject **I** and the verb **am** are repeated in the tag question. In the second example, the subject **you** and the verb **are** are repeated in the tag question.

In spoken English, the expression **aren't I?** is often used as a tag question. However, this is not considered to be grammatically correct in formal, written English.

CHAPTER 2. THE SIMPLE PRESENT OF VERBS OTHER THAN THE VERB TO BE

1. Formation of the simple present

The Simple Present of any verb other than the verb **to be** is formed from the **bare infinitive** of the verb. As shown in the following examples, the bare infinitive of a verb consists of the infinitive without the word **to**. The bare infinitive is the form in which English verbs are usually listed in dictionaries. For example:

Infinitive	**Bare Infinitive**
to be	be
to walk	walk
to work	work

In the Simple Present of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the form of the verb used with the subjects **I** , **you**, **we** and **they** is the same as the bare infinitive. The form of the verb used with the subjects **he**, **she** and **it** has the ending **s** added to the bare infinitive.

For example, the Simple Present of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I work
you work
he works
she works
it works
we work
they work

The form of the verb used with the subjects **he**, **she** and **it** is generally referred to as the **third person singular**

See Exercise 1.

a. The simple present of the verb To Have
The Simple Present of the verb **to have** is slightly irregular, since the bare infinitive is **have**, whereas the form of the verb used in the third person singular is **has**. The Simple Present of the verb **to have** is conjugated as follows:

I have
you have
he has
she has
it has
we have
they have

See Exercise 2.

2. Spelling rules for adding s in the third person singular

Some verbs change their spelling when **s** is added in the third person singular.

a. Verbs ending in y
The English letters **a**, **e**, **i**, **o** and **u** are generally referred to as **vowels**. The other English letters are generally referred to as **consonants**.

When a verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a consonant, the **y** is changed to **ie** before the ending **s** is added. In each of the following examples, the consonant immediately preceding the final **y** is underlined.

Bare Infinitive	**Third Person Singular**
stu<u>d</u>y	stu<u>d</u>ies
f<u>l</u>y	f<u>l</u>ies
car<u>r</u>y	car<u>r</u>ies

However, when a verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a vowel, the **y** is not changed before the ending **s** is added. In each of the following examples, the vowel immediately preceding the final **y** is underlined.

Bare Infinitive	**Third Person Singular**
s<u>a</u>y	s<u>a</u>ys
enj<u>o</u>y	enj<u>o</u>ys
b<u>u</u>y	b<u>u</u>ys

See Exercise 3.

b. Verbs ending in o
When a verb ends in **o**, the letter **e** is added before the **s** ending. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
do	does
echo	echoes
go	goes

c. Verbs ending in ch, s, sh, x or z
When a verb ends in a sibilant sound such as **ch**, **s**, **sh**, **x** or **z**, the letter **e** is added before the **s** ending. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
pass	passes
push	pushes
watch	watches
fix	fixes
buzz	buzzes

See Exercise 4.

3. Pronunciation of the es ending

A syllable is a unit of pronunciation, usually consisting of a vowel sound which may or may not be accompanied by consonants.

When a verb ends in a sibilant sound such as **ch**, **s**, **sh**, **x** or **z**, the **es** ending of the third person singular is pronounced as a separate syllable. The reason for this is that these sounds are so similar to the sound of the **es** ending, that the ending must be pronounced as a separate syllable in order to be heard clearly.

In each of the following examples the bare infinitive consists of one syllable, whereas the form of the verb used in the third person singular consists of two syllables.

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
pass	pass**es**
push	push**es**
catch	catch**es**
mix	mix**es**

Similarly, when **s** is added to verbs ending in **ce**, **ge**, **se** or **ze**, the final **es** is usually pronounced as a separate syllable. In each of the following examples the bare infinitive consists of one syllable, whereas the form of the verb used in the third person singular consists
of two syllables.

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
race	rac**es**
rage	rag**es**
praise	prais**es**

doze dozes

However, when **s** is added to a verb ending in **e** preceded by a letter other than **c**, **g**, **s** or **z**, the final **es** is not pronounced as a separate syllable. In each of the following examples, both the bare infinitive and the form of the verb used in the third person singular consist of one syllable.

Bare Infinitive	**Third Person Singular**
make	makes
smile	smiles
dine	dines
save	saves

See Exercise 5.

4. The auxiliary Do

With the exception of the verb **to be**, verbs in modern English use the auxiliary **do** to form questions and negative statements in the Simple Present.
The Simple Present of the verb **to do** is conjugated as follows:

I do
you do
he does
she does
it does
we do
they do

Auxiliaries are verbs which are combined with other verbs to form various tenses. It should be noted that when an auxiliary is combined with another verb, it is the auxiliary which must agree with the subject, while the form of the other verb remains invariable.

When the auxiliary **do** is combined with another verb, the other verb always has the form of the bare infinitive.

a. Questions
In order to form a question in the Simple Present of any verb other than the verb **to be**, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do** is added before the subject, and the bare infinitive of the verb is placed after the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
I work.	Do I work?
You work.	Do you work?
He works.	Does he work?
She works.	Does she work?
It works.	Does it work?
We work.	Do we work?
They work.	Do they work?

See Exercise 6.

b. Negative statements

In order to form a negative statement, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do** followed by the word **not** is placed before the bare infinitive of the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I work.	I do not work.
You work.	You do not work.
He works.	He does not work.
She works.	She does not work.
It works.	It does not work.
We work.	We do not work.
They work.	They do not work.

See Exercise 7.

In spoken English, the following contractions are often used:

Without contractions	**With contractions**
do not	don't
does not	doesn't

c. Negative questions

To form a negative question, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do** is placed before the subject, and the word **not** followed by the bare infinitive is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do**. For example:

Without contractions	**With contractions**
Do I not work?	Don't I work?
Do you not work?	Don't you work?
Does he not work?	Doesn't he work?
Does she not work?	Doesn't she work?
Does it not work?	Doesn't it work?
Do we not work?	Don't we work?
Do they not work?	Don't they work?

See Exercise 8.

d. Tag questions

The auxiliary **do** or **does** is used for a tag question which follows a statement containing the Simple Present of a verb other than the verb **to be**. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I work.	I work, don't I?
You work.	You work, don't you?
He works.	He works, doesn't he?
She works.	She works, doesn't she?

It works.	It works, doesn't it?
We work.	We work, don't we?
They work.	They work, don't they?

See Exercise 9.

e. The verb To Have

It should be noted that, particularly in British English, in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to have**, questions and negative statements are sometimes formed in the same way as for the verb **to be**, without the use of the auxiliary **do**.
e.g. He has a sister, hasn't he?

CHAPTER 3. THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS

1. Uses of the present continuous

In English, the Present Continuous tense is usually used to express continuing, ongoing actions which are taking place at the moment of speaking or writing. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Present Continuous tense are underlined.
e.g. Right now I am cooking supper.
At the moment the plane is flying over the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

The Present Continuous tense is often used in conversation.
e.g. "What are you doing?"
"I am working on my English assignment."

Occasionally, the Present Continuous tense is used to refer to a future event.
e.g. We are leaving tomorrow.

2. Formation of the present continuous

The Present Continuous tense of any verb is formed from the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by what is generally referred to as the **present participle** of the verb.

The present participle of a verb is formed by adding **ing** to the bare infinitive. For instance, the present participle of the verb **to work** is **working**.

Thus, the Present Continuous tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I am working
you are working
he is working
she is working

it is working
we are working
they are working

See Exercise 1.

3. Spelling rules for the formation of the present participle

Some verbs change their spelling when the ending **ing** is added to form the present participle.

a. Verbs ending in a silent e
When a verb ends in a silent **e**, the silent **e** is dropped before the ending **ing** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to close	closing
to dine	dining
to leave	leaving
to move	moving

However, when a verb ends in an **e** which is not silent, the final **e** is not dropped before the ending **ing** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to be	being
to see	seeing

b. Verbs ending in ie
When a verb ends in **ie**, the **ie** is changed to **y** before the ending **ing** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to die	dying
to lie	lying

When a verb ends in **y**, no change is made before the ending is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to fly	flying
to play	playing

See Exercise 2.

c. One-syllable verbs ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel
Except in the case of the final consonants **w**, **x** and **y**, when a one-syllable verb ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant must be doubled before the ending **ing** is added. The reason for this is to reflect the fact that the pronunciation of the single vowel does not change when the ending **ing** is added.

English vowels have a variety of pronunciations. For instance, each English vowel has two contrasting pronunciations, which are sometimes referred to as **short** and **long**. Vowels which are followed by two consonants, and vowels which are followed by a single consonant at the end of a word, are generally pronounced **short**. In contrast, vowels which are followed by a single consonant followed by another vowel are generally pronounced **long**.

In the table below, the underlined vowels in the left-hand column are pronounced **short**; whereas the underlined vowels in the right-hand column are pronounced **long**. For example:

Short Vowels	**Long Vowels**
f<u>a</u>t	f<u>a</u>te
t<u>a</u>pping	t<u>a</u>ping
l<u>e</u>t	del<u>e</u>te
w<u>i</u>n	w<u>i</u>ne
f<u>i</u>lling	f<u>i</u>ling
n<u>o</u>t	n<u>o</u>te
h<u>o</u>pping	h<u>o</u>ping
fl<u>u</u>tter	fl<u>u</u>te

Thus, in the case of most one-syllable verbs ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the vowel is pronounced **short**. In order to reflect the fact that the vowel is also pronounced short in the corresponding present participle, except in the case of **w**, **x** and **y**, the final consonant must be doubled before the ending **ing** is added.

In the following examples, the consonants which have been doubled are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	**Present Participle**
to nod	no<u>dd</u>ing
to dig	di<u>gg</u>ing
to run	ru<u>nn</u>ing
to clap	cla<u>pp</u>ing
to set	se<u>tt</u>ing

When a verb ends in **w**, **x** or **y** preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is <u>not</u> doubled before the ending is added. For example:

Infinitive	**Present Participle**
to draw	drawing
to fix	fixing
to say	saying

It should also be noted that when a verb ends in a single consonant preceded by <u>two</u> vowels, the final consonant is <u>not</u> doubled before the ending is added. The reason for this is that two vowels together are generally pronounced **long**. For example:

Infinitive	**Present Participle**
to rain	raining
to read	reading
to meet	meeting

to soak	soaking

See Exercise 3.

d. Verbs of more than one syllable which end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel

When a verb of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y** preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled to form the present participle only when the last syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest stress.

For instance, in the following examples, the last syllables of the verbs have the heaviest stress, and the final consonants are doubled to form the present participles. In these examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	**Present Participle**
to expel	expelling
to begin	beginning
to occur	occurring
to omit	omitting

When a verb of more than one syllable ends in **w**, **x** or **y**, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending **ing** is added. In the following examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	**Present Participle**
to allow	allowing
to affix	affixing
to convey	conveying

When the last syllable of a verb is not pronounced with the heaviest stress, the final consonant is usually not doubled to form the present participle. For instance, in the following examples, the last syllables of the verbs do not have the heaviest stress, and the final consonants are not doubled to form the present participles. In these examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	**Present Participle**
to listen	listening
to order	ordering
to focus	focusing
to limit	limiting

If necessary, a dictionary can be consulted to determine which syllable of a verb has the heaviest stress. Many dictionaries use symbols such as apostrophes to indicate which syllables are pronounced with the heaviest stress.

See Exercise 4.

It should be noted that British and American spelling rules differ for verbs which end in a single **l** preceded by a single vowel. In British spelling, the **l** is always doubled before the endings **ing** and **ed**
are added. However, in American spelling, verbs ending with a single **l** follow the same rule

as other verbs; the **l** is doubled only when the last syllable has the heaviest stress. In the following examples, the syllables with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	**Present Participle**	
	American Spelling	**British Spelling**
to signal	signaling	signalling
to travel	traveling	travelling
to compel	compelling	compelling
to propel	propelling	propelling

From these examples it can be seen that the American and British spellings for verbs ending in a single **l** differ only when the last syllable does not have the heaviest stress.

4. Questions and negative statements

a. Questions

In the Present Continuous, the verb **to be** acts as an auxiliary. As is the case with other English tenses, it is the auxiliary which is used to form questions and negative statements.

To form a question in the Present Continuous tense, the auxiliary is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
I am working.	Am I working?
You are working.	Are you working?
He is working.	Is he working?
She is working.	Is she working?
It is working.	Is it working?
We are working.	Are we working?
They are working.	Are they working?

See Exercise 5.

b. Negative statements

To form a negative statement, the word **not** is added after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I am working.	I am not working.
You are working.	You are not working.
He is working.	He is not working.
She is working.	She is not working.
It is working.	It is not working.
We are working.	We are not working.
They are working.	They are not working.

See Exercise 6.

c. Negative questions

To form a negative question, the auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. Although there is no universally accepted contraction for **am not**, the expression **aren't I?** is often used in spoken English. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Am I not working?	[Aren't I working?] - used in speaking
Are you not working?	Aren't you working?
Is he not working?	Isn't he working?
Is she not working?	Isn't she working?
Is it not working?	Isn't it working?
Are we not working?	Aren't we working?
Are they not working?	Aren't they working?

See Exercise 7.

d. Tag questions

Tag questions are also formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the tag questions are underlined. In spoken English, **aren't I?** is often used as a tag question. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I am working.	I am working, am I not?
You are working.	You are working, aren't you?
He is working.	He is working, isn't he?
She is working.	She is working, isn't she?
It is working.	It is working, isn't it?
We are working.	We are working, aren't we?
They are working.	They are working, aren't they?

See Exercise 8.

5. Comparison of the uses of the simple present and present continuous

As pointed out in Chapter 1, the Simple Present tense may be used for stating general truths, and for referring to actions which occur at regular intervals. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Present tense are underlined.
e.g. Nova Scotia is a Canadian province. Geese fly south every winter.

In contrast, the Present Continuous tense is usually used to refer to ongoing actions happening at the time of speaking or writing. In the following examples, the verbs in the Present Continuous tense are underlined.
e.g. Right now, I am visiting the province of Nova Scotia. At the moment, a flock of geese is flying overhead.

CHAPTER 4. THE PRESENT PERFECT AND THE PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

1. Use of the present perfect

The English Present Perfect tense is used to express actions which have already been completed, or **perfected**, at the time of speaking or writing. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Present Perfect tense are underlined.
e.g. I have done the work.
She has answered half the questions.

In the first example, the use of the Present Perfect tense emphasizes the fact that, at the time of speaking or writing, the work has already been completed. In the second example, the use of the Present Perfect indicates that, at the time of speaking or writing, half the questions have been answered.

2. Formation of the present perfect: Regular verbs

The Present Perfect tense of any English verb is formed from the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to have**, followed by what is generally referred to as the **past participle** of the verb.

Most English verbs form the past participle in a regular, predictable manner. These verbs are commonly referred to as **regular verbs**.

The past participle of a regular English verb is formed by adding the ending **ed** to the bare infinitive of the verb. For instance, the past participle of the verb **to work** is **worked**.

Thus, the Present Perfect tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I have worked
you have worked
he has worked
she has worked
it has worked
we have worked
they have worked

See Exercise 1.

The following contractions are often used in spoken English:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
I have	I've
you have	you've
he has	he's
she has	she's
it has	it's

we have	we've
they have	they've

It should be noted that the contractions for **he has**, **she has** and **it has** are the same as the contractions for **he is**, **she is** and **it is**.

See Exercise 2.

3. Spelling rules for adding ed to form the past participle

Some regular verbs change their spelling when the ending **ed** is added to form the past participle.

a. Verbs ending in a silent e
When a regular verb ends in a silent **e**, only the letter **d** must be added in order to form the past participle. For example:

Infinitive	**Past Participle**
to close	closed
to move	moved
to please	pleased
to receive	received

b. Verbs ending in y
When a regular verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a consonant, the **y** is changed to **i** before the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	**Past Participle**
to study	studied
to rely	relied
to carry	carried

However, when a regular verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a vowel, the **y** is not changed before the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	**Past Participle**
to play	played
to convey	conveyed
to enjoy	enjoyed

See Exercise 3.

c. Verbs ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel
The rules concerning the doubling of final consonants which apply when adding the ending **ing** to form the present participle also apply when adding the ending **ed** to form the past participle.

Thus, when a one-syllable verb ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y** immediately preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant must be doubled before the ending **ed** is

added to form the past participle. In the following examples, the consonants which have been doubled are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	**Past Participle**
to rub	rubbed
to trim	trimmed
to plan	planned
to stop	stopped

When a verb of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y** immediately preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled before the ending **ed** only when the last syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest stress. In the following examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	**Past Participle**
to control	controlled
to infer	inferred
to occur	occurred
to permit	permitted
to fasten	fastened
to order	ordered
to focus	focused
to limit	limited

In the first four examples, the last syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest stress, and the final consonant is doubled before **ed** is added. In the last four examples, the first syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest stress, and the final consonant is not doubled before **ed** is added.

The final consonants **w**, **x** and **y** are never doubled when the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	**Past Participle**
to follow	followed
to box	boxed
to portray	portrayed

It should also be noted that final consonants immediately preceded by two vowels are not doubled when the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	**Past Participle**
to greet	greeted
to rain	rained
to soak	soaked
to treat	treated

See Exercise 4.

4. Pronunciation of the ed ending

The ending **ed** is usually not pronounced as a separate syllable. For instance, in each of the following examples, both the bare infinitive and the past participle consist of one syllable. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
puff	puffed
work	worked
miss	missed
watch	watched

However, when the ending **ed** is added to verbs which end in **d** or **t**, the **ed** ending of the past participle is pronounced as a separate syllable. The reason for this is that the sounds of **d** and **t** are so similar to the sound of the **ed** ending, that the ending must be pronounced as a separate syllable in order to be heard clearly.

In each of the following examples, the bare infinitive consists of one syllable; whereas the past participle consists of two syllables. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
add	add**ed**
land	land**ed**
hunt	hunt**ed**
wait	wait**ed**

Similarly, when **d** is added to verbs ending in a silent **e** preceded by **d** or **t**, the final **ed** of the past participle is pronounced as a separate syllable. In each of the following examples, the bare infinitive consists of one syllable; whereas the past participle consists of two syllables. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
fade	fad**ed**
glide	glid**ed**
cite	cit**ed**
note	not**ed**

See Exercise 5.

5. Formation of the present perfect: Irregular verbs

In addition to **regular** English verbs, there are many **irregular** English verbs, which do not form the past participle with the ending **ed**. The English irregular verbs are related to the **strong** verbs of the German language. The following are examples of irregular English verbs. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
begin	begun
find	found

go	gone
let	let
take	taken

The past participles of irregular English verbs are formed in an unpredictable manner, and must be memorized. A table of common English irregular verbs is provided.

Except for the irregularity of the past participle, the formation of the Present Perfect tense is the same for an irregular verb as for a regular verb. In both cases, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to have** is followed by the past participle of the verb.

For instance, the irregular verb **to take** has the past participle **taken**. Thus, the Present Perfect of the irregular verb **to take** is conjugated as follows:

I have taken
you have taken
he has taken
she has taken
it has taken
we have taken
they have taken

See Exercise 6.

6. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Present Perfect are formed using the auxiliary. In the case of the Present Perfect, the auxiliary is **have** or **has**.

a. Questions

In order to form a question, the auxiliary is placed before the subject of the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
I have worked.	Have I worked?
You have worked.	Have you worked?
He has worked.	Has he worked?
She has worked.	Has she worked?
It has worked.	Has it worked?
We have worked.	Have we worked?
They have worked.	Have they worked?

b. Negative statements

In order to form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**

I have worked.	I have not worked.
You have worked.	You have not worked.
He has worked.	He has not worked.
She has worked.	She has not worked.
It has worked.	It has not worked.
We have worked.	We have not worked.
They have worked.	They have not worked.

The following contractions are often used in spoken English:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
have not	haven't
has not	hasn't

c. Negative questions

In order to form a negative question, the auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Have I not worked?	Haven't I worked?
Have you not worked?	Haven't you worked?
Has he not worked?	Hasn't he worked?
Has she not worked?	Hasn't she worked?
Has it not worked?	Hasn't it worked?
Have we not worked?	Haven't we worked?
Have they not worked?	Haven't they worked?

d. Tag questions

Tag questions are also formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined.

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I have worked.	I have worked, haven't I?
You have worked.	You have worked, haven't you?
He has worked.	He has worked, hasn't he?
She has worked.	She has worked, hasn't she?
It has worked.	It has worked, hasn't it?
We have worked.	We have worked, haven't we?
They have worked.	They have worked, haven't they?

See Exercise 7.

7. The present perfect continuous

a. Use

The Present Perfect Continuous tense is used to express continuous, ongoing actions which

have already been completed at the time of speaking or writing.

In the following example, the verb in the Present Perfect Continuous tense is underlined.
e.g. The bus has been waiting for one hour.

The use of the Present Perfect Continuous tense in this example indicates that, at the time of speaking or writing, the bus has completed one hour of continuous waiting.

b. Formation
The Present Perfect Continuous tense of any English verb is formed from the Present Perfect of **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For instance, the Present Perfect Continuous tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I have been working
you have been working
he has been working
she has been working
it has been working
we have been working
they have been working

Thus, it can be seen that the Present Perfect Continuous tense has two auxiliaries. The first auxiliary is **have** or **has**, and the second auxiliary is **been**.

See Exercise 8.

c. Questions and negative statements
When a verb has more than one auxiliary, it is the first auxiliary which must change its form to agree with the subject of the verb. It is also the first auxiliary which is used to form questions and negative statements.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject of the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
I have been working.	Have I been working?
You have been working.	Have you been working?
He has been working.	Has he been working?
She has been working.	Has she been working?
It has been working.	Has it been working?
We have been working.	Have we been working?
They have been working.	Have they been working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I have been working.	I have not been working.
You have been working.	You have not been working.
He has been working.	He has not been working.

She has been working.	She has not been working.
It has been working.	It has not been working.
We have been working.	We have not been working.
They have been working.	They have not been working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Have I not been working?	Haven't I been working?
Have you not been working?	Haven't you been working?
Has he not been working?	Hasn't he been working?
Has she not been working?	Hasn't she been working?
Has it not been working?	Hasn't it been working?
Have we not been working?	Haven't we been working?
Have they not been working?	Haven't they been working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I have been working.	I have been working, haven't I?
You have been working.	You have been working, haven't you?
He has been working.	He has been working, hasn't he?
She has been working.	She has been working, hasn't she?
It has been working.	It has been working, hasn't it?
We have been working.	We have been working, haven't we?
They have been working.	They have been working, haven't they?

See Exercise 9.

CHAPTER 5. THE SIMPLE PAST

1. Uses of the simple past

The uses of the Simple Past are somewhat similar to the uses of the Simple Present, except that past states or actions are expressed. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Simple Past are underlined.

For instance, the Simple Past can be used to express actions which occurred at regular intervals in the past.
e.g. Last year I drove to Yarmouth once a week.

In addition, the Simple Past is used to describe situations which existed for a period of time in the past.

e.g. Millions of years ago, dinosaurs inhabited the earth.
George Washington was the first president of the United States.

The Simple Past is also used to express non-continuous actions which occurred at a definite time in the past.
e.g. Columbus reached America in 1492.
I graduated from school last year.

2. Formation of the simple past

a. The verb To Be

The Simple Past of the verb **to be** is conjugated as follows:

I was
you were
he was
she was
it was
we were
they were

See Exercise 1.

i. Questions and negative statements

The Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be** do not use auxiliaries to form questions and negative statements. Instead, the verb itself is used.

The verb **to be** forms questions and negative statements in the same way in the Simple Past as in the Simple Present. In order to form a question, the verb is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
I was awake.	Was I awake?
They were ready.	Were they ready?

In order to form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I was awake.	I was not awake.
They were ready.	They were not ready.

In spoken English, the following contractions are often used:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
was not	wasn't
were not	weren't

In order to form a negative question, the verb is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the verb. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Was I not awake?	Wasn't I awake?
Were they not ready?	Weren't they ready?

In order to form tag questions, the verb itself is used. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I was awake.	I was awake, wasn't I?
They were ready.	They were ready, weren't they?

See Exercise 2.

b. Other verbs

English verbs other than the verb **to be** have the same form in the Simple Past, regardless of the subject.

In the case of regular English verbs, the Simple Past has the same form as the past participle. For example, the Simple Past of the regular verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I worked
you worked
he worked
she worked
it worked
we worked
they worked

See Exercise 3.

In the case of irregular English verbs, the form of the Simple Past must be memorized. As illustrated by the examples below, for some irregular verbs, the Simple Past is the same as the past participle; whereas for others, the Simple Past differs from the past participle. A table of 140 common English irregular verbs is provided. For example:

Bare Infinitive	**Simple Past**	**Past Participle**
begin	began	begun
find	found	found
go	went	gone
let	let	let
take	took	taken

Like the regular verbs, irregular verbs other than the verb **to be** do not modify in the Simple

Past, but have the same form, regardless of the subject. For example, the Simple Past of the irregular verb **to take** is conjugated as follows:

I took
you took
he took
she took
it took
we took
they took

See Exercise 4.

i. Questions and negative statements

In both the Simple Present and the Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, questions and negative statements are formed using the auxiliary **to do** and the bare infinitive.

For questions and negative statements in the Simple Past, the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to do** is used. The Simple Past of **to do** is conjugated as follows:

I did
you did
he did
she did
it did
we did
they did

In order to change an affirmative statement into a question, **did** is placed before the subject, and the form of the verb is changed from the Simple Past to the bare infinitive. In the following example, the regular verb **to work** is used. The verb **to work** has the Simple Past **worked**, and the bare infinitive **work**.

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
I worked.	Did I work?
You worked.	Did you work?
He worked.	Did he work?
She worked.	Did she work?
It worked.	Did it work?
We worked.	Did we work?
They worked.	Did they work?

See Exercise 5.

In order to change an affirmative statement into a negative statement, **did not** is placed after the subject, and the form of the verb is changed to the bare infinitive. In the following

example, the irregular verb **to speak** is used. The verb **to speak** has the bare infinitive **speak** and the Simple Past **spoke**.

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I spoke.	I did not speak.
You spoke.	You did not speak.
He spoke.	He did not speak.
She spoke.	She did not speak.
It spoke.	It did not speak.
We spoke.	We did not speak.
They spoke.	They did not speak.

See Exercise 6.

In spoken English, the following contraction is often used:

Without Contraction	**With Contraction**
did not	didn't

In order to change an affirmative statement into a negative Question, **did** is placed before the subject, **not** is placed after the subject, and the form of the verb is changed to the bare infinitive. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary **did**. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Did I not work?	Didn't I work?
Did you not work?	Didn't you work?
Did he not work?	Didn't he work?
Did she not work?	Didn't she work?
Did it not work?	Didn't it work?
Did we not work?	Didn't we work?
Did they not work?	Didn't they work?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary **did**. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I worked.	I worked, didn't I?
You worked.	You worked, didn't you?
He worked.	He worked, didn't he?
She worked.	She worked, didn't she?
It worked.	It worked, didn't it?
We worked.	We worked, didn't we?
They worked.	They worked, didn't they?

See Exercise 7.

3. The simple past of To Use followed by an infinitive

The Simple Past of the verb **to use**, followed by an infinitive, generally refers to something which took place repeatedly or continuously in the past, but which no longer takes place.

In the following examples, the Simple Past of **to use** is printed in bold type, and the infinitives which follow it are underlined. The Simple Past of **to use** is **used**.
e.g. The ferry used to operate every day.
We used to live on Duke Street.

In the first example, the use of **used** followed by the infinitive indicates that in the past the ferry operated every day, but now it does not operate every day. In the second example, the use of **used** followed by the infinitive indicates that in the past we lived on Duke Street, but now we do not live on Duke Street.

See Exercise 8.

CHAPTER 6. THE PAST CONTINUOUS, THE PAST PERFECT AND THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

1. Summary of the uses of the English tenses

There are four types of verb tense in English: the Simple, the Continuous, the Perfect, and the Perfect Continuous. Each type of tense has a Present, a Past, and a Future form, as well as other modal forms.

Thus, just as there are four present tenses in English, there are also four past tenses: the Simple Past, the Past Continuous, the Past Perfect, and the Past Perfect Continuous.

As will be shown below, the three forms of each type of tense are closely related in terms of their use and formation. For instance, the Present Continuous, Past Continuous, and Future Continuous tenses are all used to express continuous, ongoing actions; and are all formed from the verb **to be** followed by the present participle. The differences are that the Present Continuous is formed with the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, and is used mainly to express present actions; the Past Continuous is formed with the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, and is used to express past actions; and the Future Continuous is formed with the Simple Future of the verb **to be**, and is used to express future actions.

The uses of the Simple, Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous tenses are summarized in the following table.

The Uses of the English Tenses

Type of Tense	**Type of Action Expressed**
Simple	- actions occurring at regular intervals - general truths, or situations existing for a period of time - non-continuous actions

Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions
Perfect	- non-continuous actions completed before a certain time
Perfect Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions completed before a certain time

2. The past continuous

a. Use

The Past Continuous tense is used to express continuous, ongoing actions which took place in the past. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Continuous tense are underlined.
e.g. He was traveling in Europe last summer.
They were playing tennis yesterday afternoon.

The Past Continuous tense is frequently used to refer to an ongoing action which was taking place when something else occurred in the past.
e.g. I was washing the dishes when the telephone rang.
We were entertaining friends when the parcel arrived.

In the first example, the use of the Past Continuous tense indicates that the action of washing the dishes was taking place at the time when the telephone rang. In the second example, the use of the Past Continuous tense indicates that the action of entertaining friends was taking place at the time when the parcel arrived.

b. Formation

The Past Continuous tense is formed from the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For example, the Past Continuous of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I was working
you were working
he was working
she was working
it was working
we were working
they were working

See Exercise 1.

c. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Past Continuous are formed using the auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**

I was working.	Was I working?
They were working.	Were they working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I was working.	I was not working.
They were working.	They were not working.

In spoken English, the contractions **wasn't** and **weren't** are often used.

Negative questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the auxiliary. The following are examples of negative questions with and without contractions:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Was I not working?	Wasn't I working?
Were they not working?	Weren't they working?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I was working.	I was working, wasn't I?
They were working.	They were working, weren't they?

See Exercises 2 and 3.

3. The past perfect

a. Use

The Past Perfect tense is used to refer to a non-continuous action in the past, which was already completed by the time another action in the past took place. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Perfect tense are underlined.

e.g. She had heard the news before I saw her.
I had finished my work by the time the clock struck twelve.

In the preceding examples, the verbs **had heard** and **had finished** are in the Past Perfect tense, and the verbs **saw** and **struck** are in the Simple Past. The use of the Past Perfect tense indicates that the actions of hearing the news and finishing the work were already completed by the time the actions expressed by the verbs in the Simple Past took place.

b. Formation

The Past Perfect tense is formed from the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to have**, followed by

the past participle of the verb.

The Simple Past of **to have** is **had**. In spoken English, the auxiliary **had** is often contracted to **'d**. For example, the Past Perfect of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
I had worked	I'd worked
you had worked	you'd worked
he had worked	he'd worked
she had worked	she'd worked
it had worked	it'd worked
we had worked	we'd worked
they had worked	they'd worked

The contraction **it'd** is less frequently used than the other contractions, since it is more difficult to pronounce.

See Exercise 4.

c. Questions and negative statements
As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Past Perfect tense are formed using the auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
I had worked.	Had I worked?
They had worked.	Had they worked?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I had worked.	I had not worked.
They had worked.	They had not worked.

In spoken English, the following contraction is often used:

Without Contraction	**With Contraction**
had not	hadn't

Negative questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. For example:

Without Contraction	**With Contraction**
Had I not worked?	Hadn't I worked?
Had they not worked?	Hadn't they worked?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I had worked.	I had worked, hadn't I?
They had worked.	They had worked, hadn't they?

See Exercises 5 and 6.

4. The past perfect continuous

a. Use

The Past Perfect Continuous tense is used to refer to a continuous, ongoing action in the past which was already completed by the time another action in the past took place. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Perfect Continuous tense are underlined.

e.g. I had been waiting for two months by the time I received the reply.
He had been thinking about his friends shortly before they called.

In the preceding examples, the verbs **had been waiting** and **had been thinking** are in the Past Perfect Continuous tense, and the verbs **received** and **called** are in the Simple Past. The use of the Past Perfect Continuous tense indicates that the actions of waiting and thinking were continuous, and were completed by the time the actions expressed by the verbs in the Simple Past took place.

b. Formation

The Past Perfect Continuous tense is formed from the Past Perfect of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For example, the Past Perfect Continuous tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I had been working
you had been working
he had been working
she had been working
it had been working
we had been working
they had been working

The auxiliary **had** is often contracted to **'d** in spoken English.

See Exercise 7.

c. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Past Perfect Continuous tense are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I had been working.	Had I been working?

They had been working.	Had they been working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
I had been working.	I had not been working.
They had been working.	They had not been working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Had I not been working?	Hadn't I been working?
Had they not been working?	Hadn't they been working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I had been working.	I had been working, hadn't I?
They had been working.	They had been working, hadn't they?

See Exercises 8 and 9.

5. Summary of the formation of the English present and past tenses

The following table summarizes the formation of the English present and past tenses.

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	do/does *	bare infinitive **
Present Continuous	am/is/are	present participle
Present Perfect	have/has	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have/has been	present participle
Simple Past	did *	bare infinitive ***
Past Continuous	was/were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle

* In the Simple Present and Simple Past tenses, the auxiliaries are used only for emphasis, and for the formation of questions and negative statements. Auxiliaries are never used with the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**.

** When used without the auxiliary, the third person singular of the Simple Present has the ending **s**.

*** When the verb is used without the auxiliary, the Simple Past form of the verb is used. For regular verbs, and for many irregular verbs, the Simple Past has the same form as the past

participle.

See Exercise 10.

6. Emphatic statements

In spoken English, words can be emphasized by being pronounced with a heavier stress than usual. This type of emphasis is usually indicated in written English by means of italics or underlining. In the following examples, emphasized words are indicated by means of underlining.

Emphatic statements are often used in conversation; for instance, when one speaker is contradicting another.
e.g. "I don't believe he works very hard."
"Yes, he does work hard."

When it is desired to emphasize a verb, it is generally the first auxiliary which is stressed. For instance, in the sentence **I am working hard**, the verb can be emphasized by stressing the auxiliary **am**.
e.g. I am working hard.

Usually, no auxiliary is required for affirmative statements in the Simple Present and Simple Past. However, in order to make such statements emphatic, for verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** is used, followed by the bare infinitive. For example, in the Simple Present, the emphatic form of the verb **to work** is formed with the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to do**, as shown below:

Affirmative Statement	**Emphatic Affirmative Statement**
I work.	I do work.
You work.	You do work.
He works.	He does work.
She works.	She does work.
It works.	It does work.
We work.	We do work.
They work.	They do work.

In the Simple Past, the emphatic form of the verb **to work** is formed with the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to do**, as shown below:

Affirmative Statement	**Emphatic Affirmative Statement**
I worked.	I did work.
You worked.	You did work.
He worked.	He did work.
She worked.	She did work.
It worked.	It did work.
We worked.	We did work.
They worked.	They did work.

For the emphatic form of the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, no auxiliary is used. Instead, the verb itself is stressed. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Emphatic Affirmative Statement**
I am ready.	I <u>am</u> ready.
It is ready.	It <u>is</u> ready.
They are ready.	They <u>are</u> ready.

Similarly, for the emphatic form of the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, no auxiliary is used. Instead, the verb itself is stressed. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Emphatic Affirmative Statement**
I was ready.	I <u>was</u> ready.
It was ready.	It <u>was</u> ready.
They were ready.	They <u>were</u> ready.

Examples of emphatic statements in all of the present and past tenses are given in the following table:

Tense	**Affirmative Statement**	**Emphatic Statement**
Simple Present	I work.	I <u>do</u> work.
Present Continuous	I am working.	I <u>am</u> working.
Present Perfect	I have worked.	I <u>have</u> worked.
Present Perfect Continuous	I have been working.	I <u>have</u> been working.
Simple Past	I worked.	I <u>did</u> work.
Past Continuous	I was working.	I <u>was</u> working.
Past Perfect	I had worked.	I <u>had</u> worked.
Past Perfect Continuous	I had been working.	I <u>had</u> been working.
Simple Present of **to be**	I am ready.	I <u>am</u> ready.
Simple Past of **to be**	I was ready.	I <u>was</u> ready.

It should be noted that questions may be emphasized in the same way as statements.
e.g. <u>Did</u> it work?
<u>Are</u> they ready?

Sometimes it is desired to emphasize a negative statement containing the word **not**. In spoken English, often both the auxiliary and the word **not** are stressed, but in written English, usually only the word **not** is underlined or written in italics. For example:

Negative Statement	**Emphatic Negative Statement**
He does not know the answer.	He does <u>not</u> know the answer.

When a contracted form of the word **not** is used, it is generally the auxiliary which is stressed in an emphatic statement. For example:

Negative Statement	**Emphatic Negative Statement**
He doesn't know the answer.	He <u>does</u>n't know the answer.

See Exercise 11.

CHAPTER 7. THE FUTURE TENSES

Just as there are four present tenses and four past tenses in English, there are also four future tenses: the Simple Future, the Future Continuous, the Future Perfect, and the Future Perfect Continuous.

1. The simple future

a. Use

The Simple Future tense is used to express non-continuous actions which will take place in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Future tense are underlined.

e.g. They will finish the work tomorrow.
He will arrive next Saturday.

b. Formation

The Simple Future of any verb is formed from the auxiliary **will** or **shall**, followed by the bare infinitive of the verb.

In informal English, particularly in American English, the Simple Future is usually conjugated entirely with the auxiliary **will**. The auxiliary **will** is a **modal** auxiliary. Modal auxiliaries do not modify, but have the same form, regardless of the subject.

The auxiliary **will** is often contracted to **'ll**. Thus, in informal English, the Simple Future of the verb **to work** is usually conjugated as follows:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
I will work	I'll work
you will work	you'll work
he will work	he'll work
she will work	she'll work
it will work	it'll work
we will work	we'll work
they will work	they'll work

Verbs used with the subjects **I** and **we** are generally referred to as being in the **first person**; verbs used with the subject **you** are generally referred to as being in the **second person**; and verbs used with the subjects **he**, **she**, **it** and **they** are generally referred to as being in the **third person**.

For formal English, there is a rule which states that in the Simple Future, the auxiliary **shall** should be used in the first person, and the auxiliary **will** should be used in the second person and third person. Like the auxiliary **will**, the auxiliary **shall** is a modal auxiliary.

Thus, in formal English, the Simple Future of the verb **to work** may be conjugated as follows:

I shall work
you will work
he will work
she will work
it will work
we shall work
they will work

Even in informal English, the auxiliary **shall** is usually used in the first person for questions in which a request for permission is implied.
e.g. Shall I call the office?
Shall we go to the library?

However, the use of **will** for the first person of the Simple Future is beginning to be considered acceptable in formal English. Thus, except for questions where a request for permission is implied, either **will** or **shall** may be used for the first person of the Simple Future. In this chapter, the alternative use of the auxiliary **shall** in the first person will be indicated by the word **shall** in brackets.

The rules for the use of **will** and **shall** which apply to the Simple Future tense, also apply to the other future tenses.

See Exercise 1.

c. Questions and negative statements
As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Simple Future are formed using the auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
It will work.	Will it work?
They will work.	Will they work?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
It will work.	It will not work.
They will work.	They will not work.

In spoken English, the following contraction is often used:

Without Contraction	**With Contraction**
will not	won't

The contracted form of **will not** is unusual, since it is not only the **o** of **not** which is omitted.

In addition, the **ll** of **will** is omitted, and the **i** of **will** is changed to **o**. The contracted form, **won't**, is pronounced to rhyme with **don't**.

In addition, **shall not** is sometimes contracted to **shan't**. However, the word **shan't** is rarely used in modern American English.

Negative questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the auxiliary. The following are examples of negative questions with and without contractions:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Will it not work?	Won't it work?
Will they not work?	Won't they work?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
It will work.	It will work, won't it?
They will work.	They will work, won't they?

See Exercises 2 and 3.

2. The conjugation expressing determination and compulsion

In formal English, there is a rule which states that, in order to express determination and compulsion, the auxiliary **will** is to be used in the first person, and the auxiliary **shall** is to be used in the second person and third person. This is the reverse of the use of **will** and **shall** found in the Simple Future. The use of **will** in the first person is supposed to express determination, and the use of **shall** in the second person and third person is supposed to express compulsion.

For instance, for the verb **to work**, the Simple conjugation which expresses determination and compulsion is as follows:

I will work
you shall work
he shall work
she shall work
it shall work
we will work
they shall work

In this conjugation, the expressions **I will work,** and **we will work,** have the meaning **I am determined to work,** and **we are determined to work.** In contrast, the expressions **you shall work,** and **they shall work,** for instance, have the meaning **you will be compelled to work,**

and **they will be compelled to work.**

See Exercise 4.

The rule for expressing determination and compulsion which applies to the Simple conjugation, also applies to the Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous conjugations.

However, particularly in American English, the use of the conjugations expressing determination and compulsion is beginning to be considered old-fashioned.

3. The present continuous of To Go followed by an infinitive

The Present Continuous tense of **to go**, followed by an infinitive, is often used to refer to an event which is about to happen, or to refer to an action which someone intends to carry out in the future.

The Present Continuous tense of the verb **to go** is conjugated as follows:

I am going
you are going
he is going
she is going
it is going
we are going
they are going

The examples below illustrate the use of the Present Continuous tense of **to go**, followed by an infinitive, to refer to a future event. In each of these examples, the Present Continuous of **to go** is printed in bold type, and the infinitive which follows it is underlined.
e.g. It **is going** to rain.
I **am going** to write a letter tonight.
They **are going** to study in France next year.
In the first example, the use of the Present Continuous of **to go** followed by the infinitive **to rain** indicates that it is about to rain. In the second and third examples, the use of the Present Continuous of **to go** followed by the infinitives **to write** and **to study** indicates that the actions of writing and studying are intended to be carried out in the future.

See Exercise 5.

It should also be noted that the Past Continuous tense of **to go** can be used to express actions which were about to happen in the past.
e.g. I **was going** to write a letter last night.
In this example, the use of the Past Continuous of **to go** followed by the infinitive **to write** indicates that the action of writing was intended to be carried out in the past.

4. The future continuous

a. Use

The Future Continuous tense is used to express continuous, ongoing actions which will take place in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Future Continuous tense are underlined.

e.g. He will be waiting for us.
They will be arriving tomorrow.

b. Formation

The Future Continuous of any verb is formed from the Simple Future of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For instance, the Future Continuous of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I will (shall) be working
you will be working
he will be working
she will be working
it will be working
we will (shall) be working
they will be working

See Exercise 6.

It can be seen that the Future Continuous tense has two auxiliaries. The first auxiliary is **will** or **shall**, and the second auxiliary is **be**.

c. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Future Continuous are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
It will be working.	Will it be working?
They will be working.	Will they be working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
It will be working.	It will not be working.
They will be working.	They will not be working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Will it not be working?	Won't it be working?

Will they not be working? Won't they be working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
It will be working.	It will be working, won't it?
They will be working.	They will be working, won't they?

See Exercises 7 and 8.

5. The future perfect

a. Use

The Future Perfect tense is used to refer to a non-continuous action which will be completed by a certain time in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Future Perfect tense are underlined.

e.g. She will have finished the work by Wednesday.
I will have cleaned the room before the guests arrive.
They will have eaten breakfast by the time he gets up.

In these examples, the use of the Future Perfect indicates that the actions of finishing the work, cleaning the room, and eating breakfast will have been completed before the coming of Wednesday, the arrival of the guests, and his getting up take place.

b. Formation

The Future Perfect of any verb is formed from the Simple Future of the auxiliary **to have**, followed by the past participle of the verb. For instance, the Future Perfect of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I will (shall) have worked
you will have worked
he will have worked
she will have worked
it will have worked
we will (shall) have worked
they will have worked

See Exercise 9.

c. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Future Perfect are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
It will have worked.	Will it have worked?
They will have worked.	Will they have worked?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
It will have worked.	It will not have worked.
They will have worked.	They will not have worked.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Will it not have worked?	Won't it have worked?
Will they not have worked?	Won't they have worked?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
It will have worked.	It will have worked, won't it?
They will have worked.	They will have worked, won't they?

See Exercises 10 and 11.

6. The future perfect continuous

a. Use

The Future Perfect Continuous tense is used to express a continuous, ongoing action which will be completed by a certain time in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Future Perfect Continuous tense are underlined.

e.g. By next January, she will have been living here for a year.
You will have been traveling a great deal by the time you return home.
He will have been working for ten months by the time he takes his vacation.

In these examples, the use of the Future Perfect Continuous indicates that the continuous, ongoing actions of living, traveling, and working, will have been completed before the events of the coming of January, your returning home, and his taking a vacation, take place.

b. Formation

The Future Perfect Continuous of any verb is formed from the Future Perfect of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For instance, the Future Perfect Continuous of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I will (shall) have been working
you will have been working
he will have been working
she will have been working
it will have been working
we will (shall) have been working
they will have been working

See Exercise 12.

c. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Future Perfect Continuous are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
It will have been working.	Will it have been working?
They will have been working.	Will they have been working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
It will have been working.	It will not have been working.
They will have been working.	They will not have been working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Will it not have been working?	Won't it have been working?
Will they not have been working?	Won't they have been working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
It will have been working.	It will have been working, won't it?
They will have been working.	They will have been working, won't they?

See Exercises 13 and 14.

7. Summary of the formation of the English future tenses

The following table summarizes the formation of the English future tenses.

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Future	will (shall)	bare infinitive
Future Continuous	will (shall) be	present participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous	will (shall) have been	present participle

8. Clauses

If a sentence has only one subject and one verb, it is said to consist of a single clause, called the **main** or **principal** clause. A **main clause** is a clause which can stand alone to form a complete sentence. Each of the following sentences has only one clause. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. It is cold.
The flowers are blooming.

If a sentence contains more than one verb, and each verb has its own subject, the sentence is said to consist of more than one clause. The following sentences each have two clauses. The verbs are underlined.
e.g. He said that he was ready.
The door opened, and my uncle entered the room.

In the first example, **he said** is the first clause, and **that he was ready** is the second clause. In the second example, **the door opened** is the first clause, and **my uncle entered the room** is the second clause.

a. Coordinate clauses

When two clauses are joined by a word such as **and**, **or** or **but**, the two clauses are called **coordinate** clauses, and the word which joins them is called a **coordinate conjunction**. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. It is cold, but the flowers are blooming.
The flowers are blooming and the birds are singing.

In the first example, the coordinate conjunction **but** joins the clause **it is cold** to the clause **the flowers are blooming**. In the second example, the coordinate conjunction **and** joins the clause **the flowers are blooming** to the clause **the birds are singing**. The clauses in these examples are coordinate clauses.

b. Subordinate clauses

Coordinate clauses are main clauses. A main clause is grammatically independent, in that it may stand alone to form a complete sentence. In contrast, a clause which describes some part of the main clause, or which is in some other way grammatically dependent on the main clause, is called a **subordinate** clause. A subordinate clause cannot stand alone to form a

complete sentence.

In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. The book which I lent you is a library book.
He told me what he had seen.
If you are ready, we will go.

In the preceding examples, the main clauses are **the book is a library book**, **he told me** and **we will go**; and the subordinate clauses are **which I lent you**, **what he had seen** and **if you are ready**. A subordinate clause usually begins with a connecting word or phrase which joins it to the main clause. In the preceding examples, these connecting words are **which**, **what** and **if**.

c. The past perfect and the simple past
It has already been seen that the tense of a verb in one clause is related to the tenses of verbs in other clauses in the same sentence. For instance, if one action happened before another in the past, the action that happened first would usually be expressed by a verb in the Past Perfect tense, and the action that happened subsequently would usually be expressed by a verb in the Simple Past tense.

For instance, each of the following sentences has one verb in the Past Perfect tense, and one verb in the Simple Past tense. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. She was late, because she had lost her way.
It had started to snow before we reached the inn.

In the first example, the verb **had lost** is in the Past Perfect, and the verb **was** is in the Simple Past. This indicates that the action of losing the way occurred before the action of being late. In the second example, the verb **had started** is in the Past Perfect, and the verb **reached** is in the Simple Past. This indicates that the action of starting to snow occurred before the action of reaching the inn.

d. The use of the present in subordinate clauses to express future actions
It should be noted that if the verb in the main clause of a sentence is in a future tense, the verb of any subordinate clause which refers to the future is usually in a present tense. This is illustrated in the following examples. The verbs are underlined.
e.g. We will welcome him when he arrives.
I will have finished the work before it is time to leave.

In these examples, the main clauses are **we will welcome him** and **I will have finished the work**; and the subordinate clauses are **when he arrives** and **before it is time to leave**. In the main clauses, the **will welcome** is in the Simple Future tense, and the **will have finished** is in the Future Perfect tense. However, in the subordinate clauses, the verbs **arrives** and **is** are both in the Simple Present, even though they refer to future events.

In most cases, the rule is that if the verb in the main clause of a sentence is in a future tense, the verb of any subordinate clause which refers to the future must be in a present tense. There is usually no ambiguity in such sentences, because the fact that the verb in the main clause is in a future tense is generally enough to indicate that all of the actions expressed in the sentence are to take place in the future.

See Exercise 15.

However, there are a few cases in which the verb in a subordinate clause must be put into a future tense in order to avoid ambiguity. For instance, in subordinate clauses beginning with **although** or **because**, it is sometimes necessary to use future tenses, to make it clear that the actions expressed relate to the future, rather than the present.

e.g. We will not need to send for her, because she will already be here.
Although he will be in the neighborhood, we will have to search for him.

In these examples, the use of the Simple Future tense in the subordinate clauses **because she will already be here** and **although he will be in the neighborhood** is necessary to make it clear that the events of her being here, and his being in the neighborhood, relate to the future rather than the present.

CHAPTER 8. CONJUGATIONS WITH THE AUXILIARY WOULD

1. Uses of the auxiliary Would

English verbs conjugated with the auxiliary **would** are used in a variety of ways. For instance, the auxiliary **would** is often used in polite requests and suggestions. In the following examples, the verbs conjugated with **would** are underlined.
e.g. Would you please tell me the time?
Perhaps it would be a good idea to call the office.

The auxiliary **would** can also express a **future in the past**, and is used in reporting statements and questions which pertained to the future at the time they were made.
e.g. She asked if we would help her the next day.
They said they would arrange to meet us the following week.

The auxiliary **would** can also be used in wishes pertaining to the future, and in the main clauses of sentences containing false or improbable conditions. These two uses of the auxiliary **would** will be discussed in the next chapter.
e.g. I wish they would help us.
It would have saved time if I had known what to do.

2. Formation of conjugations with the auxiliary Would

There are four types of conjugation formed with the auxiliary **would**: the Simple, the Continuous, the Perfect, and the Perfect Continuous.

The conjugations with **would** are formed in the same way as the Future conjugations, except that instead of **will** and **shall**, **would** and **should** are used. In the conjugations with **would**, **should** may be used for the first person in British English; however, **would** is normally used for the first person in American English.

Like **will** and **shall**, **would** is a modal auxiliary. When verbs are conjugated with modal auxiliaries, the results are sometimes referred to as **moods** rather than tenses.

a. The simple conjugation with the auxiliary Would
The Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is used to express non-continuous actions.

In spoken English, the auxiliary **would** is frequently contracted to **'d**. It should be noted that this contraction is the same as that used for **had**.

In the case of the verb **to work**, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
I would work	I'd work
you would work	you'd work
he would work	he'd work
she would work	she'd work
it would work	it'd work
we would work	we'd work
they would work	they'd work

The contraction **it'd** is used less frequently than the other contractions, since it is more difficult to pronounce.

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

In spoken English, **would not** is frequently contracted to **wouldn't**.

Simple conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	**Examples**
Affirmative Statement:	I would work. They would work.
Question:	Would I work? Would they work?
Negative Statement:	I would not work. They would not work.
Negative Question without Contractions:	Would I not work? Would they not work?
Negative Question with Contractions:	Wouldn't I work? Wouldn't they work?
Negative Tag Question:	I would work, wouldn't I? They would work, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 1 and 2.

The Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is often used in polite requests and suggestions.
e.g. Would you please pass the butter?
Perhaps it would be best to postpone the meeting.
In the first example, **would pass** is used in a polite request. In the second example, **would be** is used in a polite suggestion.

See Exercise 3.

b. The continuous conjugation with the auxiliary Would
The Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is used to express continuous, ongoing actions.

In the case of the verb **to work**, the Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

I would be working
you would be working
he would be working
she would be working
it would be working
we would be working
they would be working

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

Continuous conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	**Examples**
Affirmative Statement:	I would be working. They would be working.
Question:	Would I be working? Would they be working?
Negative Statement:	I would not be working. They would not be working.
Negative Question without Contractions:	Would I not be working? Would they not be working?
Negative Question with	Wouldn't I be working?

Contractions:	Wouldn't they be working?
Negative Tag Question:	I would be working, wouldn't I? They would be working, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 4 and 5.

c. The perfect conjugation with the auxiliary Would
In the case of the verb **to work**, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

I would have worked
you would have worked
he would have worked
she would have worked
it would have worked
we would have worked
they would have worked

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

Perfect conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	**Examples**
Affirmative Statement:	I would have worked. They would have worked.
Question:	Would I have worked? Would they have worked?
Negative Statement:	I would not have worked. They would not have worked.
Negative Question without Contractions:	Would I not have worked? Would they not have worked?
Negative Question with Contractions:	Wouldn't I have worked? Wouldn't they have worked?
Negative Tag Question:	I would have worked, wouldn't I? They would have worked, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 6 and 7.

Unlike the Perfect conjugations in the English past, present, and future tenses, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is not generally used to express an action completed by a certain time.

Instead, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** may be used as a past form of the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. The verbs in the following examples are underlined.

Present Form	**Past Form**
I would like that.	I would have liked that.
We would write to him.	We would have written to him.

In the first example, the Perfect conjugation **would have liked** is used as the past form of the Simple conjugation **would like**. In the second example, the Perfect conjugation **would have written** is used as the past form of the Simple conjugation **would write**.

See Exercises 8 and 9.

d. The perfect continuous conjugation with the auxiliary Would
In the case of the verb **to work**, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

I would have been working
you would have been working
he would have been working
she would have been working
it would have been working
we would have been working
they would have been working

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

Perfect continuous conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	**Examples**
Affirmative Statement:	I would have been working. They would have been working.
Question:	Would I have been working? Would they have been working?
Negative Statement:	I would not have been working. They would not have been working.
Negative Question without	Would I not have been working?

Contractions:	Would they not have been working?
Negative Question with Contractions:	Wouldn't I have been working? Wouldn't they have been working?
Negative Tag Question:	I would have been working, wouldn't I? They would have been working, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 10 and 11.

Like the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would**, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is not generally used to express an action completed by a certain time.

Instead, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** may be used as a past form of the Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. The verbs in the following examples are underlined.

Present Form	**Past Form**
I would be waiting outside.	I would have been waiting outside.
He would be helping you.	He would have been helping you.

In the first example, the Perfect Continuous conjugation **would have been waiting** is used as the past form of the Continuous conjugation **would be waiting**. In the second example, the Perfect Continuous conjugation **would have been helping** is used as the past form of the Continuous conjugation **would be helping**.

See Exercise 12.

3. Summary of the formation of the conjugations with the auxiliary Would

The following table summarizes the formation of the conjugations with the auxiliary **would**.

Conjugation	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple	would	bare infinitive
Continuous	would be	present participle
Perfect	would have	past participle
Perfect Continuous	would have been	present participle

4. The "future in the past"

The modal auxiliary **would** is the past form of the modal auxiliary **will**. For this reason, the auxiliary **would** can be used to form what is sometimes called a **future in the past**.

The **future in the past** is used in reporting statements and questions which pertained to the future at the time they were made. In the following examples, the verbs in the main clauses are printed in bold type, and the verbs in the subordinate clauses are underlined.

Tense of Verb in Main Clause	Complete Sentence
Simple Present	I **think** you will succeed.
Simple Past	I **thought** you would succeed.

In the sentence **I think you will succeed,** the verb of the main clause, **think**, is in the Simple Present, and the verb of the subordinate clause, **will succeed**, is in the Simple Future. If the verb **think** is changed to the Simple Past, then the verb **will succeed** must also be put into the past, by using the auxiliary **would** instead of **will**.

The following are other examples of the use of the **future in the past**:

Tense of Verb in Main Clause	Complete Sentence
Simple Present	She **says** she will visit us next week.
Simple Past	She **said** she would visit us the following week.
Simple Present	They **know** that we will be arriving tomorrow.
Simple Past	They **knew** that we would be arriving the next day.

In both pairs of examples, when the verb in the main clause is changed from the Simple Present to the Simple Past, the verb in the subordinate clause is changed from a future tense to the **future in the past**, by changing the auxiliary **will** to **would**.

It should be noted that adverb and adverb phrases such as **tomorrow**, **yesterday** and **next year** can be used only with reference to present time. When used with reference to past or future time, as in reported speech, these adverbs and adverb phrases must be changed.

For instance, **tomorrow** must be changed to an expression such as **the next day** or **the following day**; and **next year** must be changed to an expression such as **the next year** or **the following year**. Other examples are given in the table below.

Used with Reference to Present Time	Used with Reference to Past or Future Time
tomorrow	the next day **or** the following day
today	that day **or** the same day
yesterday	the day before **or** the previous day
next week	the next week **or** the following week
this week	that week **or** the same week
last week	the week before **or** the previous week
next year	the next year **or** the following year
this year	that year **or** the same year
last year	the year before **or** the previous year

See Exercise 13.

CHAPTER 9. THE SUBJUNCTIVE

1. Uses of the subjunctive

In modern English, the Simple Present Subjunctive is most commonly used in formal commands and requests. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Present Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. They demand that he submit a report.
We request that you be here tomorrow.

The Simple Present Subjunctive is also still used in a few traditional expressions.
e.g. Long live the King!

The past tenses of the Subjunctive, and the auxiliary **would**, are used in expressing wishes.
e.g. I wish you were here.
I wish I had known that.
I wish the rain would stop.

The past tenses of the Subjunctive, and the auxiliary **would**, can also be used in order to indicate that conditions being expressed are false or improbable.
e.g. If I were rich, I would travel around the world.
If he had been here, he would have been glad to see you.

In the first example, the use of the Simple Past Subjunctive **were** and the Simple conjugation with **would** indicates that the condition expressed in the clause **If I were rich** is false or improbable. In the second example, the use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive **had been**, and the Perfect conjugation with **would**, indicates that the condition expressed in the clause **If he had been here** is false.

2. Formation of the subjunctive

The English past and present tenses discussed in previous chapters are in what is usually referred to as the **Indicative** Mood. Each of the past and present tenses in the Indicative Mood has a corresponding tense in the **Subjunctive** Mood.

In modern English, most verb tenses in the Subjunctive Mood are similar or identical to the corresponding tenses in the Indicative Mood. It should be noted that verbs in the Subjunctive Mood do not modify, but have the same form regardless of the subject.

The Simple Present Subjunctive and Simple Past Subjunctive of the verb **to be** are shown below. The Indicative forms are also given, for purposes of comparison. The Subjunctive forms which differ from the corresponding Indicative forms are shown in bold type.

The simple indicative and subjunctive tenses of the verb To Be

Simple Present

Indicative	**Subjunctive**
I am	I **be**
you are	you **be**
he is	he **be**
she is	she **be**
it is	it **be**
we are	we **be**
they are	they **be**

Simple Past

Indicative	**Subjunctive**
I was	I **were**
you were	you were
he was	he **were**
she was	she **were**
it was	it **were**
we were	we were
they were	they were

For any verb, the Simple Present Subjunctive is formed from the bare infinitive of the verb.

For any verb except the verb **to be**, the Simple Past Subjunctive is identical to the Simple Past Indicative.

For all of the past and present tenses conjugated with auxiliaries, the Subjunctive tenses are formed in the same way as the Indicative tenses, except that the Subjunctive of the auxiliaries is used.

Using the example of the verb **to work**, the following table compares the tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods. The Subjunctive forms which differ from the corresponding Indicative forms are printed in bold type.

The indicative and subjunctive tenses of the verb To Work

Simple Present

Indicative	**Subjunctive**
I work	I work
you work	you work
he works	he **work**
she works	she **work**
it works	it **work**
we work	we work
they work	they work

Present Continuous

Indicative	Subjunctive
I am working	I **be** working
you are working	you **be** working
he is working	he **be** working
she is working	she **be** working
it is working	it **be** working
we are working	we **be** working
they are working	they **be** working

Present Perfect

Indicative	Subjunctive
I have worked	I have worked
you have worked	you have worked
he has worked	he **have** worked
she has worked	she **have** worked
it has worked	it **have** worked
we have worked	we have worked
they have worked	they have worked

Present Perfect Continuous

Indicative	Subjunctive
I have been working	I have been working
you have been working	you have been working
he has been working	he **have** been working
she has been working	she **have** been working
it has been working	it **have** been working
we have been working	we have been working
they have been working	they have been working

Simple Past

Indicative	Subjunctive
I worked	I worked
you worked	you worked
he worked	he worked
she worked	she worked
it worked	it worked
we worked	we worked
they worked	they worked

Past Continuous

Indicative	**Subjunctive**
I was working	I **were** working
you were working	you were working
he was working	he **were** working
she was working	she **were** working
it was working	it **were** working
we were working	we were working
they were working	they were working

Past Perfect

Indicative	**Subjunctive**
I had worked	I had worked
you had worked	you had worked
he had worked	he had worked
she had worked	she had worked
it had worked	it had worked
we had worked	we had worked
they had worked	they had worked

Past Perfect Continuous

Indicative	**Subjunctive**
I had been working	I had been working
you had been working	you had been working
he had been working	he had been working
she had been working	she had been working
it had been working	it had been working
we had been working	we had been working
they had been working	they had been working

The following table summarizes the formation of the English Subjunctive tenses:

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	do	bare infinitive
Present Continuous	be	present participle
Present Perfect	have	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been	present participle
Simple Past	did	bare infinitive
Past Continuous	were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle

3. Formal commands and requests

The Simple Present Subjunctive was once more extensively used than it is today. In modern American English, the Simple Present Subjunctive is still used in clauses beginning with the word **that** which express formal commands or requests. In the following examples, the word **that** is printed in bold type, and the verbs in the Simple Present Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. They requested **that** she arrive early.
It is important **that** they be present at the meeting.
The demand **that** he provide identification will create a delay.

The main clauses of the preceding examples are **they requested**, **it is important** and **the demand will create a delay**. In the first example, the verb **requested** is in the Simple Past; in the second example, the verb **is** is in the Simple Present; and in the third example, the verb **will create** is in the Simple Future.

As illustrated in these examples, the use of the Simple Present Subjunctive in the subordinate clause of a formal command or request is independent of the tense of the verb in the main clause.

The Simple Present Subjunctive is more commonly used in formal English than in informal English. For instance, the sentence "He advises **that** you not be late," is an example of formal English. In informal English, the same idea would probably be expressed by the sentence "He advises you not to be late," in which the infinitive is used, rather than a clause requiring the Simple Present Subjunctive.

See Exercise 1.

4. Wishes

The past tenses of the Subjunctive, and the auxiliary **would**, are used in the subordinate clauses of sentences which use the verb **to wish** in the main clause. In the following examples, the verb **to wish** is printed in bold type, and the verbs in the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. He **wishes** that he were rich.
They **wish** that they had studied harder when they were young.
She **wishes** that you would come to the meeting tomorrow.

It should be noted that the word **that** can be omitted from a sentence which uses the verb **to wish** in the main clause.
e.g. He **wishes** he were rich.
They **wish** they had studied harder when they were young.
She **wishes** you would come to the meeting tomorrow.

The form of the verb used in the subordinate clause of a wish is independent of the tense of the verb in the main clause. As explained below, the form of the verb used in the subordinate clause of a wish is determined by whether the time of the action referred to in the subordinate clause is earlier than, the same as, or later than the time of the action referred to in the main clause.

a. An earlier time
When the subordinate clause refers to an earlier time than the main clause, the Past Perfect Subjunctive is usually used in the subordinate clause. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Perfect Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. We **wished** he had spoken to us.
I **wish** you had called earlier.
They **will wish** they had listened to us sooner.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive may be used instead of the Past Perfect Subjunctive. In the following example, the verb in the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. She **wishes** she had been staying with us last week.

In each of these examples, the use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive or the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clause refers to an earlier time than the main clause.

See Exercise 2.

b. The same time
When the subordinate clause refers to the same time as the main clause, the Simple Past Subjunctive is usually used in the subordinate clause. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Past Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. When she was at the party, she **wished** she were at home.
Now that he is in China, he **wishes** he understood Chinese.
When we begin the trip, they **will wish** they were with us.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Continuous Subjunctive may be used instead of the Simple Past Subjunctive. In the following example, the verb in the Past Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. They **wish** they were traveling now.

In each of these examples, the use of the Simple Past Subjunctive or the Past Continuous Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clause refers to the same time as the main clause.

See Exercise 3.

c. A later time
When the subordinate clause refers to a later time than the main clause, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is usually used in the subordinate clause. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple conjugation with **would** are underlined.
e.g. You **wished** she would arrive the next day.
I **wish** she would change her mind.
He **will wish** we would join him the following week.

In each of these examples, the use of the Simple conjugation with **would** indicates that the subordinate clause refers to a later time than the main clause.

See Exercise 4.

d. Summary
The following table summarizes the verb forms most often used in the subordinate clauses of sentences expressing wishes.

Time Referred to in Subordinate Clause Compared to Time Referred to in Main Clause	**Form of Verb Used in Subordinate Clause**
Earlier	Past Perfect Subjunctive **or** Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive e.g. I wish it had snowed yesterday.
Same	Simple Past Subjunctive **or** Past Continuous Subjunctive e.g. I wish it were snowing now.
Later	Simple conjugation with **would** e.g. I wish it would snow tomorrow.

See Exercise 5.

e. Use of the auxiliary Could in expressing wishes
It should be noted that the modal auxiliary **could**, which will be discussed further in the next chapter, can also be used in the subordinate clause of a sentence expressing a wish. The auxiliary **could** forms conjugations in the same way as the auxiliary **would**.
e.g. I wish I could help you tomorrow.
I wish I could help you now.

As illustrated in the preceding examples, the Simple conjugation with **could** may be used when the time referred to in the subordinate clause is later than, or the same as, the time referred to in the main clause.

As illustrated in the following example, the Perfect conjugation with **could** may be used when the time referred to in the subordinate clause is earlier than the time referred to in the main clause.
e.g. I wish I could have helped you yesterday.

5. Conditions which are false or improbable

Conditions are most often expressed in subordinate clauses beginning with the word **if**. In the following examples, the word **if** is printed in bold type.

e.g. **If** it had rained yesterday, we would have stayed at home.
The condition contained in this sentence is expressed in the subordinate clause **if it had rained yesterday**.

Sometimes the word **if** is omitted from a subordinate clause expressing a condition. When the word **if** is omitted, the verb (in the case of the Simple tenses of **to be**), or the first auxiliary, must be placed before the subject. The following pairs of sentences illustrate the change in word order which occurs when the word **if** is omitted from a clause expressing a condition. In these examples, the verbs of the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. **If** I were braver, I would challenge him.
Were I braver, I would challenge him.

If they had been expecting us, they would have arranged to meet us.
Had they been expecting us, they would have arranged to meet us.

If I had not received your message, I would have left.
Had I not received your message, I would have left.

See Exercise 6.

As well as being expressed in subordinate clauses beginning with the word **if**, conditions may also be expressed in subordinate clauses beginning with the word **unless**.
e.g. **Unless** he were a giant, he would not be able to see over the wall.

Either the Indicative Mood or the Subjunctive Mood can be used to express a condition.

In the case of a condition which is considered true or probable, the Indicative Mood is used.
e.g. If she is here now, we will ask her opinion.
In this example, the verb **is** is in the Simple Present Indicative. The use of the Simple Present Indicative indicates that the condition **if she is here now** is considered to be probable.

In the case of a condition which is considered false or improbable, the Subjunctive Mood is used.
e.g. If she were here now, we would ask her opinion.
In this example, the verb **were** is in the Simple Past Subjunctive. The use of the Simple Past Subjunctive indicates that the condition **if she were here now** is considered to be false or improbable.

a. Forms of the verb used in the main clause
When a sentence contains a condition which is considered false or improbable, the verb in the main clause is usually in the Simple or Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would**.

i. Referring to present or future time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the main clause refers to present or future time, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is usually used. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple conjugation with **would** are underlined.
e.g. If he were ready, I would accompany him.
If she came, I would lend her my bicycle.

In these examples, the use of the Simple conjugation with **would** indicates that the main

clauses **I would accompany him** and **I would lend her my bicycle** refer to present or future time.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Continuous conjugation with **would** may be used. In the following examples, the verbs in the Continuous conjugation with **would** are underlined.
e.g. If they were here, he would be speaking to them now.
If they arrived tomorrow, he would be giving them a tour of the city.

See Exercise 7.

ii. Referring to past time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the main clause refers to past time, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is usually used. In the following example, the verb in the Perfect conjugation with **would** is underlined.
e.g. If it had snowed, I would have skied in the park.

In this example, the use of the Perfect conjugation with **would** indicates that the main clause **I would have skied in the park** refers to past time. The use of the Perfect conjugation with **would**, combined with the use of the Past Perfect in the subordinate clause, indicates that the condition **it had snowed** is false, and that the action of skiing did not take place.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with **would** may be used. In the following example, the verb in the Perfect Continuous conjugation with **would** is underlined.
e.g. If they had been here, he would have been speaking to them.

See Exercise 8.

iii. Summary
The forms of the verb most commonly used in the main clauses of sentences containing false or improbable conditions are summarized in the following table.

Referring To	**Verb in Main Clause**
Present or future time	Simple conjugation with **would** **or** Continuous conjugation with **would** e.g. If you started now, you would arrive on time.
Past time	Perfect conjugation with **would** **or** Perfect Continuous conjugation with **would** e.g. If you had started yesterday, you would have arrived on time.

See Exercise 9.

iv. Use of the auxiliary Could in sentences containing false or improbable Conditions
It should be noted that the auxiliary **could** can be used in either the main clause or the subordinate clause of a sentence containing a false or improbable condition. The first pair of examples illustrates the use of the auxiliary **could** in the main clause. The second pair of examples illustrates the use of the auxiliary **could** in the subordinate clause.

e.g. If they studied hard, they could pass the exam next year.
If they had studied hard, they could have passed the exam last year.

If you could see me now, you would not recognize me.
If you could have seen me yesterday, you would not have recognized me.

In these examples, the verbs **could pass** and **could see** are in the Simple conjugation with **could**; and the verbs **could have passed** and **could have seen** are in the Perfect conjugation with **could**. As illustrated in these examples, the Simple conjugation with **could** may be used to refer to present or future time; whereas the Perfect conjugation with **could** may be used to refer to past time.

b. Forms of the verb used in the subordinate clause
i. Referring to present or future time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the subordinate clause refers to present or future time, the Simple Past Subjunctive is usually used. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Past Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. If it snowed, I would ski in the park.
If he were here, I would give him the books.

In these examples, the use of the Simple Past Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clauses **if it snowed** and **if he were here** refer to present or future time.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Continuous Subjunctive may be used. In the following example, the verb in the Past Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
If she were staying here now, I would let her ride my horse.

See Exercise 10.

It should be noted that, in the case of the verb **to be**, in informal English, the Simple Past Indicative is often used instead of the Simple Past Subjunctive. For instance, the following pair of examples shows how the same idea might be expressed in formal and informal English.

Formal: If he were here now, I would give him the books.
Informal: If he was here now, I would give him the books.

It should be observed that, even when the Indicative is used instead of the Subjunctive, the use of a past tense for an action pertaining to present time, combined with the use of the conjugation with **would** in the main clause, is enough to indicate clearly that the condition expressed is considered false or improbable. However, this use of **was** instead of **were** is considered grammatically incorrect in formal English.

ii. Referring to past time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the subordinate clause refers to past time, the Past Perfect Subjunctive is usually used. In the following example, the verb in the Past Perfect Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. If he had wanted to come, he would have called us.

In this example, the use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clause **if**

he had wanted to come refers to past time. The use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive also indicates that the condition **he had wanted to come** is false.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive may be used. In the following example, the verb in the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. If it had been raining yesterday, I would have taken my umbrella.

See Exercise 11.

iii. Summary
The forms of the Subjunctive most commonly used in subordinate clauses expressing false or improbable conditions are summarized in the following table.

Referring To	**Verb in Subordinate Clause**
Present or future time	Simple Past Subjunctive **or** Past Continuous Subjunctive e.g. If you started now, you would arrive on time.
Past time	Past Perfect Subjunctive **or** Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive e.g. If you had started yesterday, you would have arrived on time.

See Exercise 12.

c. Changing a statement containing a probable condition into a statement containing an improbable condition
A statement containing a probable condition can be changed into a statement containing an improbable condition, by changing the forms of the verbs.

For instance, in each of the following pairs of examples, the first statement contains a probable condition; whereas the second statement contains an improbable condition. The verbs in the subordinate clauses and main clauses are underlined.

Probable: If he is here now, we will give him the book.
Improbable: If he were here now, we would give him the book.

Probable: If I have time tonight, I will help you with your homework.
Improbable: If I had time tonight, I would help you with your homework.

In these examples, **he is here now** and **I have time tonight** express probable conditions; whereas **he were here now** and **I had time** tonight express improbable conditions.

These examples illustrate how, when referring to non-continuous actions in present or future time, a statement containing a probable condition can be changed into a statement containing an improbable condition. The verb in the subordinate clause is changed from the Simple Present Indicative to the Simple Past Subjunctive; and the verb in the main clause is changed from the Simple Future to the Simple conjugation with **would**.

See Exercise 13.

It is sometimes said that when a verb is in the Indicative Mood, the use of a past tense indicates remoteness in terms of time; however, when a verb is in the Subjunctive Mood, the use of a past tense indicates remoteness in terms of probability.

6. The imperative mood

The Imperative Mood is used for giving commands. Like the Simple Present Subjunctive, the Imperative Mood of a verb is formed from the bare infinitive of the verb. For instance, the Imperative of the verb **to work** is **work**. In the following examples, the verbs in the Imperative Mood are underlined.
e.g. Work!
Work harder!

Likewise, the Imperative of the verb **to be** is **be**.
e.g. Be more alert!
You be ready to come with us.

The Imperative Mood can be used only in the second person. As shown in the first three examples above, the subject of the sentence is often omitted when the Imperative Mood is used. In such sentences, the subject **you** is said to be "understood". In written English, when the subject of the verb is omitted from a command, the command is often followed by an exclamation mark: **!**

The Imperative Mood can also be used in negative statements. Negative statements are formed using the auxiliary **do**, followed by the word **not**. The contraction **don't** is often used in spoken English. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Do not work so hard.	Don't work so hard.
Do not be afraid.	Don't be afraid.

See Exercise 14.

CHAPTER 10. MODAL VERBS

There are nine modal verbs in English: can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, and would. Two of these, **will** and **would**, have already been discussed in detail.

1. Formation of the modal conjugations

All of the modal verbs are used as auxiliaries, and all of them form conjugations in the same

way. Thus, the other modal auxiliaries form conjugations in the same way as **will** and **would**. For instance, the conjugation of the modal auxiliary **could** with the verb **to work** is formed as follows:

Conjugations of the modal auxiliary Could with the verb To Work

Simple	**Continuous**
I could work	I could be working
you could work	you could be working
he could work	he could be working
she could work	she could be working
it could work	it could be working
we could work	we could be working
they could work	they could be working

Perfect	**Perfect Continuous**
I could have worked	I could have been working
you could have worked	you could have been working
he could have worked	he could have been working
she could have worked	she could have been working
it could have worked	it could have been working
we could have worked	we could have been working
they could have worked	they could have been working

The formation of conjugations using the modal auxiliaries can be summarized as follows:

Conjugation	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple	modal auxiliary	bare infinitive
Continuous	modal auxiliary + be	present participle
Perfect	modal auxiliary + have	past participle
Perfect Continuous	modal auxiliary + have been	present participle

Verbs in the Simple conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to present or future time; whereas verbs in the Perfect conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to past time.

Verbs in the Continuous conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to continuous, ongoing actions in present or future time; whereas verbs in the Perfect Continuous conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to continuous, ongoing actions in past time.

The word order for questions and negative statements in the conjugations with the modal auxiliaries is similar to that in other English conjugations.

a. Questions
To form a question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
She can work.	Can she work?

He would be working.	Would he be working?
They should have worked.	Should they have worked?
I could have been working.	Could I have been working?

See Exercise 1.

b. Negative statements

To form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the first auxiliary. It should be noted that the auxiliary **can**, followed by **not**, is written as a single word. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Negative Statement**
She can work.	She cannot work.
He would be working.	He would not be working.
They should have worked.	They should not have worked.
I could have been working.	I could not have been working.

See Exercise 2.

In spoken English, the following contractions may be used:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
cannot	can't
could not	couldn't
might not	mightn't
must not	mustn't
shall not	shan't
should not	shouldn't
will not	won't
would not	wouldn't

However, it should be noted that the contractions **mightn't** and **shan't** are rarely used in modern American English.

c. Negative questions

To form a negative question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Can she not work?	Can't she work?
Would he not be working?	Wouldn't he be working?
Should they not have worked?	Shouldn't they have worked?
Could I not have been working?	Couldn't I have been working?

See Exercise 3.

d. Tag questions

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
She can work.	She can work, can't she?
He would be working.	He would be working, wouldn't he?
They should have worked.	They should have worked, shouldn't they?
I could have been working.	I could have been working, couldn't I?

2. Relationships among the modal auxiliaries

Just as **would** can be used as the past of **will**; **could** can be used as the past of **can**; **might** can be used as the past of **may**; and **should** can be used as the past of **shall**. The auxiliary **must** can refer either to the present or to the past. These relationships among the modal auxiliaries can be summarized as follows:

Present	Past
can	could
may	might
must	must
shall	should
will	would

The following examples illustrate these relationships:

Tense of Verb in Main Clause	Complete Sentence
Simple Present	I **think** I can do it.
Simple Past	I **thought** I could do it.
Simple Present	He **predicts** it may rain.
Simple Past	He **predicted** it might rain.
Simple Present	She **knows** she must be there.
Simple Past	She **knew** she must be there.
Simple Present	I **wonder** what we shall do tomorrow.
Simple Past	I **wondered** what we should do the next day.

See Exercises 4 and 5.

Each of the modal auxiliaries has more than one meaning. The meaning depends upon the context in which the auxiliary is used.

3. Can and Could

The modal auxiliary **can** is most often used in the Simple conjugation.

The most important meaning of **can** and **could** is **to be able to**.
e.g. He can walk thirty miles a day.
When she was young, she could swim across the lake.
The first example has the meaning, **He is able to walk thirty miles a day.** The second example has the meaning, **When she was young, she was able to swim across the lake.**

Like the auxiliary **would**, **could** can be used in polite requests and suggestions.
e.g. Could you please tell me how to get to Almond Street?
You could try asking the bus driver to help you.

As indicated in the previous chapter, **could** can be used in sentences expressing wishes.
e.g. He wished he could visit France.
I wish I could have helped you.

See Exercise 6.

It has also been pointed out that **could** can be used in either the main clause or the subordinate clause of a statement expressing a false or improbable condition.
e.g. If he were stronger, he could help us push the car out of the snow.
She could have caught the bus if she had left right away.
I would be glad if I could help you.
If he could have solved the problem, he would have felt happier.

See Exercises 7 and 8.

In informal English, **can** is often used with the meaning **to be allowed to**.
e.g. He says I can take the day off.
Can I have some more soup?

However, in formal English, it is considered more correct to use the auxiliary **may** in such situations.
He says I may take the day off.
May I have some more soup?

4. May, Might and Must

One of the meanings of **may** and **might** is **to be allowed to**.
e.g. The members of the organization agree that I may join it.
The members of the organization agreed that I might join it.

The auxiliary **must** is a stronger form of **may** and **might**. One of the meanings of **must** is **to be obliged to** or **to have to**.
e.g. You must provide proper identification in order to cash a check.
They must work harder if they are to succeed.

It should be noted that the meaning of **must not** is **to be obliged not to**.
e.g. You must not leave.
He must not speak.
The first example has the meaning, **You must stay.** The second example has the meaning, **He must be silent.**

In order to express the idea of not being obliged to do something, an expression such as **not to be obliged to** or **not to have to** is generally used.
e.g. You do not have to leave.
He is not obliged to speak.
The first example has the meaning, **You may stay, if you wish.** The second example has the meaning, **He may be silent, if he wishes.**

Like **could** and **would**, **might** can be used in polite requests and suggestions. The auxiliaries **could**, **would** and **might** can be used to express differing degrees of politeness:

Degree of Politeness	**Auxiliary**
somewhat polite	could
quite polite	would
very polite	might

Thus, **might** expresses the highest degree of politeness.
e.g. Might I observe what you are doing?
Might I offer some advice?

See Exercise 9.

May, **might** and **must** are also used to express differing degrees of probability:

Degree of Probability	**Auxiliary**
somewhat probable	may, might
highly probable	must

For instance, **may** and **might** are often used in the Simple conjugation to express the idea that an event is somewhat probable.
e.g. You might be right.
It may snow later this afternoon.

Similarly, **must** can be used in the Simple conjugation to express the idea that an event is highly probable.
e.g. He must be mistaken.

In the following examples, the Perfect conjugations with **may**, **might** and **must** are used to express differing degrees of probability relating to past events.
Rupert might have taken the money, but it seems unlikely.
It is possible he may have called while we were out.
It must have rained last night, because the streets are wet.

See Exercise 10.

5. Should

In British English, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **should** is often used in subordinate clauses stating conditions. This construction is usually used to refer to events that may occur by chance.
e.g. If I should see him, I will tell him what I think.

Should is also used with the meaning **ought to**. This is the most common use of **should** in American English.
e.g. You should take an umbrella with you, in case it starts to rain.
I should answer his letter as soon as possible.

Ought is said to be a **defective** verb, since it has no infinitive, or present or past participle. It does not modify, but has the same form, regardless of the subject. **Ought** can be used only in combination with other verbs. Unlike the modal auxiliaries, which are followed by the bare infinitive, **ought** is followed by the infinitive of whatever verb it accompanies.

In each of the following examples, **ought** is underlined, and the infinitive which follows it is printed in bold type.
e.g. You ought **to take** an umbrella with you.
He ought **to stop** smoking.
They ought **to drive** more carefully.

6. Expressions which are synonymous with the modal auxiliaries

The modal verbs can be used only as auxiliaries; they cannot be used on their own. They are defective, since they have no infinitive, or present or past participle.

It should be noted that in addition to the modal auxiliaries **will** and **can**, there are two other English verbs, **to will** and **to can**, which are conjugated regularly. The verb **to will** has the meaning **to direct one's willpower toward something**, or **to bequeath by means of a will**. The verb **to can** has the meaning **to put into a can**.

Because the modal auxiliaries are defective, they cannot be combined with one another. Thus, the fact that the English future tenses are formed with the modal auxiliaries **will** and **shall** means that the other modal auxiliaries cannot be put into the future.

When it is desired to put the ideas expressed by the modal auxiliaries into the future, synonymous expressions must be used. The following are the synonymous expressions most often used:

Modal Auxiliary	**Synonymous Expression**
can	be able to
may	be allowed to
must	have to

It should be noted that the expression **be allowed to** is synonymous with **may** only when **may** is used in the sense of permission being granted.

The following examples illustrate how synonymous expressions may be used when it is desired to put the modal auxiliaries **can**, **may** and **must** into the future.

Present	**Future**
I can work.	I will be able to work.
You may work.	You will be allowed to work.
He must work.	He will have to work.

See Exercise 11.

a. The pronunciation of Have To

The following table illustrates how the pronunciation of the words **have** and **has** in the expression **have to** differs from the usual pronunciation of the verb **to have**. In the expression **have to**, the consonant preceding the **t** of **to** is unvoiced. An imitated pronunciation of **has** and **have** is indicated in the right-hand column.

Usual pronunciation of Have

Example	**Imitated Pronunciation**
She has two children.	"haz"
We have two children.	"hav"

Pronunciation of Have in the expression Have To

Example	**Imitated Pronunciation**
She has to leave.	"hass"
We have to leave.	"haff"

7. The use of auxiliaries in tag questions, short answers and ellipsis

In English, the verbs used as auxiliaries are **to be**, **to do**, **to have**, and the modal auxiliaries. All of these auxiliaries can be used in tag questions and short answers.

a. Negative tag questions

Negative tag questions have already been discussed. An affirmative statement is often followed by a negative tag question, in order to ask for confirmation of the affirmative statement. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

e.g. You are coming with me, aren't you?
You like coffee, don't you?

For the Simple Present and the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, tag questions are formed using

the verb itself. For instance, in the following examples, the verbs **is** and **were** are used in negative tag questions.
e.g. She is very nice, isn't she?
They were ready on time, weren't they?

For the Simple Present and the Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** is used in tag questions. For instance, in the following examples, the auxiliaries **does** and **did** are used in negative tag questions.
e.g. He rides a bicycle, doesn't he?
They ordered pizza, didn't they?

For all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used in tag questions. For instance, in the following examples, the first auxiliaries **have**, **would**, **should** and **can** are used in negative tag questions.
e.g. You have worked all night, haven't you?
He would have helped us, wouldn't he?
They should get more exercise, shouldn't they?
She can speak five languages, can't she?

See Exercise 12.

b. Affirmative tag questions
A negative statement is often followed by an affirmative tag question, in order to ask for confirmation of the negative statement, or in order to ask for more information. In the following examples, the affirmative tag questions are underlined.
e.g. He is not very tall, is he?
They don't want to work, do they?

The rules for forming affirmative tag questions are similar to those for forming negative tag questions. In the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**, the verb itself is used; and in the case of all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used.
e.g. He wasn't much help, was he?
They didn't want to come with us, did they?
You hadn't slept well, had you?
She can't speak Greek, can she?
They wouldn't mind helping us, would they?

See Exercise 13.

c. Short answers
Sometimes it is possible to reply to a question by means of a short answer, consisting of a subject, followed by the verb or first auxiliary used in the question. The rules for forming affirmative and negative short answers are similar to those for forming affirmative and negative tag questions. Thus, in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**, the verb itself is used; and in the case of all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used.

The following are examples of questions with affirmative and negative short answers. The verbs and auxiliaries are underlined.

Contractions are usually used in negative short answers.

Question	Affirmative Short Answer	Negative Short Answer
Is he ready?	Yes, he is.	No, he isn't.
Were you finished?	Yes, I was.	No, I wasn't.
Do you know them?	Yes, I do.	No, I don't.
Did we win?	Yes, we did.	No, we didn't.
Has he left?	Yes, he has.	No, he hasn't.
Will they need help?	Yes, they will.	No, they won't.
Could you help me?	Yes, I could.	No, I couldn't.

It should be noted that the form of the verb in a short answer is not always the same as the form of the verb in the question, since the verb of a short answer must agree with its subject. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and their subjects are printed in bold type.
e.g. Are **you** ready? Yes, **I** am.
Were **you** excited? Yes, **I** was.

See Exercises 14 and 15.

d. Ellipsis
In English, words can sometimes be omitted from a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence. The words which are omitted are said to be "understood". This type of short form is usually referred to as **ellipsis**.

Short answers are one kind of ellipsis. For instance, in the example:
Can you speak Spanish? Yes, I can.
the short answer **Yes, I can,** means **Yes, I can speak Spanish.** The words **speak Spanish** are understood.

Another kind of ellipsis uses the words **and so**, followed by the verb or first auxiliary, followed by the subject.

For instance, the sentence:
He can speak Spanish, and I can speak Spanish too.
would normally be shortened to:
He can speak Spanish, and so can I.

Other examples of this type of ellipsis are given below. The verbs and auxiliaries are underlined.

Without Ellipsis: She is tired, and I am tired too.
With Ellipsis: She is tired, and so am I.

Without Ellipsis: They like ice cream, and we like ice cream too.
With Ellipsis: They like ice cream, and so do we.

Without Ellipsis: He wrote a letter, and I wrote a letter too.

With Ellipsis: He wrote a letter, and so did I.

Without Ellipsis: You had worked all night, and I had worked all night too.
With Ellipsis: You had worked all night, and so had I.

Without Ellipsis: You should get more sleep, and we should get more sleep too.
With Ellipsis: You should get more sleep, and so should we.

As illustrated above, the rules for forming the construction with **and so** are similar to the rules for forming tag questions and short answers. Thus, in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**, the verb itself is used; in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** is used; and in the case of all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used.

See Exercise 16.

The construction using the words **and so** is used to express an affirmative idea, following an affirmative statement.

In contrast, a similar construction, using the words **and neither**, is used to express a negative idea, following a negative statement.

For instance, the sentence:
He cannot speak Danish, and I cannot speak Danish either.
would normally be shortened to:
He cannot speak Danish, and neither can I.

Other examples of this type of ellipsis are given below. The verbs and auxiliaries are underlined.

Without Ellipsis: She is not ready, and you are not ready either.
With Ellipsis: She is not ready, and neither are you.

Without Ellipsis: They do not own a car, and he does not own a car either.
With Ellipsis: They do not own a car, and neither does he.

Without Ellipsis: We have not forgotten, and she has not forgotten either.
With Ellipsis: We have not forgotten, and neither has she.

Without Ellipsis: They couldn't find it, and we couldn't find it either.
With Ellipsis: They couldn't find it, and neither could we.

See Exercise 17.

CHAPTER 11. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. Direct objects

Most of the verbs examined so far have been in the **Active Voice**. When a verb is in the Active Voice, the subject of the verb refers to the person or thing performing the action described by the verb; and the **object** of the verb refers to the person or thing receiving the action described by the verb.

In the following examples, the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. He read the **book**.
I did not see the **balloon**.
They ate the **potatoes** quickly.
She rode her **bicycle** along the sidewalk.
Do we understand **it**?

In these sentences, the verbs **read**, **did see**, **ate**, **rode** and **do understand** are in the Active Voice; and the words **book**, **balloon**, **potatoes**, **bicycle** and **it** are the objects of the verbs. These objects are said to be **direct** objects, because they refer to things which receive directly the actions described by the verbs.

See Exercise 1.

2. Lay and Lie, Raise and Rise, and Set and Sit

Verbs which take an object are usually called **transitive** verbs. Verbs which do not take an object are usually called **intransitive** verbs.

Many English verbs can be used either intransitively or transitively. For instance, in the sentence **Most birds can fly,** the verb **to fly** is intransitive, since it is used without an object. But in the sentence **This pilot will fly the plane,** the verb **to fly** is transitive, since it takes the object **plane**.

However, some English verbs can be used only intransitively. A few pairs of verbs should be noted. The two verbs of each pair have similar meanings, but one of the verbs can take an object, and the other cannot. In the following table, the verbs labeled **intransitive** are those which cannot take an object.

	Infinitive	**Simple Past**	**Past Participle**
Transitive:	to lay	laid	laid
Intransitive:	to lie	lay	lain
Transitive:	to raise	raised	raised
Intransitive:	to rise	rose	risen
Transitive:	to set	set	set
Intransitive:	to sit	sat	sat

Particular care must be taken not to confuse the verbs **to lay** and **to lie**, since, as shown above,

the Simple Past of the verb **to lie** has the same form as the bare infinitive of the verb **to lay**.

a. To Lay and To Lie
To lay is a transitive verb, which can take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to lay**. The verbs are underlined, and the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. I am laying the **table**.
He laid a **bet** on the white horse.
The hen has laid an **egg**.

To lie is an intransitive verb, which cannot take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to lie**.
e.g. She is lying on the sofa.
We lay on the beach in the sun.
He has lain in bed for a week.

In these examples, it might appear that the words **sofa**, **beach**, and **bed** act as objects of the verb **to lie**. However, this is not the case.

Not only verbs, but also **prepositions** have the ability to take objects. A few commonly used English prepositions are **at**, **by**, **for**, **from**, **in**, **of**, **on**, **to** and **with**. Prepositions will be discussed in detail in a later chapter.

In the examples above, **sofa**, and **beach** are objects of the preposition **on**; and **bed** is the object of the preposition **in**.

See Exercise 2.

b. To Raise and To Rise
To raise is a transitive verb, which can take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to raise**. The verbs are underlined, and the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. She is raising **poodles**.
He raised the **window**.
They have raised a **crop** of wheat.

To rise is an intransitive verb, which cannot take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to rise**.
e.g. The moon is rising in the east.
They rose to the occasion.
The temperature has risen by five degrees.

In these sentences, the verbs have no objects. The words **east**, **occasion** and **degrees** are the objects of the prepositions **in**, **to** and **by**.

See Exercise 3.

c. To Set and To Sit
To set is a transitive verb, which can take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to set**. The

verbs are underlined, and the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. They are setting a **record.**
We set the **jars** on a shelf.
Have you set the **date** for your trip?

To sit is an intransitive verb, which cannot take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to sit**.
e.g. They are sitting by the front steps.
I sat at my desk for an hour.
You have sat on the couch all afternoon.

In these sentences, the verbs have no objects. The words **steps**, **desk**, and **couch** are the objects of the prepositions **by**, **at** and **on**.

See Exercises 4 and 5.

3. Indirect objects

In addition to taking direct objects, some verbs also take **indirect** objects. In the following examples, the direct objects are printed in bold type, and the indirect objects are underlined.
e.g. We gave the child a **toy**.
I sent the man the **information**.

In these examples, the words **child** and **man** are said to be the indirect objects of the verbs **gave** and **sent**. Indirect objects refer to things which receive indirectly the actions described by the verbs. In the above examples, the words **toy** and **information** are the direct objects of the verbs.

Indirect objects usually refer to living things.

It is possible for a sentence containing an indirect object to be rewritten by placing a preposition before the indirect object. When this is done, the original indirect object can be regarded either as the indirect object of the verb, or as the object of the preposition.

For example, the sentence **We gave the child a toy,** can be rewritten as follows:
We gave a **toy** to the child.
In the rewritten sentence, **child** can be regarded either as the indirect object of the verb **gave**, or as the object of the preposition **to**.

The following examples illustrate the position of the indirect object in a sentence. The direct object, **toy**, is printed in bold type, and the indirect object, **child**, is underlined.
e.g. We gave the child a **toy**.
We gave a **toy** to the child.

When an indirect object is not preceded by a preposition, the indirect object must be placed before the direct object. Thus, in the sentence **We gave the child a toy,** the indirect object **child** is placed before the direct object **toy**.

However, when an indirect object is preceded by a preposition, the indirect object must be placed after the direct object. In the sentence **We gave a toy to the child**, the indirect object **child** is preceded by the preposition **to**. Therefore, the indirect object, **child** is placed after the direct object **toy**.

The object which is placed last in a sentence tends to receive greater emphasis than the object which is placed first. Thus, the word order of a sentence can be varied in order to give greater emphasis to one object or the other. For instance, in the sentence **We lent the teacher a book**, the direct object **book** is slightly emphasized. However, in the sentence **We lent a book to the teacher**, the indirect object **teacher** is emphasized.

See Exercises 6 and 7.

A few English verbs, such as **to describe**, **to distribute**, **to explain** and **to say**, can take an indirect object only when the indirect object is preceded by a preposition. In the following examples, the direct objects are printed in bold type, and the indirect objects are underlined.
e.g. He described his **experiences** to the reporters.
They distributed the **leaflets** to their friends.
We explained the **situation** to the participants.
She said **something** to her teacher.

These verbs cannot take an indirect object which immediately follows the verb. One reason for this may be to avoid creating sentences which are ambiguous or confusing. For instance, a sentence which began with the words **He described the reporters...** would create the impression that it was the reporters who were being described. When **the reporters** is preceded by the preposition **to**, there is no ambiguity.

CHAPTER 12. THE PASSIVE VOICE

1. Use of the passive voice

As explained in the preceding chapter, the Active Voice of a verb is used when the subject of the verb refers to the person or thing performing the action described by the verb.

In contrast, the **Passive Voice** of a verb is used when the subject of the verb refers to the person or thing receiving the action described by the verb. Only a verb which can take an object can be put into the Passive Voice.

The Passive Voice is more commonly used in English than it is in other European languages such as German or French. As well as being used in everyday English, the Passive Voice is used extensively in official documents and scientific papers.

In the following examples, the verbs in the Passive Voice are underlined.
e.g. The ball was struck by the boy.
Gold has been found by the explorers.

In these examples, the verbs **was struck** and **has been found** are in the Passive Voice. The subjects **ball** and **gold** refer to things receiving the actions described by the verbs.

2. Formation of the indicative mood of the passive voice

For every tense in the Active Voice, there is a corresponding tense in the Passive Voice. In the Passive Voice, the verb **to be** acts as an auxiliary. The Passive Voice tenses of an English verb are formed from the corresponding conjugations of **to be**, followed by the past participle of the verb.

a. The simple present indicative

For instance, the Simple Present Indicative of **to be**, and the Simple Present Indicative of the Passive Voice of the verb **to show** are conjugated as follows:

Simple Present Indicative of To Be	**Simple Present Indicative of Passive Voice of To Show**
I am	I am shown
you are	you are shown
he is	he is shown
she is	she is shown
it is	it is shown
we are	we are shown
they are	they are shown

b. The other indicative tenses

Similarly, the other Indicative tenses of the Passive Voice of the verb **to show** are conjugated as indicated in the following table. The corresponding tenses of the verb **to be** are included for purposes of comparison.

The verb To Be compared with the Passive Voice of the verb To Show

Present Continuous	**Present Continuous**
I am being	I am being shown
you are being	you are being shown
he is being	he is being shown
she is being	she is being shown
it is being	it is being shown
we are being	we are being shown
they are being	they are being shown
Present Perfect	**Present Perfect**
I have been	I have been shown
you have been	you have been shown
he has been	he has been shown
she has been	she has been shown
it has been	it has been shown
we have been	we have been shown

they have been	they have been shown
Present Perfect Continuous	**Present Perfect Continuous**
have been being	I have been being shown
you have been being	you have been being shown
he has been being	he has been being shown
she has been being	she has been being shown
it has been being	it has been being shown
we have been being	we have been being shown
they have been being	they have been being shown
Simple Past	**Simple Past**
I was	I was shown
you were	you were shown
he was	he was shown
she was	she was shown
it was	it was shown
we were	we were shown
they were	they were shown
Past Continuous	**Past Continuous**
I was being	I was being shown
you were being	you were being shown
he was being	he was being shown
she was being	she was being shown
it was being	it was being shown
we were being	we were being shown
they were being	they were being shown
Past Perfect	**Past Perfect**
I had been	I had been shown
you had been	you had been shown
he had been	he had been shown
she had been	she had been shown
it had been	it had been shown
we had been	we had been shown
they had been	they had been shown
Past Perfect Continuous	**Past Perfect Continuous**
I had been being	I had been being shown
you had been being	you had been being shown
he had been being	he had been being shown
she had been being	she had been being shown
it had been being	it had been being shown
we had been being	we had been being shown
they had been being	they had been being shown
Simple Future	**Simple Future**
I will (shall) be	I will (shall) be shown
you will be	you will be shown

he will be	he will be shown
she will be	she will be shown
it will be	it will be shown
we will (shall) be	we will (shall) be shown
they will be	they will be shown

Future Continuous	**Future Continuous**
I will (shall) be being	I will (shall) be being shown
you will be being	you will be being shown
he will be being	he will be being shown
she will be being	she will be being shown
it will be being	it will be being shown
we will (shall) be being	we will (shall) be being shown
they will be being	they will be being shown

Future Perfect	**Future Perfect**
I will (shall) have been	I will (shall) have been shown
you will have been	you will have been shown
he will have been	he will have been shown
she will have been	she will have been shown
it will have been	it will have been shown
we will (shall) have been	we will (shall) have been shown
they will have been	they will have been shown

Future Perfect Continuous	**Future Perfect Continuous**
I will (shall) have been being	I will (shall) have been being shown
you will have been being	you will have been being shown
he will have been being	he will have been being shown
she will have been being	she will have been being shown
It will have been being	it will have been being shown
we will (shall) have been being	we will (shall) have been being shown
they will have been being	they will have been being shown

c. Summary of the formation of the indicative tenses of the passive voice

The following table summarizes the formation of the Indicative tenses of the Passive Voice.

The Formation of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	am/is/are	past participle
Present Continuous	am/is/are being	past participle
Present Perfect	have/has been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous**	have/has been being	past participle
Simple Past	was/were	past participle
Past Continuous	was/were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous**	had been being	past participle
Simple Future	will (shall) be*	past participle

Future Continuous**	will (shall) be being	past participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have been	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous**	will (shall) have been being	past participle

* The other modal auxiliaries form conjugations in the same way as shown for **will** and **shall**.

** The Present Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect Continuous, Future Continuous, and Future Perfect Continuous tenses of the Passive Voice are cumbersome, and are rarely used. Only the more commonly used tenses of the Passive Voice will be discussed below.

3. Questions and negative statements

As is the case for other English conjugations, verbs in the Passive Voice form questions and negative statements using the first auxiliary.

a. Questions
To form a question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Question**
You were shown the sights.	Were you shown the sights?
She is being shown the sights.	Is she being shown the sights?
He will have been shown the sights.	Will he have been shown the sights?
We should be shown the sights.	Should we be shown the sights?

See Exercise 1.

b. Negative statements
To form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the first auxiliary. For example:

Negative Statements
You were not shown the sights.
She is not being shown the sights.
He will not have been shown the sights.
We should not be shown the sights.

See Exercise 2.

c. Negative questions
To form a negative question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. Contractions are often used in spoken English. For example:

Without Contractions

Were you not shown the sights?
Is she not being shown the sights?
Will he not have been shown the sights?
Should we not be shown the sights?

With Contractions
Weren't you shown the sights?
Isn't she being shown the sights?
Won't he have been shown the sights?
Shouldn't we be shown the sights?

See Exercise 3.

4. Changing the voice of a verb

When the verb of a sentence is changed from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice and the other words in the sentence are left unaltered, a change in meaning results. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. Active Voice: He is driving to the airport.
Passive Voice: He is being driven to the airport.
The person referred to by the subject of the first sentence is behaving actively; the person is doing the driving. The person referred to by the subject of the second sentence is behaving passively; someone else is doing the driving.

Using the first person singular of the verb **to show** as an example, the following table compares the most commonly used tenses of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice with the corresponding tenses of the Active Voice.

Tense	Active Voice	Passive Voice
Simple Present	I show	I am shown
Negative Statement:	I do not show	I am not shown
Present Continuous	I am showing	I am being shown
Present Perfect	I have shown	I have been shown
Simple Past	I showed	I was shown
Negative Statement:	I did not show	I was not shown
Past Continuous	I was showing	I was being shown
Past Perfect	I had shown	I had been shown
Simple Future	I will show	I will be shown
Future Perfect	I will have shown	I will have been shown
Simple, with **would**	I would show	I would be shown
Perfect, with **would**	I would have shown	I would have been shown

See Exercises 4 and 5.

5. Changing the voice of a verb while preserving the meaning of a sentence

In order to preserve the meaning of a sentence when the Voice of the verb is changed, it is necessary to alter the order of the words in the sentence.

a. Changing the verb from the active voice to the passive voice
When a verb which takes an object is changed from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice, in order to preserve the meaning of the sentence, the former object becomes the subject of the verb, and the former subject may be preceded by the preposition **by**, and placed after the verb. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the direct objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.

For instance, in the sentence:
The wind is rippling the **water**.
the verb **is rippling** has the subject **wind** and takes the object **water**. When the verb is put into the Passive Voice and the meaning of the sentence is preserved, the former object, **water**, becomes the subject of the verb, and the former subject, **wind**, becomes the object of the preposition **by**, as follows:
The water is being rippled by the wind.

Other examples are:
Active: The squirrel ate the **nut**.
Passive: The nut was eaten by the squirrel.

Active: The child will open the **parcel**.
Passive: The parcel will be opened by the child.

In the first pair of examples, the verb **ate**, in the Active Voice, is changed to **was eaten**, in the Passive Voice. In order to preserve the meaning, **nut**, the object of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the subject of the verb in the Passive Voice, and is placed before the verb; and **squirrel**, the subject of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the object of the preposition **by**, and is placed after the verb.

Similarly, in the second pair of examples, **parcel**, the object of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the subject of the verb in the Passive Voice and is placed before the verb; and **child**, the subject of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the object of the preposition **by**, and is placed after the verb.

See Exercise 6.

It should be noted that, when changing the Voice of a verb in a sentence while preserving the meaning of the sentence, it is necessary to make sure that the verb agrees with its new subject.
e.g. Active: The boys are mowing the **lawn**.
Passive: The lawn is being mowed by the boys.

In the first sentence, the subject **boys** is plural; therefore a plural auxiliary **are** is used. In the second sentence, the subject **lawn** is singular; therefore a singular auxiliary **is** is used. The agreement of verbs with noun subjects is discussed in the next chapter.

b. Changing the verb from the passive voice to the active voice
When a verb is changed from the Passive Voice to the Active Voice, in order to preserve the meaning of the sentence, the former subject becomes the object of the verb, and, if the sentence includes a phrase beginning with the preposition **by**, the former object of the preposition becomes the subject of the verb.
e.g. Passive: The clover is being eaten by the cow.
Active: The cow is eating the **clover**.

In this pair of examples, the verb **is being eaten**, in the Passive Voice, is changed to **is eating**, in the Active Voice. In order to preserve the meaning of the sentence, **clover**, the subject of the verb in the Passive Voice, becomes the object of the verb in the Active Voice, and is placed after the verb; and **cow**, the object of the preposition **by**, becomes the subject of the verb in the Active Voice, and is placed before the verb.

Other examples are:
Passive: The wine was ordered by the dealer.
Active: The dealer ordered the **wine**.

Passive: The deer could have been killed by the poacher.
Active: The poacher could have killed the **deer**.

See Exercise 7.

c. Changing the voice of a verb which takes both a direct object and an indirect object
When a verb in the Active Voice takes both a direct object and an indirect object, either object can become the subject of the verb when the verb is put into the Passive Voice, and the meaning of the sentence is preserved. The object which does not become the subject remains as an object. When a verb in the Passive Voice takes an indirect object, the indirect object is usually preceded by a preposition.
e.g. Active: The guide will show you the **museum**.
Passive: You will be shown the **museum** by the guide.
Passive: The museum will be shown to you by the guide.

In the first sentence, the verb **will show**, in the Active Voice, takes the direct object **museum**, and the indirect object **you**. In the second and third sentences, the verb **will be shown** is in the Passive Voice, and the meaning has been preserved by altering the word order and using the preposition **by**. In the second sentence, the former indirect object, **you**, is the subject of the verb, and the former direct object, **museum**, remains the direct object. In the third sentence, the former direct object, **museum**, is the subject of the verb, and the former indirect object, **you**, is preceded by the preposition **to**.

A similar example is:
Active: The policeman gave you a **medal**.
Passive: You were given a **medal** by the policeman.
Passive: A medal was given to you by the policeman.

In the first sentence, the verb **gave**, in the Active Voice, takes the direct object **medal** and the indirect object **you**. In the second and third sentences, the verb **was given** is in the Passive Voice. In the second sentence, the former indirect object, **you**, is the subject of the verb, and

the former direct object, **medal**, remains the direct object. In the third sentence, the former direct object, **medal**, is the subject of the verb, and the former indirect object, **you**, is preceded by the preposition **to**.

6. The subjunctive mood of the passive voice

The Passive Voice tenses discussed so far have all been in the Indicative Mood. However, verbs in the Passive Voice can also be put into the Subjunctive Mood.

It has been seen that all of the tenses in the Passive Voice are formed using auxiliaries. As has already been explained, the Subjunctive Mood of tenses using auxiliaries is formed by putting the first auxiliary into the Subjunctive Mood.

Using the verb **to show** as an example, the following table illustrates the formation of the tenses of the Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice.

The Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice of the verb To Show

Simple Present	**Simple Past**
I be shown	I were shown
you be shown	you were shown
he be shown	he were shown
she be shown	she were shown
it be shown	it were shown
we be shown	we were shown
they be shown	they were shown
Present Continuous	**Past Continuous**
I be being shown	I were being shown
you be being shown	you were being shown
he be being shown	he were being shown
she be being shown	she were being shown
it be being shown	it were being shown
we be being shown	we were being shown
they be being shown	they were being shown
Present Perfect	**Past Perfect**
I have been shown	I had been shown
you have been shown	you had been shown
he have been shown	he had been shown
she have been shown	she had been shown
it have been shown	it had been shown
we have been shown	we had been shown
they have been shown	they had been shown
Present Perfect Continuous	**Past Perfect Continuous**
I have been being shown	I had been being shown
you have been being shown	you had been being shown

he have been being shown	he had been being shown
she have been being shown	she had been being shown
it have been being shown	it had been being shown
we have been being shown	we had been being shown
they have been being shown	they had been being shown

The following table summarizes the formation of the Subjunctive tenses of the Passive Voice.

The Formation of the Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	**Auxiliary**	**Verb Form**
Simple Present	be	past participle
Present Continuous	be being	past participle
Present Perfect	have been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been being	past participle
Simple Past	were	past participle
Past Continuous	were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been being	past participle

a. Use of the simple present subjunctive
Like the Simple Present Subjunctive of the Active Voice, the Simple Present Subjunctive of the Passive Voice is often used in subordinate clauses beginning with **that** in sentences which contain formal commands, or requests.

As can be seen from the preceding table, the Simple Present Subjunctive of The Passive Voice is formed from the invariable auxiliary **be**, followed by the past participle of the verb. The following sentences are examples of the use of the Simple Present Subjunctive of the Passive Voice.
e.g. I request that he be invited to speak.
We asked that our suggestions be considered.
They will insist that their colleague be admitted to the association.

See Exercise 8.

b. Use of the past forms of the subjunctive
Like the past forms of the Subjunctive of the Active Voice, the past forms of the Subjunctive of the Passive Voice are used in wishes, and in statements containing false or improbable conditions.
e.g. I wish he were allowed to come.
It would have been better if they had been invited.

In the first example, the Simple Past Subjunctive of the Passive Voice, **were allowed**, is used in expressing a wish. In the second example, the Past Perfect Subjunctive of the Passive Voice, **had been invited**, is used in expressing the false condition **they had been invited**.

CHAPTER 13. NOUNS: THE FORMATION OF PLURALS

A **noun** is a word used as the name of a person or a thing. In the following examples, the nouns are underlined.

He opened the parcel.
She is a student.
The weather is warm.
A cat is sitting on the steps.

1. Proper nouns

Names of individual persons or things are referred to as **proper nouns**. In English, proper nouns must begin with a capital letter. The underlined words in the following sentences are proper nouns.

e.g. The capital of England is London.
My friend, George, is an American.

2. Countable nouns

Countable nouns are nouns which can form a plural, and which can be preceded by **a**, **an**, or a number. In the following examples, the countable nouns are underlined.

e.g. A bus is coming.
You may need an umbrella.
Here are two books.
Twenty students are present.

3. The formation of plurals

In general, when a countable noun refers to two or more things, it must be put into the plural. In English, the plural of most countable nouns is formed by adding **s**. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
hat	hats
letter	letters
pencil	pencils
student	students

It has already been explained that a verb must agree with its subject. When the subject of a verb is a singular noun, the verb must be in the third person singular. The third person singular is the form of the verb used with the personal pronouns **he**, **she**, and **it**.

When the subject of a verb is a plural noun, the verb must be in the third person plural. The third person plural is the form of the verb used with the personal pronoun **they**. In the following examples, the verbs are printed in bold type and their subjects are underlined.

Singular Subject: The book **is** interesting.
Plural Subject: The books **are** interesting.

Singular Subject: A duck **was flying** overhead.
Plural Subject: Two ducks **were flying** overhead.

Singular Subject: One student **lives** here.
Plural Subject: Three students **live** here.

See Exercise 1.

a. Nouns ending in ch, s, sh, x or z
For nouns ending in **ch**, **s**, **sh**, **x** or **z**, the plural is formed by adding **es**. The reason for this is that these words would be difficult to pronounce if only **s** were added. The ending **es** is pronounced as a separate syllable. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
branch	branch**es**
match	match**es**
bus	bus**es**
pass	pass**es**
dish	dish**es**
marsh	marsh**es**
ax	ax**es**
fox	fox**es**
buzz	buzz**es**

It should be noted that when a plural is formed by adding **s** to words ending in **ce**, **ge**, **se** or **ze**, the final **es** is pronounced as a separate syllable. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
place	plac**es**
voice	voic**es**
change	chang**es**
page	pag**es**
house	hous**es**
phrase	phras**es**
size	siz**es**

In each of the preceding examples, the singular noun consists of one syllable, whereas the plural noun consists two syllables.

See Exercise 2.

b. Nouns ending in y
Nouns ending in **y** preceded by a consonant usually form the plural by changing the **y** to **i** and adding **es**. For example:

Singular	**Plural**

candy	candies
city	cities
lady	ladies
story	stories

Nouns ending in **y** preceded by a vowel usually form the plural simply by adding **s**. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
boy	boys
day	days
key	keys
toy	toys

See Exercise 3.

c. Plurals of proper nouns

Proper nouns form plurals following the rules given above, except that proper nouns ending in **y** always form the plural simply by adding **s**, even when the **y** is preceded by a consonant. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
Jill	Jills
Tom	Toms
George	Georges
Grace	Graces
Jones	Joneses
Max	Maxes
May	Mays
Nancy	Nancys
Sally	Sallys

See Exercise 4.

d. Nouns ending in f or fe

Some English nouns ending in **f** or **fe** change the **f** to **v** when forming the plural. For instance, the following nouns ending in **f** form the plural by changing the **f** to **v** and adding **es**:

Singular	**Plural**
calf	calves
elf	elves
half	halves
leaf	leaves
loaf	loaves
self	selves
sheaf	sheaves
shelf	shelves
thief	thieves

wolf	wolves

In addition, the following nouns ending in **fe** form the plural by changing the **f** to **v** and adding **s**:

Singular	**Plural**
knife	knives
life	lives
wife	wives

There are also a few nouns ending in **f** which can form the plural in two different ways. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
hoof	hoofs **or** hooves
scarf	scarfs **or** scarves
staff	staffs **or** staves
wharf	wharfs **or** wharves

Most other nouns ending in **f** or **fe** form the plural simply by adding **s**.

See Exercise 5.

e. Nouns ending in o

Some English nouns ending in **o** form the plural by adding **s**, some form the plural by adding **es**, and some can form the plural by adding either **s** or **es**. The following fairly commonly used nouns form the plural by adding **es**:

Singular	**Plural**
archipelago	archipelagoes
cargo	cargoes
echo	echoes
hero	heroes
innuendo	innuendoes
mosquito	mosquitoes
potato	potatoes
tomato	tomatoes
tornado	tornadoes
torpedo	torpedoes
veto	vetoes
volcano	volcanoes

Most other nouns ending in **o**, particularly those of Spanish or Italian origin, can form the plural simply by adding **s**; however a good dictionary should be consulted in cases of doubt. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
albino	albinos
alto	altos
casino	casinos

piano	pianos
radio	radios
ratio	ratios
silo	silos
solo	solos
sombrero	sombreros
soprano	sopranos
studio	studios

See Exercise 6.

f. Foreign words

Many words from other languages have been adopted into the English language. Most of these form the plural by adding **s** or **es**, but some, particularly Greek and Latin words used for scientific purposes, form the plural in the same way that they do in the original language. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
analysis	analyses
axis	axes
basis	bases
crisis	crises
criterion	criteria
honorarium	honoraria
hypothesis	hypotheses
medium	media
nebula	nebulae
nucleus	nuclei
oasis	oases
parenthesis	parentheses
phenomenon	phenomena
spectrum	spectra
stimulus	stimuli
stratum	strata
synopsis	synopses
synthesis	syntheses
thesis	theses
vertebra	vertebrae

See Exercise 7.

g. Hyphenated nouns

In the case of nouns formed from two or more words joined by hyphens, usually only the last word forms a plural. However, there are a few cases in which only the first word forms a plural. For example:

Singular	**Plural**

brother-in-law	brothers-in-law
daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law
father-in-law	fathers-in-law
mother-in-law	mothers-in-law
runner-up	runners-up
sister-in-law	sisters-in-law
son-in-law	sons-in-law

h. Numbers and letters

Numbers, letters, and other symbols can form plurals by adding **'s**. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
3	3's
b	b's
%	%'s

i. Irregular plurals

The English language has not always used **s** to form plurals. There are still a few words surviving from Old English, which do not use **s** to form the plural. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
child	children
foot	feet
goose	geese
tooth	teeth
louse	lice
mouse	mice
ox	oxen
man	men
woman	women

Nouns ending in **man** usually form the plural by changing **man** to **men**. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
gentleman	gentlemen
policeman	policemen
policewoman	policewomen

A few nouns do not change in the plural. For example:

Singular	**Plural**
deer	deer
sheep	sheep
salmon	salmon

See Exercise 8.

CHAPTER 14. SINGULAR COUNTABLE NOUNS

1. The use of determiners with singular countable nouns

In English, singular countable nouns usually cannot be used alone; they must be preceded by a word such as **a**, **the**, **each** or **every**.
e.g. a box
the person
each child
every tree

The words **a**, **the**, **each** and every are examples of a group of words which can be referred to as **determiners**. Such words, when used together with nouns, help to determine to which particular entities the nouns are referring. Determiners other than **a** and **the** are dealt with in detail in a separate chapter.

Singular countable nouns must usually be preceded by determiners even when the nouns are also preceded by various descriptive words.
e.g. a heavy, awkward box
the right person
each young child
every tall tree

The meanings of the words **a** and **the** are less specific than the meanings of the other determiners. **A** and **the** are sometimes referred to as **articles**. They are the determiners most frequently used with singular countable nouns.

2. A and An

The word **a** is often referred to as **the indefinite article**. The indefinite article has two forms: **a** and **an**. The form **a** is used before words which begin with a consonant sound.
e.g. a broom
a garage
a green apple

As well as being used before words beginning with consonants, **a** is also used before words which begin with vowels, but which are pronounced with an initial consonant sound. For instance, **a** is used before words beginning with **eu** and words beginning with a long **u**, since these words are pronounced with an initial **y** sound. **A** is also used before the word **one**, since **one** is pronounced with an initial **w** sound.
e.g. a euphonium
a utensil
a one-way street

As was mentioned in Chapter 3, a vowel followed by a single consonant, followed by another vowel, is usually pronounced long. **A** is used before the following words which begin with a long **u**:

ubiquitous
unanimous
unicorn
unification
unified
uniform
union
unique
unison
unit
united
university
uranium
use
useful
useless
usual
usurper
utensil
utility
Utopia

The word **an** is used before words beginning with a vowel sound.
e.g. an apple
an old broom
an umbrella
an hour

As well as being used before words beginning with vowels, **an** is also used before the following words which begin with a silent **h**:

heir
heirloom
honest
honor
honorable
honorarium
honorary
honorific
hour
hourglass
hourly

See Exercise 1.

3. The use of A and An before singular countable nouns

In many languages, the word for **a** is the same as the word for **one**. This was also formerly the case in English. Because of the association of **a** and **an** with the idea of **one**, **a** and **an** are usually used only with singular countable nouns.

a. A weakened form of One

A or **an** frequently has the meaning of a weakened form of **one**.
e.g. I would like a cup of tea.
A car is parked in front of the house.
The child owns a bicycle.

b. Naming a profession
When a sentence such as the following is used to name someone's profession, **a** or **an** must precede the name of the profession.
e.g. She is an artist.
He is a student.

c. Making a general statement
A is referred to as the **indefinite** article because it can be used to refer to something in general terms. **A** and **an** are often used in general statements.
e.g. A bank account can provide a good means of saving money.
An accountant must have a good knowledge of arithmetic.
A good pair of scissors should be used for cutting cloth.

d. Referring to something not mentioned before
In dialogue and descriptions, **a** and **an** are used with nouns that name something which has not been referred to previously.
e.g. Where can I find a telephone?
Suddenly we heard an eerie sound.
All at once a moose appeared in front of us.
In these examples, it is assumed that the things referred to by the nouns **telephone**, **sound** and **moose** have not been referred to previously.

e. A or An with the meaning of Per
A or **an** can also be used with the meaning of **per**.
e.g. once a week
two dollars a dozen
four times a year
In these examples, **a** has the meaning of **per**. For instance, **once a week** means **once per week**, and **two dollars a dozen** means **two dollars per dozen**.

4. The use of The before singular countable nouns

The word **the** is often referred to as **the definite article**. The Old English word from which **the** is derived was used as a demonstrative pronoun, with a meaning similar to that of the modern English words **this** and **that**. In modern English, the word **the** is usually used with a noun when the speaker or writer feels that there will be no doubt about which particular thing is meant.

a. Referring to something mentioned before
The is used with nouns referring to things previously mentioned.
e.g. Here is the book I mentioned to you last week.
As I was walking to work I passed a garden. The garden was full of roses.
In the first example, **the** is used with **book**, because the book has been mentioned previously.

In the second example, the first time the garden is referred to, the indefinite article **a** is used, because the garden has not been mentioned previously. The second time the garden is referred to, the definite article **the** is used, because the garden has already been mentioned.

See Exercise 2.

b. Referring to something unique
The is used when referring to things which are unique, since in such cases there can be no doubt about which particular thing is meant.
e.g. I have found the answer.
This is the shortest route into town.
In the first example, **the** would be used if there is only one possible answer. In the second example, **the** is used because only one route can be the shortest one.

Expressions such as **middle of** and **top of** are generally preceded by **the**, since it is considered that there can, for example, be only one middle or one top of something.
e.g. There is a car stopped in the middle of the road.
She is at the top of her class.
They like to be the center of attention.
The police are determined to get to the bottom of the mystery.

c. Referring to something when it is considered obvious what is meant
The is also used when, because the thing being referred to is the most important one of its kind to the speaker or writer, it is assumed that it will be understood which particular thing is meant.
e.g. The house needs to be painted.
The sun rose at six o'clock this morning.
I'm going to the park.
Don't slam the door.

These sentences give examples of the use of **the** to refer to things which are not in fact unique, but which are uniquely important to the speaker or writer. The expression **the house** is often used when referring to one's own house. The expression **the sun** almost always refers to the sun which is closest to the earth. The expression **the park** might be used to refer to the only park in the vicinity, or to a park which one visits often. In the sentence **Don't slam the door,** the expression **the door** might refer to the door of the room or building which one is presently occupying.

d. Referring to something as a class
When preceded by **the**, a singular countable noun can be used to represent something as a class.
e.g. The telephone is a modern convenience.
The horse is a domesticated animal.
The eagle is a bird of prey.
In the first example, **the telephone** refers to telephones considered as a class. Likewise, in the other examples, **the horse** refers to horses considered as a class, and **the eagle** refers to eagles considered as a class.

It should be noted that **the** is not used when the word **man** represents the human race considered as a class.

e.g. Man has invented many things.
The dolphin may be as intelligent as man.

See Exercise 3.

CHAPTER 15. PLURAL COUNTABLE NOUNS

1. The absence of a determiner before plural countable nouns

The absence of a determiner before plural countable nouns generally has the same significance as the presence of **a** or **an** before singular countable nouns.

a. Making a general statement

When used in general statements, plural countable nouns are usually not preceded by determiners. The plural countable nouns in the following general statements are underlined.
e.g. Musicians must practise a great deal.
Newspapers can contain valuable information.
Larches are conifers.

A general idea can often be expressed either by means of a singular countable noun preceded by **a** or **an**, or by means of a plural countable noun not preceded by a determiner. For instance, in each of the following pairs of sentences, both sentences in the pair have the same meaning.

Musicians must practise a great deal.
A musician must practise a great deal.

Newspapers can contain valuable information.
A newspaper can contain valuable information.

Larches are conifers.
A larch is a conifer.

See Exercises 1, 2, 3 and 4.

b. Referring to something not mentioned before

Plural countable nouns are generally not preceded by a determiner when referring to something not mentioned before.
e.g. Branches blocked our path.
Clouds were gathering overhead.
Suddenly we saw buildings in front of us.
In these examples, the plural nouns **branches**, **clouds** and **buildings** are not preceded by determiners. It is assumed that the branches, clouds and buildings have not been referred to previously.

c. Naming a profession

When a sentence such as the following is used to name a profession practised by two or more

people, the name of the profession is in the plural and is not preceded by a determiner.
e.g. They are doctors.
My friends are electricians.
We were chefs.

2. The use of The before plural countable nouns

a. Referring to something mentioned before
In general, **the** has the same meaning when used with plural countable nouns as when used with singular countable nouns. For instance, **the** is used with plural countable nouns when referring to something which has been mentioned before.
e.g. Fallen leaves covered the ground. The leaves rustled as we walked.
In the orchard were apples and pears. The apples were nearly ripe.
The doors opened, and students and teachers began leaving the building. The students were talking and laughing.

In these examples, the first time the words **leaves**, **apples** and **students** appear, they are not preceded by determiners, because the things referred to have not been mentioned previously. The second time the words **leaves**, **apples** and **students** appear, they are preceded by **the**, since the things referred to have already been mentioned.

See Exercise 5.

b. Referring to something when it is considered obvious what is meant
The is used with plural countable nouns when the speaker or writer considers it obvious which particular persons or things are meant.
e.g. The stars are shining brightly.
The roses are blooming.
We have put the children to bed.
I was sitting on the front steps.

These sentences give examples of the use of **the** to refer to things which are particularly important to the speaker or writer. The expression **the stars** usually refers to the stars which can be seen from the part of the earth where one lives. The expression **the roses** might refer to roses in one's own garden, or to roses in which one feels a particular interest. **The children** might refer to one's own children or to children for whom one is responsible. **The front steps** might refer to the front steps of one's own house.

c. Names of nationalities
The is sometimes used with the name of a nationality in order to make a general statement about the people of that nationality. A plural verb must be used in such a statement.

When the name of a nationality ends in the sound of **ch**, **s**, **sh** or **z**, the name of the nationality must usually be preceded by **the**.

Nationality	**Example**
French	The French are famous for their fine wines.

Irish	The Irish are known as poets and songwriters.

When the name of a nationality does not end in the sound of **ch**, **s**, **sh** or **z**, the letter **s** must be added to the end of the name when it is used in a general statement. Names of nationalities to which **s** has been added are often used without being preceded by **the**.

Nationality	**Example**
Argentinian	Argentinians like to eat beef.
Canadian	Canadians have a tradition of playing hockey.

d. Adjectives referring to classes of people

Adjectives such as **rich** and **poor** can be used with **the** in order to refer to a group of people as a class. A plural verb must be used.

e.g. The blind attend special schools.
The poor do not own their own homes.
The rich often married for money.

In the above examples, **the blind** has the meaning of **blind people**, **the poor** has the meaning of **poor people**, and **the rich** has the meaning of **rich people**.

The following table summarizes the most important uses of the determiners **a**, **an**, and **the** with singular and plural countable nouns.

The absence of a determiner and the use of A, An and The before countable nouns

Use	**Singular Countable Nouns**	**Plural Countable Nouns**
A weakened form of **One**	a/an	
Naming a profession	a/an	no determiner
Making a general statement	a/an	no determiner
Something not mentioned before	a/an	no determiner
Something referred to as a class	the	
Something mentioned before	the	the
When it is obvious what is meant	the	the
Nationalities ending in ch, se, sh		the
Adjectives referring to classes of people		the

See Exercise 6.

3. The use of The with proper nouns

a. Names of people

In English, names of people in the singular are not usually preceded by a determiner.

e.g. Washington was the first president of the United States.
Jack and Eleanor saw the movie.

Determiners are also usually not used when a title precedes a person's name.
Doctor Defoe has a good reputation.
Mr. Carpenter is a friend of ours.
In these examples, the titles **Doctor** and **Mr.** are not preceded by determiners.

However, names of people in the plural are usually preceded by **the**.
e.g. The Smiths live in that house.
I have known the Harrisons for years.

b. Names of places
In English, **the** is usually used before the following types of place name:

Type of Place Name
canal
desert
ocean
river
sea
plural place names
place names containing the word **of**

The following are examples of names of canals, deserts, oceans, rivers, and seas:
e.g. the Panama Canal
the Mojave Desert
the Atlantic Ocean
the St. Lawrence River
the Beaufort Sea

The following are examples of plural place names:
e.g. the United States
the British Isles
the Great Lakes
the Rocky Mountains

The following are examples of place names containing the word **of**:
e.g. the Gulf of Mexico
the Cape of Good Hope
the Bay of Biscay
the Isle of Wight

Other types of place name are usually not preceded by determiners. For instance, determiners are usually not used before the following types of place name:

Type of Place Name	**Example**
lake	Lake Superior
island	Manhattan Island
mountain	Mount Rainier
park	Yosemite National Park

city	Boston
street	Main Street
country	Canada
state	Kansas
province	Nova Scotia
county	Halifax County

See Exercise 7.

4. Nouns used only in the plural

Some English nouns are usually used only in the plural. Such nouns take a plural verb, and generally have a plural form. For instance, the following nouns, which all refer to objects with two parts, are usually used only in the plural:

e.g. jeans
pajamas
pliers
scissors

If it is desired to refer to such objects individually, the expression **pair of** is often used.

e.g. a pair of jeans
a pair of pajamas
a pair of pliers
a pair of scissors

When the expression **pair of** is used as the subject of the verb, the verb must agree with the word **pair**.

e.g. Jeans are fashionable.
A pair of jeans is expensive.

Pliers are very useful.
A pair of pliers is often useful.

In the above examples, the nouns **jeans** and **pliers** take the plural verb **are**, and the noun **pair** takes the singular verb **is**.

See Exercise 8.

CHAPTER 16. UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

Some English nouns usually cannot form a plural or be preceded by **a**, **an** or a number. Because they usually cannot be preceded by a number, such nouns can be referred to as **uncountable**. English uncountable nouns include:

a) nouns naming intangible things which normally cannot be counted:

e.g. honesty
courage
impatience

b) nouns naming tangible things which are thought of as substances:
e.g. butter
milk
sand

c) nouns naming groups of things which in English are referred to collectively:
e.g. furniture
luggage
news

d) names of languages:
e.g. English
German
Spanish

An uncountable noun takes a singular verb.
e.g. Honesty is a virtue.
Butter tastes good.
Furniture was provided.

1. The absence of a determiner before uncountable nouns

a. Making a general statement

In general statements, uncountable nouns are usually not preceded by determiners. The uncountable nouns in the following general statements are underlined.
e.g. Information is often valuable.
Butter is fattening.
Courage and honesty are admirable qualities.
Sunlight and water are usually required for plants to grow.

b. Referring to something not mentioned before

In descriptions, uncountable nouns are generally not preceded by a determiner when naming something which has not been referred to previously.
e.g. Rain was forecast for the next day.
However, thunder and lightning were not expected.
Our breakfast consisted of bread, honey and marmalade.

In these examples, the uncountable nouns **rain**, **thunder**, **lightning**, **bread**, **honey** and **marmalade** are not preceded by determiners. It is assumed that the things referred to by these nouns have not been mentioned previously.

See Exercise 1.

2. The use of The before uncountable nouns

a. Referring to something mentioned before
The is used with uncountable nouns referring to things previously mentioned.
e.g. We were served bread and cheese. The bread was somewhat stale, but the cheese was delicious.
Gold was discovered in the Klondike. The gold attracted thousands of prospectors.
Furniture and clothing are being sold at the flea market. The furniture is reasonably priced, and the clothing is cheap.

In these examples, the first time the uncountable nouns **bread**, **cheese**, **gold**, **furniture** and **clothing** are used, they are not preceded by determiners, because the things referred to have not been mentioned previously. The second time these nouns are used, they are preceded by **the**, since the things referred to have already been mentioned.

See Exercise 2.

b. Referring to something when it is considered obvious what is meant
The is used with uncountable nouns when the speaker or writer considers it obvious which particular thing is meant.
e.g. The weather is fine.
The butter is hard.
The music is too loud.
The expression **the weather** usually refers to the local weather. The expression **the butter** could refer to butter which one plans to use, and the expression **the music** could refer to music which is playing nearby.

The is often used before uncountable nouns followed by descriptive phrases, since such phrases tend to make it clear to which particular things the uncountable nouns are referring.
e.g. The warmth of the sun causes water to evaporate.
The coal mined in Germany is used in making steel.
The milk which they produce is marketed locally.

In the first sentence, **the** is used with the uncountable noun **warmth**, since the phrase **of the sun** specifies what warmth is meant. In the second sentence, **the** is used with the uncountable noun **coal**, since the phrase **mined in Germany** specifies which particular coal is meant. In the third sentence, **the** is used with the uncountable noun **milk**, since the phrase **which they produce** makes it clear which particular milk is meant.

As shown in the following table, the absence of a determiner and the use of **the** before uncountable nouns follows a pattern similar to the absence of a determiner and the use of **the** before plural countable nouns.

The absence of a determiner and the use of The before uncountable nouns

Use	Uncountable Nouns
Making a general statement	no determiner
Something not mentioned before	no determiner
Something mentioned before	the
When it is obvious what is meant	the

3. The use of uncountable nouns to refer to individual things

Uncountable nouns can be used to refer to individual things by being preceded by a countable noun and the word **of**. For example:

Uncountable Noun	Referring to an Individual Thing
information	a piece of information
wheat	a grain of wheat
milk	a glass of milk
sunlight	a patch of sunlight

The countable nouns may, of course, be put into the plural. For example:

Singular	Plural
one piece of information	two pieces of information
one grain of wheat	three grains of wheat
one glass of milk	four glasses of milk
one patch of sunlight	five patches of sunlight

In sentences such as the following, it is the countable noun which is the subject of the verb.
e.g. Fifty grains of wheat are required.
Two glasses of milk are enough.
In the above examples, the plural countable nouns **grains** and **glasses** each take the plural verb **are**.

In English, the names of games are usually uncountable nouns.
e.g. He plays hockey.
Chess is a challenging game.

When it is desired to refer to individual games, the word **game** must usually be used. For example:

Uncountable Noun	Referring to an Individual Thing
chess	a game of chess
hockey	a game of hockey **or** a hockey game

See Exercise 3.

4. Nouns which can be either countable or uncountable

Many English nouns are used sometimes as countable nouns and sometimes as uncountable nouns. Nouns which can be either countable or uncountable include nouns which may have different shades of meaning; normally uncountable nouns which are used to refer to types of things; and a few nouns which refer to places used for specific activities.

a. Differences in meaning

Many nouns are uncountable when they refer to something as a substance or a concept, but are countable when they refer to an individual thing related to the substance or concept. For instance, **cake** is used as an uncountable noun when referring to cake as a substance, but is used as a countable noun when referring to individual cakes.

e.g. Cake and ice cream is my favorite dessert.

This afternoon we baked two cakes.

In the first sentence **cake** is an uncountable noun, and in the second sentence **cakes** is a countable noun.

Similarly, **life** is used as an uncountable noun when referring to life as an abstract concept, but is used as a countable noun when referring to individual lives.

e.g. Life is full of surprises.

It was feared that two lives had been lost.

In the first sentence **life** is an uncountable noun, and in the second sentence **lives** is a countable noun.

b. Referring to a type of something

An uncountable noun can be used as countable noun when it refers to a type of something.

e.g. He has an honesty which is rare nowadays.

The wheats of Canada differ from those of India.

In the first sentence, the usually uncountable noun **honesty** is used with **an** as a countable noun to refer to a type of honesty. In the second sentence, the usually uncountable noun **wheat** is used as a countable noun in the plural to refer to types of wheat.

c. Referring to places used for specific activities

A few nouns referring to places used for specific activities can be either countable or uncountable. These nouns are used as uncountable nouns when referring to places as locations where specific activities are carried out, but are used as countable nouns when referring to the places as objects. In the following pairs of sentences, the words **bed** and **church** are used first as uncountable nouns, and then as countable nouns.

e.g. Because I was tired, I stayed in bed.

Please help me to move the bed.

She goes to church.

She likes to photograph churches.

In the first pair of sentences, **stayed in bed** refers to the activity of resting in bed; whereas **move the bed** refers to a bed as an object. In the second pair of sentences, **goes to church** refers to the activity of taking part in church services; whereas **likes to photograph churches** refers to churches as objects.

Nouns which are used in this way include:

bed	home	sea
church	hospital	town
college	prison	university
court	school	

d. Names of meals
Similarly, the word **television** and the names of meals such as **breakfast**, **lunch**, **dinner** and **supper** are used as uncountable nouns when it is desired to emphasize the activity being carried out.
e.g. They are watching television.
We are eating breakfast.

See Exercise 4.

5. Infinitives used in the place of nouns

Infinitives are sometimes used in the place of nouns.
e.g. To ski well is one of my goals.
They plan to call us.

In the first sentence, the infinitive **to ski** performs the function of a noun, since it is the subject of the verb **is**. In the second sentence, the infinitive **to call** performs the function of a noun, since it is the object of the verb **to plan**. These infinitives also function as verbs, since **to ski** is described by the adverb **well**, and **to call** takes the object **us**.

Like an uncountable noun, an infinitive which is the subject of a verb takes a singular verb. Unlike an uncountable noun, an infinitive usually cannot be preceded by the word **the**.

6. Gerunds

Present participles are often used in the place of nouns. A present participle used in the place of a noun is usually referred to as a **gerund**. In the following sentences, the gerunds are underlined.
e.g. Skating is good exercise.
They like jogging.
In the first sentence, **skating** is the subject of the verb **is**. In the second sentence, **jogging** is the object of the verb **like**.

A gerund can perform the functions of a noun and a verb at the same time.
e.g. Riding a bicycle is good exercise.
They like playing hockey.

In the first sentence, the gerund **riding** functions as a noun, since it is the subject of the verb **is**; and also functions as a verb, since it takes the object **bicycle**. In the second sentence, the gerund **playing** functions as a noun, since it is the object of the verb **like**; and also functions as a verb, since it takes the object **hockey**.

In their role as nouns, gerunds are sometimes regarded as uncountable nouns. Like an uncountable noun, a gerund which is the subject of a verb takes a singular verb. Also, like an uncountable noun, a gerund can be preceded by **the** when referring to a particular thing or to something previously mentioned.

e.g. The skiing was excellent.
He went hunting. The hunting was good.

In the first example, **the skiing** could refer to skiing done at a particular place. In the second example, **the hunting** refers to the hunting mentioned in the previous sentence.

7. Specific verbs followed by infinitives and gerunds

a. Verbs followed by infinitives

Many English verbs can be followed by an infinitive. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the infinitives are printed in bold type.
e.g. They want **to succeed**.
He hopes **to travel** next year.

The following verbs can take an infinitive as an object, but cannot take a gerund as an object:

agree	demand	learn	promise
appear	deserve	manage	refuse
arrange	expect	mean	seem
ask	fail	need	tend
claim	forget	offer	threaten
consent	hesitate	plan	wait
dare	hope	prepare	want
decide	intend	pretend	

Other examples of the use of infinitives with these verbs are:
They agreed **to come**.
He expected **to win**.
She managed **to keep** the secret.
We pretended **to agree** with them.

b. Verbs followed by either infinitives or gerunds

Some English verbs can be followed either by an infinitive or by a gerund. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the infinitives and gerunds are printed in bold type.
e.g. I like **to fish**.
I like **fishing**.

She prefers **to ride** a bicycle.
She prefers **riding** a bicycle.

The following verbs can take either an infinitive or a gerund as an object:

attempt	like
begin	love
cease	prefer
commence	propose
continue	start
hate	try

c. Verbs followed by gerunds

Other English verbs can be followed by a gerund, but cannot be followed by an infinitive used as an object. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the gerunds are printed in bold type.

e.g. They disliked **waiting**.
It stopped **raining**.

The following verbs can take a gerund as an object, but cannot take an infinitive as an object:

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
keep	appreciate	admit	avoid	complete
practise	deplore	anticipate	defer	finish
risk	detest	consider	delay	quit
	dislike	deny	escape	stop
	dread	discuss	miss	
	enjoy	mention	postpone	
	loathe	recall		
	mind	recommend		
	regret	suggest		
	resent			
	resist			
	tolerate			

It should be noted that many of the verbs listed above have similar meanings. The second column contains verbs which express feelings about doing something; many of the feelings are negative. The third column contains verbs which refer to thoughts about doing something. The fourth column contains verbs which refer to negative actions with respect to doing something. The fifth column contains verbs which refer to ceasing to do something.

Other examples of the use of gerunds with these verbs are:

I kept **calling** the office.
We appreciate **hearing** from you.
He denies **following** us.
They avoid **discussing** the subject.
She finished **filling** in the blanks.

See Exercise 5.

CHAPTER 17. NOUNS INDICATING POSSESSION AND COMPOUND SUBJECTS

1. Ways in which possession is indicated

a. The ending 's

One way in which English nouns indicate possession is by means of the ending **'s**.
e.g. the boy's hat
Sally's bicycle
In the above examples, the ending **'s** indicates that the hat is possessed by the boy, and that the bicycle is possessed by Sally. The English ending **'s** is related to the German possessive ending **es**.

The ending **'s** is most often used with nouns referring to human beings or animals.
e.g. the child's toy
the bird's song

Nouns formed from two or more words joined by hyphens indicate possession by adding **'s** to the last word.
e.g. the runner-up's score
the sister-in-law's children

The ending **'s** may also used with nouns referring to non-living things which are sometimes thought of as if they were living, such as ships, countries, corporations, and the earth.
e.g. the ship's bell
Italy's exports
the city's parks
the earth's surface

The ending **'s** may also be used with nouns referring to units of time.
e.g. a day's work
a week's delay

In addition, the ending **'s** is used with nouns referring to non-living things in a few idioms such as the following:
e.g. a stone's throw away
your money's worth

It should be noted that the ending **'s** is used only with singular and plural nouns which do not end in **s**.
e.g. the girl's hat
the children's books
the men's jackets

b. The ending s'
For plural nouns which end in **s**, the ending **'s** is not used. Instead, an apostrophe: **'** is placed after the **s** which indicates a plural. The following examples illustrate how the plural nouns **students** and **Smiths** indicate possession.
e.g. the students' books
the Smiths' house
In these examples, the apostrophes indicate that the books belong to the students, and that the house belongs to the Smiths.

It should be noted that both **'s** and **s'** are pronounced like **s**. Thus, in spoken English, there is no distinction between a singular noun with the ending **'s** and a plural noun ending in **s'**. For

instance, the phrase **the student's books** is pronounced in the same way as the phrase **the students' books**.

In American English, singular nouns ending in **s** can also indicate possession by means of a final apostrophe.
e.g. James' scarf
Dickens' novels
In these examples, a final apostrophe is used with the singular proper nouns **James** and **Dickens** to indicate possession.

See Exercises 1 and 2.

c. Phrases beginning with Of
When the possessor is not a human being or animal, possession is often indicated by the use of a phrase beginning with **of** following the name of the thing possessed. A phrase beginning with **of** is most commonly used when the thing possessed is an abstract quality, such as size. This means of indicating possession is related to the method used in French, and may be the result of the influence of French on the English language.
e.g. the size of the portrait
the color of the carpet
the beginning of the story

See Exercise 3.

d. Two consecutive nouns
When the possessor and the thing possessed are both concrete objects, possession can often be indicated by placing the noun naming the possessor before the noun naming the thing possessed.
e.g. the car radio
the tree trunk
the kitchen sink
the onion skin
These examples indicate that the radio belongs to the car, the trunk belongs to the tree, the sink belongs to the kitchen, and the skin belongs to the onion. This type of construction will be discussed further in the section on Defining Adjectives.

2. Agreement of verbs with collective nouns and compound subjects

The following rules apply in formal English, but may or may not be observed in informal English.

a. Collective nouns
Collective nouns are singular nouns which refer to a group. The words **audience**, **class**, **family**, **flock**, **group** and **team** are examples of collective nouns.

A collective noun takes a singular verb when the group referred to acts as a whole or is considered as a whole.
e.g. Our team has won the game.

That family is well-known.

In the first example, the singular verb **has won** is used, since the collective noun **team** refers to a group acting as a whole. In the second example, the singular verb **is** is used, since the collective noun **family** refers to a group being considered as a whole.

However, a collective noun takes a plural verb when the members of the group are considered to be acting individually.

e.g. The flock were running, playing and searching for fresh grass.

The audience were throwing flowers and jewelry onto the stage.

In the first example, the use of the plural verb **were running** indicates that the members of the flock are considered to be acting individually. Similarly, in the second example, the use of the plural verb **were throwing** indicates that the members of the audience are considered to be acting individually.

b. Amounts considered as a whole

A noun subject naming a unit of currency or a unit of measurement takes a singular verb when the amount referred to is being considered as a whole.

e.g. Ten dollars is my best offer.

Five minutes is all that is required.

Two years is a long time.

In each of the above examples, the amount of money or length of time referred to by the subject is being considered as a whole. Thus, in each case a singular verb, **is**, is used.

See Exercise 4.

c. Compound subjects

When the subject of a verb consists of two or more nouns joined by **and**, **or** or **nor**, the subject can be referred to as a **compound** subject. In the following examples, the compound subjects are underlined.

e.g. Cars and buses were filling the streets.

One apple or one pear is needed.

Neither ducks nor pigeons were in the yard.

i. Compound subjects with And

A compound subject consisting of two nouns joined by the word **and** usually takes a plural verb. In the following examples, the compound subjects consist of various combinations of singular and plural nouns joined by the word **and**. In all of the examples, the compound subject with **and** takes a plural verb.

e.g. Red and white are my favorite colors.

One egg and one lemon are required to make the cake.

One teacher and twenty students are present.

Roses and tulips are blooming in the garden.

However, a compound subject with **and** takes a singular verb when the subject as a whole refers to only one thing, or is considered as referring to only one thing.

e.g. Our vice-president and treasurer is a person everyone likes.

Strawberries and cream is my favorite dessert.

In the first example, the use of the singular verb **is** indicates that the compound subject **vice-president and treasurer** refers to a single person. In the second example, the use of the singular verb **is** indicates that the compound subject **strawberries and cream** is being

considered as referring to a single type of dessert.

Likewise, a compound subject with **and** takes a singular verb when the subject is the title of a book or the name of a company.
e.g. War and Peace is a long book.
Johnson and Sons is a company which sells musical instruments.
In each of the above examples a singular verb, **is**, is used, since the compound subject is the name of a single thing.

ii. Compound subjects with Or or Nor
When a compound subject consists of two or more nouns joined by the word **or** or **nor**, the verb agrees with the noun nearest the verb.

In the following examples the verbs are singular, since the nouns nearest the verbs are singular.
e.g. A bus or a streetcar passes this point every two minutes.
Neither my friend nor his brother knows what to do.
Cookies or cake is available.
Neither sardines nor salmon was served.

In the following examples the verbs are plural, since the nouns nearest the verbs are plural.
e.g. Sandals or slippers are suitable.
Neither pencils nor pens were provided.
Cake or cookies are available.
Neither salmon nor sardines were served.

When a compound subject consists of one singular noun and one plural noun joined by **or** or **nor**, it is sometimes considered advisable to place the plural noun directly before the verb, so that the verb will be plural.
e.g. A coat or two sweaters are needed.
Neither the teacher nor the students were there.
In these examples, the plural nouns **sweaters** and **teachers** have been placed immediately before the verbs, so that the verbs will be plural.

The following table summarizes the rules for the agreement of verbs with compound subjects:

Agreement of Verbs with Compound Subjects

Nouns of Compound Subject	Conjunction	Verb
Nouns referring to a single thing	and	singular
Nouns referring to two or more things	and	plural
Singular noun nearest the verb	or/nor	singular
Plural noun nearest the verb	or/nor	plural

See Exercise 5.

d. Nouns followed by descriptive phrases
Two or more nouns can form a compound subject when joined by **and**, **or** or **nor**. However,

when a noun subject is followed by a descriptive phrase containing another noun, the two nouns do not form a compound subject. In this case, the verb must agree with the noun subject, not with the noun in the descriptive phrase.

In the following examples, the subjects of the verbs are printed in bold type, and the descriptive phrases following the subjects are underlined.
e.g. One **book**, larger than the others, was lying open on the desk.
The **leader** of the students was an excellent speaker.
My **friend**, as well as her sisters, is here.

In the above examples, the verbs **was lying**, **was** and **is** are singular, to agree with the singular subjects **book**, **leader** and **friend**. The descriptive phrases **larger than the others**, **of the students** and **as well as her sisters** have no effect on which form of the verb is used.

See Exercise 6.

CHAPTER 18. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Pronouns are words which can be used in the place of nouns. The personal pronouns in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. She will do the work herself.
They gave it to him.
We want to know who was there.

In the following examples, pronouns are used in the place of nouns, instead of repeating the nouns.
e.g. I saw a boy on the steps. He seemed to recognize me.
My friend and her brother like to ski. They ski whenever they can.
In the first example, the pronoun **he** is used instead of repeating the noun **boy**. In the second example, the pronoun **they** is used instead of repeating the nouns **friend** and **brother**.

1. The subjective case

The following English personal pronouns were listed in Chapter 1. They are usually referred to as indicated below:

	Singular	**Plural**
First Person	I	we
Second Person	you	you
Third Person	he, she, it	they

Thus, **I** is referred to as the **first person singular**; **we** is referred to as the **first person plural**; **you** is referred to as the **second person**; **he**, **she** and **it** are referred to as the **third person singular**; and **they** is referred to as the **third person plural**.

These pronouns are said to be in the **subjective case**, because they can each be used as the

subject of a verb. In the following examples, the personal pronouns in the subjective case are underlined.
e.g. I am ready.
He is fortunate.
She is a teacher.
It is raining.
We are coming.
You are right.
They are determined.

The agreement of verbs with subjects which are personal pronouns has been discussed in previous chapters.

2. Agreement of personal pronouns with their antecedents

The pronoun **I** is used to refer to the speaker or writer. The pronoun **you** is used to refer to one or more persons or things which are being addressed by the speaker or writer. The pronoun **we** is normally used to refer to the speaker or writer together with one or more other people.

When a pronoun stands for a noun which has already been mentioned, the noun is sometimes referred to as the **antecedent** of the pronoun.
e.g. The apples are cheap, but they are not ripe yet.
In the preceding example, the noun **apples** is the antecedent of the pronoun **they**.

The antecedents of pronouns usually precede the pronouns. However, a pronoun may also stand for a noun which follows the pronoun, provided that it is obvious to what the pronoun is referring.
e.g. Because they are sour, the apples will be used for cooking.
In this example, the pronoun **they** stands for the noun **apples**, which occurs later In the sentence.

a. Male and female antecedents

The third person singular pronouns **he** and **she** are the only pronouns in the subjective case which are differentiated with respect to gender. The pronoun **he** is used to refer to male antecedents, and the pronoun **she** is used to refer to female antecedents.
e.g. A girl was sitting on the steps. She was waiting for her friend.
A boy was delivering papers. He seemed to be in a hurry.
In the above examples, the pronoun **she** agrees with the female antecedent **girl**, and the pronoun **he** agrees with the male antecedent **boy**.

b. Singular and plural antecedents

English third person pronouns are also differentiated with respect to number. If the antecedent of a pronoun is singular, a singular pronoun must be used. If the antecedent of a pronoun is plural, a plural pronoun must be used.
e.g. I have one watch. It is quite accurate.
I have two watches. They are quite accurate.

This is my sister. She is younger than I am.
These are my sisters. They are younger than I am.

This is my brother. He is older than I am.
These are my brothers. They are older than I am.

In the above examples, the singular pronouns **it**, **he** and **she** agree with the singular antecedents **watch**, **sister** and **brother**. The plural pronoun **they** agrees with the plural antecedents **watches**, **sisters** and **brothers**.

As illustrated above, the third person plural pronoun **they** can be used to stand for either male or female antecedents.
e.g. The men liked to play cards. They took turns keeping score.
The women came, but they did not stay long.
The men and women greeted each other. They all knew one another.

c. Human and non-human antecedents
The third person singular pronouns **he**, **she** and **it** usually distinguish between antecedents which refer to human beings, and antecedents which refer to things which are not human. The pronouns **he** and **she** usually refer to human beings. However, **he** or **she** may also be used to refer to an animal, if the gender of the animal is known to the speaker or writer.
e.g. My aunt is very intelligent. She has a degree in philosophy.
His brother was not there, because he had to work late.
Your dog is well trained. He is a good guard dog.
In the first two examples, **he** and **she** are used to refer to human beings. In the third example, **he** is used to refer to an animal.

If a third person singular antecedent does not refer to a human being, the pronoun **it** is usually used. However, when the thing named by the antecedent is referred to as if it had human qualities, the pronoun **he** or **she** may be used. For instance, ships and countries are sometimes referred to as **she**.
e.g. There is a robin on the lawn. It has a nest in that tree.
This is a good book. It is interesting and well-written.
The *Bonnie Belle* is a sailing ship. She is very seaworthy.
In the first two examples, **it** is used to refer to things which are not human. In the third example, **she** is used to refer to a thing which is not human.

The third person plural pronoun **they** can stand for either human or non-human antecedents.
e.g. The children bought ice cream, because they felt hungry.
The umbrellas are popular, because they are inexpensive.
In the first example, **they** stands for the human antecedent **children**. In the second example, **they** stands for the non-human antecedent **umbrellas**.

The main rules for the agreement of the third person pronouns **he**, **she**, **it** and **they** with their antecedents can be summarized as follows:

Agreement of Third Person Pronouns with their Antecedents

Pronoun	**Antecedent**
he	singular, male, usually human

she	singular, female, usually human
it	singular, non-human
they	plural

See Exercises 1 and 2.

A pronoun should not be used to stand for a noun, unless it is obvious to which noun the pronoun is referring. For instance, in the following examples, it is not clear to which nouns the underlined pronouns refer.
e.g. My friend was there with her mother. She was wearing a blue dress.
The children stared at the horses. They were ready to start.
In the first example, the pronoun **she** could stand either for the noun **friend** or for the noun **mother**. Similarly, in the second example, the pronoun **they** could stand for either **children** or **horses**.

In written English, when it is not obvious to which antecedent a pronoun refers, the relevant sentence should be corrected. This can be done either by repeating the noun, instead of using a pronoun; or by rewriting the sentence to make the meaning clear. For instance, the preceding examples could be corrected as follows. It will be assumed that **she** refers to **friend**, and that **they** refers to **horses**.
e.g. My friend was there with her mother. My friend was wearing a blue dress.
or My friend, wearing a blue dress, was there with her mother.

The children stared at the horses. The horses were ready to start.
or The children stared at the horses, which were ready to start.

See Exercise 3.

3. Special uses of It

The pronoun **it** can be used without an antecedent in sentences referring to general conditions such as the weather or the time.
e.g. It is raining.
It has been a wet summer.
It is too hot here.
It is the twenty-fourth of April.
It is seven o'clock.
It is Friday.

The pronoun **it** can also be used in expressions such as the following.
e.g. It would be a good idea to attend the meeting.
It is not necessary to buy tickets in advance.
It will be easy to find the right house.
It was clever of you to think of that.
In these sentences, **it** can be thought of as standing for the infinitive which follows the verb. The ideas expressed in such sentences may be expressed without the use of **it** by changing the infinitive to a gerund, which is placed before the verb.

For instance, the preceding sentences can be rewritten as follows:

Attending the meeting would be a good idea.
Buying tickets in advance is not necessary.
Finding the right house will be easy.
Thinking of that was clever of you.

See Exercise 4.

4. The objective case

Objects of verbs have already been discussed in the chapter on transitive and intransitive verbs. When a personal pronoun is the object of a verb, the pronoun must be in the objective case. In the following sentences, the pronouns in the objective case are underlined.

e.g. They need me.
We like you.
They understand him.
I wanted her to help them.
We mended it yesterday.

As shown in the following table, each personal pronoun in the subjective case has a corresponding form in the objective case.

Personal pronouns in the subjective and objective cases

Subjective Case	Objective Case
I	me
you	you
he	him
she	her
it	it
we	us
they	them

It can be seen that only the personal pronouns **you** and **it** have the same form in the objective case as in the subjective case.

When a personal pronoun is the subject of a verb, the subjective form of the pronoun must be used.

e.g. I understand what you mean.
He saw the comet.

In these sentences, the underlined pronouns are the subjects of the verbs **understand** and **saw**; therefore, the subjective forms **I** and **he** must be used.

When a personal pronoun is the object of a verb, the objective form of the pronoun must be used.

e.g. My friends understand me.

We saw him last night.

In these sentences, the underlined pronouns are the objects of the verbs **understand** and **saw**; therefore, the objective forms **me** and **him** must be used.

The rules for the agreement of pronouns with their antecedents are the same for pronouns in the objective case as for the corresponding pronouns in the subjective case.

e.g. When your son won the prize, we congratulated him.
Your daughter thinks we have not noticed her.
When the letter arrived, we answered it immediately.
He and I were right, but no one believed us.
Because the boats were barely moving, we overtook them easily.

In the preceding sentences, the pronouns **him**, **her**, **it**, **us** and **them** agree with the antecedents **son**, **daughter**, **letter**, **he and I** and **boats**, respectively.

See Exercises 5, 6 and 7.

It should be noted that the verb **to be** does not take an object. In formal, written English, when the verb **to be** is immediately followed by a personal pronoun, the pronoun must usually be in the subjective case. In the following examples, the pronouns following the verb **to be** are in the subjective case.

e.g. It is I.
That was he.
This is she.
Those are they.

However, in informal English, this rule is usually ignored. In informal English, when a pronoun immediately follows any verb, including the verb **to be**, the objective form of the pronoun is usually used. Thus, in informal English the sentence **It is I** would usually be expressed **It is me**, and the sentence **That was he** would usually be expressed **That was him**.

See Exercise 8.

As well as being used as the objects of verbs, personal pronouns in the objective case are used as objects of prepositions. **Prepositions** are words such as **at**, **in**, **on**, **to** and **with**. A preposition links the words immediately following it to the rest of the sentence.

A noun or pronoun which forms part of a prepositional phrase is said to be the **object** of the preposition. For instance, the underlined pronouns in the following examples are objects of prepositions.

e.g. Please give the book to me.
We have heard a great deal about you.
They went with him.
I bought a present for her.
He walked across it.
The cake was made by us.
Here is a letter from them.

In the preceding examples, the underlined pronouns are the objects of the prepositions **to**, **about**, **with**, **for**, **across**, **by** and **from**.

See Exercises 9 and 10.

5. Possessive personal pronouns

Each of the personal pronouns has forms which indicate possession. For instance, in the following sentences, the underlined words are the possessive forms of personal pronouns.
e.g. This is your book.
This book is yours.
His apartment is large, but mine is small.
Their marks are higher than ours.

The subjective, objective and possessive forms of the English personal pronouns are shown in the following table.

Subjective Case	Objective Case	Possessive Form used before a Noun	Possessive Form used Independently
I	me	my	mine
you	you	your	yours
he	him	his	his
she	her	her	hers
it	it	its	[its]
we	us	our	ours
they	them	their	theirs

a. Possessive adjectives
As shown in the preceding table, the personal pronouns have two possessive forms. One form shows possession by preceding a noun. A personal pronoun in this form may be referred to as a **possessive adjective**, since, like an adjective, it describes the thing to which the noun refers.

In the following sentences, the possessive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. My bicycle is new.
Does your uncle play hockey?
His answer was correct.
Her father is not here.
The tree has lost two of its branches.
He is our friend.
Their house is one block from the school.

The rules for the agreement of personal pronouns with their antecedents also apply to the corresponding possessive adjectives. In languages such as French and Spanish, possessive adjectives agree with the nouns they precede. However, in English, possessive adjectives agree with their antecedents, as illustrated in the following table.

Agreement of English Possessive Adjectives with their Antecedents

Antecedent	Possessive Adjective	Example
boy	his	The boy obeys **his** mother.
girl	her	The girl likes **her** brothers.

bird	its	The bird sat on **its** nest.
cows	their	The cows have lost **their** way.

In the preceding examples, the antecedents are underlined, and the possessive adjectives are printed in bold type.

See Exercise 11.

i. Possessive adjectives used with gerunds

In formal English, when a gerund is preceded by a personal pronoun, the pronoun must usually be in the form of a possessive adjective. In the following examples, the gerunds are underlined, and the possessive adjectives are printed in bold type.

e.g. The boy said that **his** skating had improved.
The girl entertained the guests with **her** singing.
We think **our** lobbying for new street lights will be effective.

See Exercise 12.

b. Possessive pronouns

The possessive form of a personal pronoun which can be used independently can be referred to as a **possessive pronoun**, since it can be used in the place of a noun. In the following sentences, the possessive pronouns are underlined.

e.g. He did not bring his coat, but I brought mine.
Our mail has been delivered, but theirs has not.

In the above examples, **mine** stands for **my coat**, and **theirs** stands for **their mail**.

The following table compares the possessive pronouns with the possessive adjectives. It can be seen that only **his** and **its** have the same form when used as pronouns as when used as adjectives. The possessive pronoun **its** is seldom used.

Possessive Adjective	**Possessive Pronoun**
my	mine
your	yours
his	his
her	hers
its	[its]
our	ours
their	theirs

Except for the pronoun **mine**, all of the possessive pronouns end in **s**. However, it should be noted that, unlike possessive nouns, the possessive personal pronouns are not spelled with an apostrophe. Care should be taken not to confuse the possessive form **its** with the contraction **it's**, which stands for **it is** or **it has**.

In the following sentences, the possessive personal pronouns are underlined.

e.g. That book is mine.
Are these gloves yours?
The red bicycle is his.
Because I forgot my umbrella, she lent me hers.
Their teacher is stricter than ours.

Our teacher is relaxed, but theirs is short-tempered.

See Exercises 13 and 14.

6. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are often used when the action described by the verb is directed toward the thing referred to by the subject of the verb. This use of reflexive pronouns is illustrated in the following examples. The reflexive pronouns are underlined.
e.g. I washed myself thoroughly before putting on clean clothes.
Did you hurt yourself?

Reflexive pronouns can also be used when it is desired to emphasize a personal pronoun. The reflexive pronouns in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. I myself saw what happened.
Did he solve the problem himself?
She did the work herself.
In these examples, the reflexive pronouns **myself**, **himself** and **herself** are used to emphasize the personal pronouns **I**, **he** and **she**.

The reflexive personal pronouns are listed below.

Subjective Case	Reflexive Pronoun
I	myself
you	yourself
he	himself
she	herself
it	itself
we	ourselves
you	yourselves
they	themselves

It can be seen that in the second person, a differentiation is made between **yourself**, which agrees with singular antecedents, and **yourselves**, which agrees with plural antecedents.

It should be noted that the first and second person reflexive pronouns are formed from the corresponding possessive adjectives, whereas the third person reflexive pronouns are formed from the corresponding pronouns in the objective case. This is illustrated in the following table.

Objective Case	Possessive Adjective	Reflexive Pronoun
me	**my**	**my**self
you	**your**	**your**self
him	his	**him**self
her	hers	**her**self
it	its	**it**self
us	**our**	**our**selves
you	**your**	**your**selves

them	their	**them**selves

See Exercise 15.

CHAPTER 19. OTHER PRONOUNS

1. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns may be used without antecedents. The indefinite pronouns in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. One cannot believe everything one hears.
I will try to think of something.
Nobody will believe it!
Is there anyone here by the name of Smith?

The following are examples of indefinite pronouns:

one		
anyone	anybody	anything
everyone	everybody	everything
[no one]	nobody	nothing
someone	somebody	something

All of the pronouns listed above take verbs in the third person singular. The phrase **no one** is used like the other indefinite pronouns, but is spelled as two separate words.

The pronoun **one** can refer to persons or things.
e.g. One of the boys will help you.
Please hand me one of the boxes.

However, when used in a general sense, the pronoun **one** is usually understood as referring to persons.
e.g. One should always look both ways before crossing the street.

In addition, the other indefinite pronouns ending in **one**, and the indefinite pronouns ending in **body**, generally refer to persons. The indefinite pronouns ending in **thing** generally refer to things.

Unlike most of the personal pronouns, the indefinite pronouns have the same form in the objective case as in the subjective case. As shown in the following table, the indefinite pronouns which refer to persons form possessive adjectives by adding **'s**.

Indefinite Pronoun	**Possessive Adjective**
one	one's
anyone	anyone's

everyone	everyone's
no one	no one's
someone	someone's
anybody	anybody's
everybody	everybody's
nobody	nobody's
somebody	somebody's

The indefinite pronouns which refer to things usually do not form possessive adjectives.

a. The use of One in general statements

The indefinite pronoun **one** is used in formal English to make general statements.
e.g. By working systematically, one may achieve the results one desires.
In legal matters, one must always make sure of one's facts.

When used in this way, **one** refers to persons in general, and has the reflexive form **oneself**.
e.g. One should prepare oneself to deal with any emergency.

In informal English, the personal pronoun **you** is usually used in making general statements. Thus, in informal English, the ideas in the above sentences might be expressed:
e.g. By working systematically, you may achieve the results you desire.
In legal matters, you must always make sure of your facts.
You should prepare yourself to deal with any emergency.

Occasionally, the pronoun **we** is used in general statements. This use of the pronoun **we** is most likely to occur in formal speeches.
e.g. By working systematically, we may achieve the results we desire.
In legal matters, we must always make sure of our facts.
We should prepare ourselves to deal with any emergency.

It is considered grammatically incorrect to use more than one type of pronoun in a general statement such as those given above. For instance, if a general statement is begun using the pronoun **one**, the pronoun **one** must be used throughout the statement. As shown above, the possessive adjectives and reflexive pronouns in a general statement must agree with their antecedents.

The following table summarizes the forms of the personal pronouns and the indefinite pronoun **one**.

Summary of the Forms of the Personal Pronouns and One

Subjective Case	Objective Case	Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun	Reflexive Pronoun
I	we	my	mine	myself
you	you	your	yours	yourself
he	him	his	his	himself
she	her	her	hers	herself
it	it	its	[its]	itself
we	us	our	ours	ourselves
you	you	your	yours	yourselves

they	them	their	theirs	themselves
one	one	one's		oneself

See Exercise 1.

In formal English, it is considered grammatically correct to use the adjective **his** to agree with indefinite pronouns such as **anyone** and **everyone**.
e.g. Everyone took his seat.

However, it is considered less discriminatory to use a phrase such as **his or her** to agree with such pronouns.
e.g. Everyone took his or her seat.

In informal English, the problem of gender is often avoided by the use of the plural adjective **their**.
e.g. Everyone took their seat.
However, this use of **their** is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

2. Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns refer to persons or things which are acting on each other. In English, the following two phrases are used as reciprocal pronouns:

each other
one another

Both phrases may be used to refer to either persons or things.
e.g. You and I saw each other last week.
The houses faced each other.

The two friends helped one another with their work.
The wires were touching one another.

3. Demonstrative pronouns

The words **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** are used to indicate specific persons or things. In the following examples, the words **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** are used independently, and can be referred to as **demonstrative pronouns**.
e.g. This is an apple pie.
That is a good idea.
These are my friends.
Those are maple trees.

The words **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** can also be used immediately preceding a noun, in which case they can be referred to as **demonstrative adjectives**.

e.g. This pie is made with apples.
That idea seems practical.
These people are my friends.
Those trees are maples.
In the preceding examples, **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** act as adjectives, modifying the nouns **pie**, **idea**, **people** and **trees**, respectively.

This and **these** are used to indicate persons or things that are close to the speaker or writer. **This** takes a singular verb, and is used when referring to a single person or thing.
e.g. This is my brother.
This book belongs to him.

These takes a plural verb, and is used when referring to more than one person or thing.
e.g. These are my brothers.
These books belong to him.

See Exercise 2.

That and **those** are used to indicate persons or things that are at a distance from the speaker or writer. **That** takes a singular verb, and is used when referring to a single person or thing.
e.g. That is a computer.
That woman is a professor.

Those takes a plural verb, and is used when referring to more than one person or thing.
e.g. Those are computers.
Those women are professors.

See Exercise 3.

The use of **this**, **these**, **that** and **those** is summarized in the following table.

	Location Indicated	**Singular or Plural**
This	Close to speaker or writer	Singular
These	Close to speaker or writer	Plural
That	Distant from speaker or writer	Singular
Those	Distant from speaker or writer	Plural

See Exercises 4 and 5.

4. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in asking questions. The pronouns **who**, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative pronouns.
e.g. Who telephoned?
What did you say?
Which is your brother?

a. Direct questions
Interrogative pronouns can be placed at the beginning of a sentence in order to ask a question. Such questions can be referred to as **direct questions**.

In a direct question, when the interrogative pronoun is the subject of a verb, the verb follows the subject. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the subjects of the verbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. **What** has happened?
Who has been invited?
In these examples, **what** is the subject of the verb **has happened**, and **who** is the subject of the verb **has been invited**. The presence of the interrogative pronoun transforms the statement into a question, and a question mark must be used.

When the interrogative pronoun is the object of the verb or the object of a preposition, inverted word order must be used, with the first auxiliary preceding the subject of the verb. In the case of verbs in the Simple Present or Simple Past, the auxiliary **do** or **did** must be used.
e.g. What do **you** mean?
Which did **she** choose?
What is **he** doing?
To what can **one** attribute their success?

In the preceding examples, the subjects **you**, **she**, **he** and **one** are preceded by the auxiliaries **do**, **did**, **is** and **can**. In the first three examples, **what** and **which** are the objects of the verbs. In the fourth example, **what** is the object of the preposition **to**.

See Exercise 6.

b. The pronoun Who
The pronoun **who** usually refers only to persons. Unlike the other interrogative pronouns, **who** changes its form depending on the case, as shown in the following table.

Subjective Case	Objective Case	Possessive Case
who	whom	whose

i. Who
When **who** is the subject of a verb, the subjective case must be used.
e.g. **Who** opened the door?
Who will help me?

It should be noted that when **who** is used with the verb **to be**, or with verbs in the Passive Voice, the subjective case must usually be used, since such verbs cannot take an object.
e.g. **Who** is it?
Who was the fastest runner?
Who will be there?
Who has been elected?
The first three examples above illustrate the use of **who** with the verb **to be**. The fourth example illustrates the use of **who** with a verb in the Passive Voice.

ii. Whom

In formal English, when the pronoun **who** is the object of a verb or the object of a preposition, the objective form **whom** must be used.
e.g. Whom did you see downtown?
To whom did you send the invitations?
In the first example, **whom** is the object of the verb **see**. In the second example, **whom** is the object of the preposition **to**.

In informal English, the form **who** is often used for the objective as well as for the subjective case. For instance, in informal English, the preceding examples might be expressed **Who did you see downtown?** and **Who did you send the invitations to?** However, this use of **who** is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

See Exercise 7.

iii. Whose
The form **whose** can be used either as a possessive adjective followed by a noun, or as a possessive pronoun.
e.g. Whose books are these?
Whose are these?
In the first example, **whose** is used as a possessive adjective, followed by the noun **books**. In the second example, **whose** is used as a possessive pronoun.

The possessive form **whose** expresses the idea of **belonging to**. For instance, the idea expressed in the sentence: **Whose books are these?** could also be expressed by the sentence: **To whom do these books belong?**

See Exercise 8.

c. What and Which
What and **which** can be used either as interrogative pronouns, or as interrogative adjectives followed by nouns.
e.g. What is that?
Which is his sister?
What time is it?
Which woman is his sister?
In the first two examples, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative pronouns. In the last two examples, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative adjectives preceding the nouns **time** and **woman**.

When used as adjectives or as interrogative pronouns, **what** and **which** can refer to either persons or things. In the following examples, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative adjectives referring to persons and things.
e.g. What girl would not like to own a horse?
What color are the apples?
Which boy is the best horseback rider?
Which road leads to Chicago?

However, it should be noted that when used as a relative pronoun, **which** can refer only to things. Relative pronouns will be discussed later in this chapter.

Which as an adjective or interrogative pronoun usually implies a choice of one or more things from a limited number of alternatives.
e.g. Which apple would you like?
Which children were ready on time?
The first example implies a choice of one apple from two or more apples. The second example implies that an answer is expected which will indicate certain children from a limited group of children.

In contrast, **what** as an adjective or interrogative pronoun is usually used in order to ask for general information.
e.g. What time is it?
What does he want?

What can also be used in exclamations. For instance, the exclamation **What!** can be used to express surprise or disbelief. The following are other examples of the use of **what** in exclamations.
e.g. What nonsense!
What a shame!
What a beautiful day!
In written English, an exclamation must be followed by an exclamation mark: **!** It should be noted that exclamations often do not contain verbs.

As illustrated above, when an exclamatory **what** precedes a singular, countable noun, the word **what** must be followed by **a** or **an**.
e.g. What a coincidence!
What an elegant dress!

See Exercise 9.

d. Indirect questions
As well as being used at the beginning of direct questions, interrogative pronouns and adjectives can also be used at the beginning of **indirect** questions.

Whereas a direct question forms a complete sentence in itself, an indirect question is part of a longer sentence. The following examples show the difference between a direct question and an indirect question.
e.g. Who is there?
He wants to know who is there.
Will you tell me who is there?

In the first example, **Who is there?** is a direct question. In the second example, **who is there** is an indirect question which is part of a longer statement. In the third example, **who is there** is an indirect question which is part of a longer question.

i. Interrogative word as the subject
When the interrogative word is the subject of a verb, or modifies the subject of a verb, the word order of an indirect question is usually the same as that of a direct question. In the following examples, the verbs of the direct and indirect questions are underlined, and their subjects are printed in bold type.
e.g. Direct Question: **What** has happened?

Indirect Question: We shall ask **what** has happened.

Direct Question: Which **child** won the race?
Indirect Question: They will ask which **child** won the race.

In the first pair of examples, the interrogative pronoun **what** is the subject of the verb **has happened**. In the second pair of examples, the interrogative adjective **which** modifies **child**, the subject of the verb **won**. In both pairs of examples, the word order of the indirect questions is the same as that of the direct questions.

ii. Interrogative word as the object of a verb or preposition
When the interrogative word is the object of a verb or preposition, or modifies the object of a verb or preposition, the word order of an indirect question differs from that of a direct question. In a direct question, the first auxiliary precedes the subject, and the auxiliary **to do** must be used for verbs in the Simple Present and Simple Past. In an indirect question, the subject precedes the verb, and the auxiliary **to do** is not used. Thus, in an indirect question, the word order used is the same as that used for an affirmative statement.

This difference in word order is illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. Direct Question: What is **he** doing?
Indirect Question: I will ask what **he** is doing.

Direct Question: What story did **they** tell you?
Indirect Question: I wonder what story **they** told you.

Direct Question: Which does **she** prefer?
Indirect Question: We asked which **she** prefers.

Direct Question: Whom did **he** meet?
Indirect Question: Tell me whom **he** met.

Direct Question: To whom has **she** sent the invitations?
Indirect Question: They will ask to whom **she** has sent the invitations.

Direct Question: For which friend did **they** make the arrangements?
Indirect Question: Do you know for which friend **they** made the arrangements?

As illustrated in the preceding examples, when the interrogative word is the object of a verb or preposition, or modifies the object of a verb or preposition, the first auxiliary precedes the subject in a direct question, but the subject precedes the verb in an indirect question.

See Exercise 10.

iii. The verb To Be with a noun or pronoun complement
A noun, noun phrase or pronoun which follows the verb **to be** is said to be the **complement** of the verb. When **what** or **who** is followed by both the verb **to be** and a noun or pronoun complement of the verb, the word order of an indirect question usually differs from that of a direct question. As illustrated in the following examples, in a direct question, the verb **to be** is followed by its complement; whereas in an indirect question, the verb **to be** is usually preceded by its complement.

In each of the following examples, the verb **to be** is underlined, and its noun or pronoun complement is printed in bold type.
e.g. Direct Question: What is **that**?
Indirect question: Can you tell me what **that** is?

Direct Question: What was **that noise**?
Indirect Question: I wonder what **that noise** was.

Direct Question: What time is **it**?
Indirect Question: Ask him what time **it** is.

Direct Question: Who is **she**?
Indirect Question: Do you know who **she** is?

Direct question: Who was **that man**?
Indirect Question: I will ask who **that man** was.

Direct Question: Whose shoes are **these**?
Indirect Question: I wonder whose shoes **these** are.

Similarly, when **which** is followed by the verb **to be**, followed by a pronoun, the pronoun complement generally precedes the verb in an indirect question.
e.g. Direct question: Which was **it**?
Indirect Question: I want to know which **it** was.

Direct Question: Which organization is **that**?
Indirect Question: Please ask which organization **that** is.

However, when **which** is followed by the verb **to be** followed by a noun or noun phrase, the noun complement often follows the verb in an indirect question.
e.g. Direct Question: Which is **the right road**?
Indirect Question: Please tell me which is **the right road**.

Direct Question: Which insects are **predators**?
Indirect Question: He wants to know which insects are **predators**.

It should be noted that in sentences with the verb **to be**, the word order of indirect questions differs from that of direct questions only when the verb is accompanied by a noun or pronoun complement.

If the verb **to be** is accompanied by an adjective, the word order of direct and indirect questions is the same. In each of the following examples, the verb **to be** is underlined, and the accompanying adjective is printed in bold type.
e.g. Direct Question: Who is **here**?
Indirect Question: I will ask who is **here**.

Direct Question: Who was **successful**?
Indirect Question: Tell me who was **successful**.

Direct Question: Which answer is **correct**?
Indirect Question: Please tell us which answer is **correct**.

See Exercise 11.

The following table summarizes the variations in word order which occur in direct and indirect questions. The examples of direct questions should be compared with the corresponding examples of indirect questions.

Word order of Direct and Indirect Questions beginning with What, Which and Who

Direct Questions

Type of Question	**Word Order**
The interrogative word is the **subject** of the verb, or modifies the subject of the verb	Subject precedes verb. Examples: **Who** told her? Which **boy** did it?
The interrogative word is the **object** of a verb or preposition, or modifies the object of a verb or preposition	Subject follows the first auxiliary: What has **he** done? To whom shall **we** send it? Which questions did **she** answer? For which child did **you** buy it?
The verb **to be** is accompanied by a **noun** or **pronoun complement**	The verb **to be** precedes its complement: Who are **their friends**? What was **that**? What time is **it**? Which book was **it**? Which is **the right answer**?

Indirect Questions

Type of Question	**Word Order**
In **all cases**	Subject precedes verb. Examples: I wonder **who** told her. You asked which **boy** did it. She wants to know what **he** has done. He wonders to whom **we** shall send it. I wonder which questions **she** answered. Please tell me for which child **you** bought it.
The verb **to be** is accompanied by a **noun** or **pronoun complement**	The verb **to be** usually follows its complement. Examples: He will ask who **their friends** are. I wonder what **that** was. Do you know what time **it** is? Please tell me which book **it** was.

However, in the case of **which**,

the verb **to be** often precedes a noun complement. For example:
I wonder which is **the right answer**.

See Exercise 12.

5. Relative pronouns

A pronoun which is used to begin a subordinate clause can be referred to as a **relative pronoun**, since it indicates the relationship of the subordinate clause to the rest of the sentence.

For instance, the underlined words in the following sentences are relative pronouns.
e.g. The woman who is standing near the window is a doctor.
The door, which was bright red, was very conspicuous.
Have you found the book that was missing?
A subordinate clause which is introduced by a relative pronoun is often referred to as a **relative clause**.

a. Defining and non-defining relative clauses

Relative clauses can be divided into two types: those which merely give a description of the object to which they refer, and those which define or identify the object to which they refer.

i. Non-defining relative clauses

When a relative clause merely describes an object without having the function of defining or identifying to which object the speaker or writer is referring, the clause must be placed between commas. Such a clause can be called a **non-defining** or **non-limiting** relative clause.

For instance, in the example:
The door, which was bright red, was very conspicuous.
the commas indicate that the clause **which was bright red** is a non-defining relative clause. In other words, this sentence implies that it has already been made clear to which door the speaker or writer is referring, and the clause **which was bright red** merely provides additional, descriptive information about the door.

Whereas in written English the presence of a non-defining relative clause is indicated by the use of commas, in spoken English the presence of such a clause is indicated by slightly emphasizing the word immediately preceding the clause, and the last word of the clause. In the following example, the emphasized words are underlined.
e.g. The door, which was bright red, was very conspicuous.

It should be noted that when material written in English is read aloud, the presence of a comma is usually indicated by a slight pause.

ii. Defining relative clauses

When a relative clause has the function of defining or identifying the object being referred to,

the clause is not placed between commas. Such a clause can be called a **defining** or **limiting** relative clause.

For instance, in the example:

The woman who is standing near the window is a doctor.

the absence of commas indicates that the clause **who is standing near the window** is a defining relative clause. In other words, the clause has the function of identifying to which woman the speaker or writer is referring.

See Exercise 13.

b. That

When used as a relative pronoun, **that** can refer to either persons or things. The relative pronoun **that** is generally used only in defining relative clauses. In the following examples, the relative clauses are underlined.

e.g. The people that were here yesterday will return in a month.

The newspaper that was on the steps belongs to our neighbor.

In these examples, **that** has the antecedents **people** and **newspaper**, and introduces the defining relative clauses **that were here yesterday** and **that was on the steps**.

In the preceding examples, **that** acts as the subject of the verbs **were** and **was**. When it acts as the object of a verb or preposition, the relative pronoun **that** can usually be omitted.

e.g. The books that we bought are heavy.

The town that this road leads to is five miles away.

In the first sentence, **that** acts as the object of the verb **bought**. In the second sentence, **that** acts as the object of the preposition **to**. The following examples show how the above sentences can be rewritten without the use of **that**.

The books we bought are heavy.

The town this road leads to is five miles away.

c. Which

As was pointed out in an earlier section, when used as an adjective or interrogative pronoun, **which** can refer to either persons or things. However, it is important to note that when used as a relative pronoun, **which** can refer only to things.

The relative pronoun **which** can be used in either defining or non-defining relative clauses.

e.g. The suitcase which we purchased last week is very strong.

The sack, which was full of rocks, was too heavy to lift.

In the first example, **which** has the antecedent **suitcase**, and introduces the defining relative clause **which we purchased last week**. In the second example, **which** has the antecedent **sack**, and introduces the non-defining relative clause **which was full of rocks**.

d. Who, Whom and Whose

The use of **who**, **whom** and **whose** as relative pronouns is similar to their use as interrogative pronouns. **Who** is used as the subject of a verb, **whom** is used as the object of a verb or the object of a preposition, and **whose** is used as an adjective indicating possession. The relative pronouns **who**, **whom** and **whose** can generally refer only to persons, and can be used either in defining or non-defining relative clauses.

In the following examples, **who** introduces the defining relative clause **who runs the fastest** and the non-defining relative clause **who is studying German**.
e.g. The child who runs the fastest will receive a prize.
My sister, who is studying German, wants to travel to Switzerland.
In these examples, **who** has the antecedents **child** and **sister**, and acts as the subject of the verbs **runs** and **is studying**.

In the following examples, **whom** introduces the defining relative clause **whom we visited** and the non-defining relative clause **whom we will meet tomorrow**.
e.g. The boy whom we visited is her nephew.
Mr. Henry, whom we will meet tomorrow, will be our guide.
In these examples, **whom** has the antecedents **boy** and **Mr. Henry**, and acts as the object of the verbs **visited** and **will meet**.

In the following examples, **to whom** introduces the defining relative clause **to whom you sold your skis** and the non-defining relative clause **to whom we send a birthday card every year**.
e.g. The girl to whom you sold your skis lives in the next block.
His uncle, to whom we send a birthday card every year, is ninety-one years old.
In these examples, **whom** has the antecedents **girl** and **uncle**, and is the object of the preposition **to**.

In the following examples, **whose** introduces the defining relative clause **whose house was sold** and the non-defining relative clause **whose family lives in Europe**.
e.g. The woman whose house was sold will retire to the country.
My cousin, whose family lives in Europe, will visit us for a few weeks.
In these examples, **whose** has the antecedents **woman** and **cousin**, and modifies the nouns **house** and **family**. In the case of **whose**, it should be noted that it is the antecedent which must be a person; the noun being modified may be a person or a thing.

See Exercises 14 and 15.

In informal English, **whose** at the beginning of a clause is occasionally used to refer not only to persons, but also to things, in order to make a simpler sentence. For example, the following sentence is considered grammatically correct in formal English.
e.g. The tree, the branches of which overhung the street, was covered with blossoms.
In informal English, the phrase **the branches of which** might be replaced by **whose branches**, as illustrated in the following example.
e.g. The tree, whose branches overhung the street, was covered with blossoms.
However, this use of **whose** is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

e. Comparison of the use of That, Which and Who
The use of the relative pronouns **that**, **which** and **who** is summarized in the following table.

Relative Pronoun	**Type of Clause**	**Type of Antecedent**
that	defining clause only	persons or things
which	defining or non-defining	things only
who/whom/whose	defining or non-defining	persons only

From the preceding table it can be inferred that in the case of defining relative clauses, **that** may be used to replace **who**, **whom** or **which**. For instance, the following sentences:

The boy whom we saw is her brother.

The hat which you are wearing is rather large.

could be rewritten:

The boy that we saw is her brother.

The hat that you are wearing is rather large.

Like the relative pronoun **that**, **whom** and **which** can generally be omitted when they act as the object of the verb in a relative clause. Thus, the preceding sentences could also be rewritten:

The boy we saw is her brother.

The hat you are wearing is rather large.

It should be noted that when **whom** or **which** is the object of a preposition, the preposition immediately precedes the relative pronoun.

e.g. The boy to whom we sent the message was excited.

The room to which you will be conducted has beautiful furniture.

In these examples, **whom** and **which** are immediately preceded by the preposition **to**.

However, when the relative pronoun **that** is the object of a preposition, the preposition is normally placed at the end of the relative clause. For instance, if **that** is used, the second example must be rewritten as follows:

The room that you will be conducted to has beautiful furniture.

f. Other relative pronouns

Relative pronouns such as **what**, **whatever** and **whoever** are normally used without antecedents. When used as a relative pronoun, **what** has the meaning **the thing or things that**.

e.g. What you say is true.

What he did was wrong.

In these examples, the relative pronoun **what** introduces the clauses **what you say** and **what he did**. Such clauses are often referred to as **noun clauses**, since they can serve some of the functions of a noun. For instance, in the preceding sentences, the clause **what you say** acts as the subject of the verb **is**, and the clause **what he did** acts as the subject of the verb **was**.

Whatever has the meaning **no matter what**, or **anything which**. **Whoever** has the meaning **no matter who**, or **anyone who**.

e.g. You can tell me whatever you like.

Let in whoever comes to the door.

In these examples, the noun clauses **whatever you like** and **whoever comes to the door** act as the objects of the verbs in the main clauses.

CHAPTER 20. DETERMINERS

As indicated in the tables below, many determiners can be used either as adjectives or as pronouns. As will be pointed out in the next chapter, when a determiner is used as an

adjective modifying a noun, the determiner usually precedes any other adjectives modifying the same noun.

The use of the following determiners has already been discussed in previous chapters: **a**, **an**, **the**, **this**, **that**, these and **those**. The possessive adjectives **my**, **your**, **his**, **her**, **our** and **their** can also be classified as determiners.

As indicated below, many determiners may be used only with certain types of noun. In the following tables, the abbreviation **CN** stands for **Countable Noun**, and the abbreviation **UN** stands for **Uncountable Noun**. In these tables, the noun **tree** is used as an example of a countable noun, and the noun **grass** is used as an example of an uncountable noun.

Determiners used as Adjectives

Determiner	Used With	Example	Meaning
all	plural CN	all trees	trees in general
	UN	all grass	grass in general
another	singular CN	another tree	one additional or different tree
any	singular CN	any tree	refers to one tree, without specifying which, of a group of more than 2 trees
	plural CN	any trees	refers to 2 or more trees, without specifying which
	UN	any grass	refers to some grass, without specifying which
both	plural CN	both trees	refers to 2 trees of a group of 2
each	singular CN	each tree	refers to every tree, considered individually, of a group of 2 or more
either	singular CN	either tree	refers to 1 of 2 trees, without specifying which
enough	plural CN	enough trees	a sufficient number of trees
	UN	enough grass	a sufficient amount of grass
every	singular CN	every tree	all trees, without exception, of a group of more than 2 trees
few	plural CN	few trees	a small number of trees
fewer	plural CN	fewer trees	a smaller number of trees
less	UN	less grass	a smaller amount of grass

little	UN	little grass	a small amount of grass
many	plural CN	many trees	a large number of trees
more	plural CN	more trees	an additional number of trees
	UN	more grass	an additional amount of grass
most	plural CN	most trees	nearly all trees
	UN	most grass	nearly all grass
much	UN	much grass	a large amount of grass
neither	singular CN	neither tree	no tree of a group of 2 trees
no	singular CN	no tree	not any tree
	plural CN	no trees	not any trees
	UN	no grass	not any grass
one	singular CN	one tree	a single tree
only	plural CN	only trees	nothing except trees
	UN	only grass	nothing except grass
other	plural CN	other trees	different trees
	UN	other grass	different grass
several	plural CN	several trees	more than 2 trees, but not a large number of trees
some	singular CN	some tree	an unspecified tree
	plural CN	some trees	unspecified trees
	UN	some grass	unspecified grass
such	singular CN	such a tree	a tree of a certain kind
	plural CN	such trees	trees of a certain kind
	UN	such grass	grass of a certain kind
that	singular CN	that tree	a particular tree, which is not nearby
	UN	that grass	particular grass, which is not nearby
these	plural CN	these trees	particular trees, which are nearby
this	singular CN	this tree	a particular tree, which is nearby
	UN	this grass	particular grass, which is nearby

those	plural CN	those trees	particular trees, which are not nearby
what	singular CN	what tree	asks in general for one tree to be specified
	plural CN	what trees	asks in general for particular trees to be specified
	UN	what grass	asks in general for particular grass to be specified
which	singular CN	which tree	asks for one tree to be specified from a certain group of trees
	plural CN	which trees	asks for trees to be specified from a certain group of trees
	UN	which grass	asks for some of certain grass to be specified

The following determiners can be used independently, as pronouns:

Determiners used as Pronouns

Determiner	**Used With**	**Example**	**Meaning**
all	plural CN	all (of) the trees	refers to every tree in a group of more than 2 trees
	UN	all (of) the grass	refers to the whole amount of certain specified grass
another	plural CN	another of the trees	one more of certain specified trees
any	plural CN	any of the trees	refers to 1 or more unspecified trees from a group of more than 2
	UN	any of the grass	refers to some of certain specified grass
both	plural CN	both of the trees	refers to 2 trees of a group of 2
each	plural CN	each of the trees	refers to every tree, considered individually, of a group of 2 or more
either	plural CN	either of the trees	refers to 1 of 2 trees, without specifying which
enough	singular CN	enough of the tree	a sufficient amount of a

			specified tree
	plural CN	enough of the trees	a sufficient number of certain specified trees
	UN	enough of the grass	a sufficient amount of certain specified grass
few	plural CN	few of the trees	a small number from a specified group of trees
fewer	plural CN	fewer of the trees	a smaller number from a specified group of trees
less	UN	less of the grass	a smaller amount of certain specified grass
little	UN	little of the grass	a small amount of certain specified grass
many	plural CN	many of the trees	a large number of certain specified trees
more	plural CN	more of the trees	an additional number of certain specified trees
	UN	more of the grass	an additional amount of certain specified grass
most	plural CN	most of the trees	nearly all of certain specified trees
	UN	most of the grass	nearly all of certain specified grass
much	UN	much of the grass	a large proportion of certain specified grass
neither	plural CN	neither of the trees	no tree of a group of 2 trees
none	plural CN	none of the trees	no tree of certain specified trees
	UN	none of the grass	no grass of certain specified grass
one	plural CN	one of the trees	a single tree of certain specified trees
others	plural CN	others of the trees	different trees, from a particular group of trees
several	plural CN	several of the trees	more than 2, but not a large number, of certain specified trees

some	singular CN	some of the tree	an unspecified portion of a particular tree
	plural CN	some of the trees	unspecified trees from a particular group of trees
	UN	some of the grass	an unspecified portion of particular grass
such	plural CN	such of the trees	trees of a certain kind, from a certain specified group of trees
	UN	such of the grass	grass of a certain kind, from certain specified grass
those	plural CN	those of the trees	particular trees, from a certain specified group of trees
which	plural CN	which of the trees	asks for one or more trees to be specified, from a particular group of trees

1. Determiners used to refer to groups of two persons or things

In Old English, there were singular forms, plural forms and dual forms. Dual forms are used to refer to two persons or things. In modern English, a few words still remain which refer to two persons or things.
For example, the determiners **both**, **either** and **neither** are used when referring to groups of two. **Both** refers to two things of a group of two, **either** refers to one thing of a group of two, and **neither** refers to zero things of a group of two.
e.g. I have two brothers. **Both** of them are engineers.
I had two maps of the city, but I cannot find **either** of them.
There are two textbooks for the course. **Neither** of them is expensive.

In contrast, the determiners **all**, **any** and **none** may be used when referring to groups with more than two members. **All** may refer to every member of a group of three or more, **any** may refer to one member of a group of three or more, and **none** may refer to zero members of a group of three or more.
e.g. I have three brothers. **All** of them are engineers.
I had four maps of the city, but I cannot find **any** of them.
There are six textbooks for the course. **None** of them is expensive.

See Exercise 1.

The following rules for the use of **either** and **neither** should be noted.

If it is desired to change a clause beginning with **either** so as to express a negative meaning,

either must be changed to **neither**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Either** of the alternatives is acceptable.
Negative Meaning: **Neither** of the alternatives is acceptable.

Affirmative Meaning: **Either** hotel will offer you its best room.
Negative Meaning: **Neither** hotel will offer you its best room.

A sentence which contains the word **either**, in which **either** does not occur at the beginning of a clause, can be changed to express a negative meaning either by using the word **not**, or by changing **either** to neither.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: You may borrow **either** of the books.
Negative Meaning: You may **not** borrow **either** of the books.
Negative Meaning: You may borrow **neither** of the books.

Affirmative Meaning: I might give the message to **either** boy.
Negative Meaning: I might **not** give the message to **either** boy.
Negative Meaning: I might give the message to **neither** boy.

It should be noted that in modern English, the determiner **neither** is most often used only at the beginning of a clause. Otherwise, the meaning of **neither** is usually expressed by the combination **not ... either**.

In addition to being used as determiners, the words **both**, **either** and **neither** can also be used as conjunctions. Conjunctions will be discussed in Chapter 28.

2. Determiners used as singular or plural pronouns

In formal English, the pronouns **another**, **each**, **either**, **neither** and **one** always take singular verbs.
e.g. **Each** of the children wants to win the prize.
Either of the alternatives is acceptable.
Neither of the books has good illustrations.
Every **one** of the students was ready on time.
In these examples, the singular verbs **wants**, **is**, **has**, and **was** are used with the pronouns **each**, **either**, **neither** and **one**.

In informal English, plural verbs are sometimes used with pronouns such as **each**, **either** and **neither**.
e.g. **Neither** of the books have good illustrations.
However, this use of the plural verb is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

It should also be noted that in formal English, when the words **another**, **each**, **every**, **either**, **neither** and **one** are used in combination with personal pronouns or possessive adjectives, singular forms are always used. As mentioned previously, in formal English, the adjective **his** or the phrase **his or her** may be used when referring to a group containing both male and female members.

e.g. **Each** of the children waited impatiently for **his** turn.
Every student raised **his or her** hand.
Neither of the girls has finished **her** homework.
Either of the hotels will offer you **its** best room.
In these examples, **each**, **every**, **neither** and **either** are used in combination with the singular forms **his**, **his or her**, **her** and **its**.

In informal English, plural possessive adjectives are often used in this type of sentence.
e.g. **Neither** of the girls finished **their** homework.
However, this use of the plural possessive adjective is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

It should be noted that in both formal and informal English, **none** is used sometimes with singular, and sometimes with plural verbs.
e.g. None of them is here. **or**
None of them are here.

In contrast, the pronouns **both**, **few**, **many** and **several** are always plural. They take plural verbs, and are used in combination with plural personal pronouns and possessive adjectives. In addition, the pronoun **all** is always plural when used with countable nouns.
e.g. **Both** of the boys have completed **their** essays.
Several of the musicians are giving **their** first performances tonight.
All of the girls have finished **their** homework.

In these examples, the pronouns **both**, **several** and **all** take the plural verbs **have completed**, **are giving** and **have finished**, and are used in combination with the plural possessive adjective **their**.

See Exercise 2.

3. The use of All, Both and Each

In addition to being used as attributive adjectives and as pronouns followed by **of**, the words **all**, **both** and **each** can also be used in **apposition**. A word used in apposition immediately follows the subject of a verb, or the object of a verb or preposition, and refers to the same thing as the subject or object. In the following examples, the words in apposition are printed in bold type.
e.g. We **both** wondered what would happen next.
The boys **all** looked forward to seeing the circus.
I sent them **each** an invitation.

In the first two examples, **both** and **all** are used in apposition to the subjects **we** and **the boys**. In the third example, **each** is used in apposition to the object **them**.

Words used in apposition can be referred to as **appositives**. Like relative clauses, appositives can be defining or non-defining. Non-defining appositives must be preceded and followed by commas.

e.g. Our leader, **Tom Smith**, was prepared for any emergency.
In this example **Tom Smith** is a non-defining appositive, in apposition to **our leader**.

Defining appositives such as **all**, **both** and **each** are not preceded and followed by commas.
e.g. We **each** have our own ideas.
In this example, the defining appositive **each** is in apposition to **we**. It should be noted that although **each** is singular, the verb **have** must be plural to agree with the subject **we**.

When used in clauses with auxiliary verbs or with the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, **all**, **both** and **each** generally follow the first auxiliary or the verb **to be**, rather than being used in apposition to the subject of the verb.
e.g. The boys had **all** been looking forward to seeing the circus.
We are **both** very happy to see you.
In the first example, **all** follows the first auxiliary **had**. In the second example, **both** follows the Simple Present of the verb **to be**.

4. The use of No, None and Not

The words **no**, **none** and **not** have similar meanings, but different grammatical functions.

The determiner **no** can be used as an adjective, but not as a pronoun; whereas **none** can be used as a pronoun, but not as an adjective.
e.g. He has **no** books.
None of the books are his.
In the first example, **no** is used as an adjective modifying the noun **books**. In the second example, **none** functions as a pronoun.

As has already been pointed out, the adverb **not** may be placed after the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, or after the first auxiliary of other verbs, in order to form a negative sentence or clause.
e.g. You are **not** late.
I have **not** forgotten what you said.

See Exercise 3.

Just as **neither** can be said to be equivalent to the combination **not ... either**, **none** can be said to be equivalent to **not ... any**. For instance, the following sentence:
He will have **no** difficulty.
could also be written:
He will **not** have **any** difficulty.

5. The use of Some and Any

The determiners **some** and **any** have slightly different meanings. The use of the word **some** generally implies a belief in the existence of the object or objects under consideration, whereas the use of the word **any** may imply a doubt about the existence of the object or

objects under consideration.

The words **some**, **somebody**, **someone**, **something** and **somewhere** are used in affirmative statements, as well as in polite questions and questions expecting an affirmative reply.
e.g. Affirmative Statement: I saw **some** birds in the park.
Polite Question: Would you like **some** tea?
Affirmative Reply Expected: You seem worried. Is **something** wrong?

In contrast, the words **any**, **anybody**, **anyone**, **anything** and **anywhere** are used in questions and negative statements, as well as in affirmative statements referring in an indefinite way to a type of object, without specifying a particular object.
e.g. Question: Did you see **any** birds in the park?
Negative Statement: I do not know **anyone** here.
Indefinite Reference: **Any** drug store can supply you with aspirin.

The words **some**, **somebody**, **someone**, **something** and **somewhere** usually cannot be used in a negative statement. If it is desired to change a clause beginning with the word **some** so that it expresses a negative meaning, **some** may be changed to **no** or **none**, depending on whether an adjective or pronoun is required.

In the following example, **some** is used as an adjective modifying the noun **books**. In order to change the sentence to express a negative meaning, **some** is replaced by the adjective **no**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Some** books were left on the shelf.
Negative Meaning: **No** books were left on the shelf.

In the following example, **some** is used as a pronoun. In order to change the sentence to express a negative meaning, **some** is replaced by the pronoun **none**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Some** of the visitors arrived late.
Negative Meaning: **None** of the visitors arrived late.

Similarly, if it is desired to change a clause beginning with **somebody**, **someone**, **something** or **somewhere** so that it expresses a negative meaning, these words may be replaced by **nobody**, **no one**, **nothing** and **nowhere**, respectively.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Someone** left a message.
Negative Meaning: **No one** left a message.

Affirmative Meaning: **Something** has happened.
Negative Meaning: **Nothing** has happened.

A sentence containing the word **some**, in which **some** does not occur at the beginning of a clause, can be changed to express a negative meaning by changing the sentence to a negative statement using **not**, and by changing **some** to **any**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: I bought **some** potatoes.
Negative Meaning: I did **not** buy **any** potatoes.

Affirmative Meaning: We will copy **some** of the recipes.
Negative Meaning: We will **not** copy **any** of the recipes.

It is possible to use **no** or **none** in such sentences instead of the construction with **not ... any**.
e.g. I bought **no** potatoes.

We will copy **none** of the recipes.
However, in modern English, the construction with **not ... any** is more often used than the construction with **no** or **none**.

See Exercise 4.

Similarly, a sentence containing the word **somebody**, **someone**, **something** or **somewhere**, in which the word beginning with **some** does not occur at the beginning of a clause, can be changed to express a negative meaning by changing the sentence to a negative statement using **not**, and by changing the word beginning with **some** to the corresponding word beginning with **any**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: I met **someone** I used to know.
Negative Meaning: I did **not** meet **anyone** I used to know.

Affirmative Meaning: We will buy **something**.
Negative Meaning: We will **not** buy **anything**.

In such sentences, **nobody**, **no one**, **nothing** or **nowhere** may be used instead of a negative statement with **not** and the word **anybody**, **anyone**, **anything** or **anywhere**.
e.g. I met **no one** I used to know.
We will buy **nothing**.
However, the construction with **not** is more often used.

See Exercise 5.

6. The use of Another, Other, Others and Else

The words **another**, **other**, **others** and **else** are used to indicate one or more additional or different things.

Another is formed from a combination of the words **an** and **other**, and has a meaning similar to **one other**. When used as an adjective, **another** can precede only a singular countable noun. When used as a pronoun, **another** takes a singular verb.
e.g. Please bring me **another** knife.
Another of her uncles lives in Montreal.
In the first example, **another** modifies the singular noun **knife**. In the second example, the pronoun **another** is the subject of the singular verb **lives**.

Other can be used with singular countable, plural countable or uncountable nouns.
e.g. The **other** door is open.
The **other** streets are paved.
Do you have any **other** luggage?
In these examples, **other** modifies the singular countable noun **door**, the plural countable noun **streets**, and the uncountable noun **luggage**.

Another usually cannot be immediately preceded by a determiner. In contrast, when used before a singular countable noun, **other** usually must be preceded by a determiner.
e.g. Please pass me the **other** cup.
I do not know any **other** way to do it.

There must be some **other** explanation.
In these examples, **other** is used with the singular countable nouns **cup**, **way** and **explanation**, and is preceded by the determiners **the**, **any** and **some**.

When **other** modifies a singular countable noun, the noun is sometimes omitted, particularly in the expression **one ... the other**.
e.g. I have two pens. **One** is green and the **other** is blue.
One of my parents is a teacher; the **other** is a doctor.

In these examples, the nouns following the word **other** are understood, rather than expressed. In the following sentences, the nouns which are understood are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. I have two pens. **One** is green and the **other** [pen] is blue.
One of my parents is a teacher; the **other** [parent] is a doctor.

Others is a pronoun. **Others** can be used to take the place of the word **other**, followed by a plural countable noun.
e.g. Those trees are hemlocks; the **others** are pines.
Ten people belong to the group, and five **others** are planning to join.
In the first example, **others** takes the place of the words **other trees**. In the second example, **others** takes the place of the words **other people**.

Others is often used in the expression **some ... others**.
e.g. **Some** books are easy to read, but **others** are quite difficult.
Some people like classical music, while **others** prefer jazz.

The word **else** has a meaning similar to **other**. However, rather than being used as an adjective preceding a noun, **else** usually follows interrogative pronouns such as **who** and **what**, and indefinite pronouns such as **anyone** and **someone**.
e.g. Who **else** was at the meeting?
What **else** is on the agenda?
Has anyone **else** solved the problem?
Someone **else** may be able to help you.

See Exercise 6.

7. The use of Only

In addition to being used as a determiner, the word **only** can be used to modify almost any part of a sentence. In general, the word **only** immediately precedes the part of the sentence which it modifies.

The following examples illustrate how changing the position of the word **only** can change the meaning of a sentence.
e.g. **Only** the trees were somewhat damaged by last year's storm.
Meaning: Nothing except the trees was somewhat damaged by last year's storm.

The **only** trees were somewhat damaged by last year's storm.
Meaning: The few trees which existed were somewhat damaged by last year's storm.

The trees were **only** somewhat damaged by last year's storm.
Meaning: The trees were not completely damaged by last year's storm.

The trees were somewhat damaged **only** by last year's storm.
Meaning: The trees were somewhat damaged by nothing except last year's storm.

The trees were somewhat damaged by last year's **only** storm.
Meaning: The trees were somewhat damaged by the one storm which occurred last year.

See Exercise 7.

8. The use of Few, Little and Several

The use of the word **a** with the determiners **few** and **little** somewhat changes the meaning which is expressed.

The expressions **a few** and **a little** merely refer to a small quantity of something.
e.g. **A few** of his friends came to the party.
Meaning: Some of his friends came to the party.

I had **a little** time to consider the situation.
Meaning: I had a small amount of time to consider the situation.

In contrast, **few** and **little** not only refer to a small quantity of something, but also imply that the quantity is remarkably, or undesirably small.
e.g. **Few** of his friends came to the party.
Meaning: Only a very small number of his friends came to the party.

I had **little** time to consider the situation.
Meaning: I had almost no time to consider the situation.

See Exercise 8.

The expressions **a few** and **several** can both be used to refer to three or more things. However, there is a slight difference in meaning. The expression **a few** generally emphasizes that the quantity referred to is relatively small, while the expression **several** generally emphasizes that the quantity referred to is relatively large.

For instance, the following sentences could both refer to an event which occurred four or five times.
e.g. I saw him **a few** times.
Meaning: I saw him, but I did not see him often.

I saw him **several** times.
Meaning: I saw him more than once or twice.

9. The expressions Such ... That, So ... That, and Too

a. Such ... That

The determiner **such** is often used in combination with a clause beginning with **that**, in order to indicate a cause and effect relationship.

e.g. There was **such** a strong wind **that** we decided to stay indoors.
He has **such** high marks **that** he has applied for a scholarship.

In the first example, **a strong wind** refers to the cause, and **we decided to stay indoors** refers to the effect. In the second example, **high marks** refers to the cause, and **he has applied for a scholarship** refers to the effect.

It should be noted that when **such** is used as an adjective modifying a singular countable noun, the word **a** or **an** usually follows the word **such**.

e.g. **such** a strong wind
such an unusual event

The construction usually used with the expression **such ... that** is summarized below, followed by examples.

such a **such an** + or **such**	adjective +	noun +	**that** clause stating the effect of the situation described in the main clause
She is such a	hard	worker	that she is sure to succeed.
That is such an	interesting	book	that I read it three times.
He has such	good	ideas	that he may be promoted.

b. So ... That

The word **so** combined with a clause beginning with **that** can also be used in order to indicate a cause and effect relationship.

Whereas **such** usually modifies a noun, in this construction **so** is used as an intensifier modifying an adjective or adverb. Intensifiers will be discussed in a later chapter.

e.g. The wind was **so** strong **that** we decided to stay indoors.
His marks are **so** high **that** he has applied for a scholarship.
The wind blew **so** fiercely **that** we decided to stay indoors.

In the first two examples, **so** modifies the adjectives **strong** and **high**. In the last example, **so** modifies the adverb **fiercely**.

This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

subject +	verb +	**so** +	adverb or adjective +	**that** clause stating the effect of the situation described in the main clause
She	sang	so	well	that she had to sing an encore.
The moon	was	so	bright	that we could see for miles.

In informal English, the word **that** in the expressions **such ... that** and **so ... that** is often omitted.
e.g. There was **such** a strong wind, we decided to stay indoors.
The moon was **so** bright, we could see for miles.

So can also be followed by **many**, **much**, **few** or **little**, followed by a noun, followed by a clause beginning with **that**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	so +	**many** **much**, + **few** or **little**	noun +	**that** clause stating the effect of the situation described in the main clause
There were	so	many	spectators	that there was standing room only.
I did	so	much	swimming	that I became very strong.
He knew	so	few	people	that he often felt lonely.
There was	so	little	snow	that we could not go skiing.

c. Too
The intensifier **too** used in combination with an infinitive can also be used to indicate a cause and effect relationship. In the following examples, the word **too** is printed in bold type, and the infinitives are underlined.
e.g. It is **too** windy for us <u>to go</u> outside.
He is **too** poor <u>to continue</u> studying without a scholarship.
It was raining **too** hard for us <u>to leave</u> the house.
In the first two examples, **too** modifies the adjectives **windy** and **poor**. In the last example, **too** modifies the adverb **hard**.

The construction usually used with **too** in combination with an infinitive is summarized below, followed by examples.

subject +	verb +	**too** +	adverb or adjective +	phrase containing an infinitive, indicating the effect of the situation described using **too**
They	walked	too	quickly	for me to overtake them.
The writing	was	too	difficult	to read.

See Exercise 9.

CHAPTER 21. ADJECTIVES: POSITION IN A SENTENCE

Words which are used to modify nouns or pronouns are usually referred to as **adjectives**. For instance, the adjectives in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. <u>Large</u> trees could be seen.

They are happy.

In the preceding examples, the adjective **large** modifies the noun **trees**, and the adjective **happy** modifies the pronoun **they**.

It should be noted that adjectives can be formed from two or more words combined by the use of hyphens.

e.g. the three-month-old baby
a ninety-dollar jacket
a two-hour trip

As illustrated in these examples, the nouns in such hyphenated expressions are generally in the singular. Thus, the singular forms of the nouns **month**, **dollar** and **hour** are used.

Most English adjectives have the same form for the singular as for the plural. The only exceptions are the demonstrative adjectives **this** and **that**, discussed Chapter 19.

1. Proper adjectives

Proper adjectives are adjectives derived from proper nouns. In English, proper adjectives must begin with a capital letter. The proper adjectives in the following sentences are underlined.

e.g. The French town has an interesting history.
Many of my friends are American.
This house is a fine example of Victorian architecture.

The derivation of proper adjectives from proper nouns is somewhat irregular. For instance, the spelling of the following proper nouns and proper adjectives can be compared.

Proper Noun	**Proper Adjective**
America	American
Canada	Canadian
Germany	German
Mexico	Mexican
George	Georgian
Victoria	Victorian

Many proper adjectives end with **an** or **ian**. However, other endings are also used, as indicated below.

Proper Noun	**Proper Adjective**
England	English
France	French
China	Chinese

2. Attributive adjectives

Adjectives which precede the noun they modify are usually referred to as **attributive**

adjectives. For instance, in the following examples, the attributive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. Heavy rain is expected.
We saw white swans on the river.

In these examples, **heavy** is an attributive adjective modifying the noun **rain**, and **white** is an attributive adjective modifying the noun **swans**.

a. Order of attributive adjectives
It is possible for a noun to be preceded by many different types of attributive adjective. In the following example, the attributive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. Two large red cardboard milk cartons stood on the steps.

In this example, **two** is a cardinal number, **large** is an adjective indicating size, **red** is an adjective indicating color, **cardboard** is an adjective indicating a type of material, and **milk** is a defining adjective indicating purpose.

When a noun is preceded by more than one type of attributive adjective, the different types of adjective are usually arranged in a particular order. For instance, the following example contains eleven different types of attributive adjective.
e.g. a small, heavy, snug, warm, 100-year-old, round-bellied black iron Norwegian wood stove

In this example, **a** is an article, **small** is an adjective indicating size, **heavy** is an adjective indicating weight, **snug** is a general descriptive adjective, **warm** is an adjective indicating temperature, **100-year-old** is an adjective indicating age, **round-bellied** is an adjective indicating shape, **black** is an adjective indicating color, **iron** is an adjective indicating a type of material, **Norwegian** is a proper adjective, and **wood** is a defining adjective indicating a method of operation.

The different types of attributive adjective are usually arranged In the order shown in the following table.

Usual Order of Attributive Adjectives

1) certain determiners such as **all**, **both** and **half**
2) determiners including the articles **a**, **and** and **the**;
possessive adjectives e.g. **my**, **his**, **her**, **our** and **their**;
demonstrative adjectives e.g. **that**, **these**, **this**, and **those**; and
certain other determiners such as **another**, **any**, **each**, **either**, **enough**, **every**, **neither**, **no**, **some**, **what** and **which**
3) cardinal numbers e.g. **one**, **two**, **three**; and
certain other determiners such as **few**, **many** and **several**
4) determiners such as **fewer**, **fewest**, **least**, **less**, **more** and **most**
5) general descriptive adjectives, often in the following order:
a) adjectives indicating size e.g. **large**, **long**, **narrow**
b) adjectives indicating weight e.g. **heavy**, **light**
c) participles and other adjectives e.g. **clever**, **excited**, **interesting**
d) adjectives indicating temperature e.g. **cold**, **hot**, **warm**

e) adjectives indicating humidity e.g. **dry**, **damp**, **wet**
f) adjectives indicating age e.g. **new**, **six-month-old**, **young**
g) adjectives indicating shape e.g. **barrel-shaped**, **round**, **square**

6) adjectives indicating color e.g. **blue**, **grey**, **white**
7) adjectives indicating materials e.g. **cloth**, **leather**, **metal**
8) proper adjectives e.g. **American**, **Victorian**
9) defining adjectives, usually indicating purpose, method of operation, location, time or categories of people

i. Determiners

The usual order of different types of determiner is indicated in the first four categories of the table above.

1) The determiners in the first category, **all**, **both** and **half**, usually precede other attributive adjectives.
e.g. all three tables
both the students
half the red roses

Alternatively, before the article **the**, the words **all**, **both** and **half** may be used as pronouns, followed by the word **of**.
e.g. all of the tables
both of the students
half of the red roses

2) The determiners in the second category of the table above include articles, possessive adjectives, demonstrative adjectives, and the determiners **another**, **any**, **each**, **either**, **enough**, **every**, **neither**, **no**, **some**, **what** and **which**. A noun can usually be modified by only one of the attributive adjectives in this category.

If it is desired to convey the idea expressed by a possessive adjective combined with another adjective in this category, the possessive adjective must be changed to the corresponding possessive pronoun preceded by **of**, and must follow the noun.

For instance, the ideas expressed by the phrase **this black horse**, combined with the possessive adjective **my**; and the phrase **a book** combined with the possessive adjective **your** may be conveyed as follows:
e.g. this black horse of mine
a book of yours

In a somewhat similar way, the determiners **another**, **any**, **each**, **either**, **enough**, **neither**, **some** and **which** may be combined with other members of the second category of adjective by being used as pronouns followed by **of**.

For instance, the ideas expressed by the phrase **my dresses**, combined with the determiner **any**; and the phrase **these white flowers**, combined with the determiner **either** may be conveyed as follows:
e.g. any of my dresses
either of these white flowers

Since the determiners **every** and **no** cannot be used as pronouns, the expressions **every one** and **none** must be used. For instance, the ideas expressed in the phrase **these children**, combined with the determiner **every**; and the phrase **their opinions**, combined with the determiner **no** may be conveyed as follows:
e.g. every one of these children
none of their opinions

See Exercise 1.

3) The determiners in the third category of the table above include the cardinal numbers, and the determiners **few**, **many** and **several**. As illustrated in the following examples, the determiners in this category usually follow determiners in the previous two categories, and precede other attributive adjectives.
e.g. all twelve red roses
their many exciting adventures

It should be noted that **other** usually precedes a cardinal number when an article or possessive adjective is present, but usually follows a cardinal number when no article or possessive adjective is present.
e.g. the other three chairs
my other two cousins

three other chairs
two other cousins

In the first two examples, the article **the** and the possessive article **my** are present, and **other** precedes the cardinal numbers **three** and **two**. In the second two examples, no article or possessive adjective is present, and **other** follows the cardinal numbers **three** and **two**.

4) The determiners **fewer**, **fewest**, **least**, **less**, **more** and **most** usually follow other determiners.
e.g. the fewest mistakes
two more children
In the first example, **fewest** follows the determiner **the**. In the second example, **more** follows the determiner **two**.

See Exercise 2.

ii. General descriptive adjectives
As indicated in the preceding table, general descriptive adjectives usually follow determiners and precede other types of attributive adjective. As shown in the table, there are several types of general descriptive adjective, which often occur in a certain order. However, the order of different types of general descriptive adjective is more flexible than the order of other types of attributive adjective.

a) Attributive adjectives indicating size usually follow any determiners, but precede other types of attributive adjective. In the following phrases, the adjectives indicating size are underlined.
e.g. three large, level platforms
her two tiny brown lap dogs

that enormous English dictionary

Below are pairs of adjectives with opposite meanings, indicating size:

deep	shallow
enormous	tiny
large	small
long	short
wide	narrow
thick	thin

b) Adjectives indicating weight usually follow adjectives indicating size, but precede other types of attributive adjective. In the following phrases, the adjectives indicating weight are underlined.
e.g. a small, heavy parcel
two light nylon knapsacks

The following are examples of adjectives indicating weight:

heavy
light
5-kilogram
2-ton

See Exercise 3.

c) Participles and other general descriptive adjectives which do not fall into any of the other categories usually follow adjectives indicating size and weight, and precede other types of attributive adjective. In the following examples, the adjective **alert**, and the participles **twittering** and **excited** are underlined.
e.g. two large, alert black cats
eleven tiny, twittering birds
many excited children

d) to **g)** The order of adjectives indicating temperature, humidity, age and shape is not as predictable as the order of other attributive adjectives. For instance, adjectives indicating temperature occur sometimes before and sometimes after general descriptive adjectives such as **clear** and **hard**.
e.g. clear, cold water
cold, hard ice

It should be noted that the position of attributive adjectives indicating age may be altered to change the emphasis.
e.g. a new, efficient method
an efficient, new method
In the first example, the adjective **new** is emphasized. In the second example, the adjective **efficient** is emphasized.

However, the most usual order of adjectives indicating temperature, humidity, age and shape

is that indicated in the table. For instance, adjectives indicating temperature usually precede adjectives indicating humidity.
e.g. a hot, dry wind
a cold, wet dog
In these examples, the adjectives **hot** and **cold**, indicating temperature, precede the adjectives **dry** and **wet**, indicating humidity.

As can be seen in the preceding examples, general descriptive adjectives are usually separated from one another by commas. This is illustrated In the following examples, in which the general descriptive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. a small, triangular wooden boat
those five thick, strong, two-hundred-year-old oak trees

Below are examples of adjectives which indicate temperature, humidity, age and shape.

Temperature	**Humidity**	**Age**	**Shape**
hot	wet	new	square
cold	dry	old	round
warm	damp	young	triangular
cool	humid	six-week-old	octagonal
	moist	two-year-old	spherical

See Exercise 4.

iii. Adjectives indicating color
Adjectives indicating color usually precede adjectives indicating materials, proper adjectives, and defining adjectives, but follow other types of attributive adjective.

In the following examples, the adjectives indicating color are underlined.
e.g. threatening black clouds
her new red leather jacket
a square brown mahogany table

Below are examples of adjectives which indicate color:

red	black	pink
orange	white	magenta
yellow	brown	scarlet
green	beige	crimson
blue	silver	fox-red
violet	golden	olive-green
purple	turquoise	sky-blue, etc.

iv. Adjectives indicating materials
Attributive adjectives indicating the materials from which objects are made usually follow any adjectives indicating color and precede any proper or defining adjectives. In the following examples, adjectives indicating materials are underlined.
e.g. a beautiful grey silk scarf
ten black plastic coat hangers

the clean wooden floor

In modern English, most adjectives indicating the materials from which objects are made have the same form as the corresponding nouns. For Instance, the words **silk** and **plastic** can be used either as nouns or as adjectives. One of the few exceptions is the adjective **wooden**, which corresponds to the noun **wood**.

Below are examples of adjectives which indicate materials:

wooden	cotton	metal
paper	wool	iron
cardboard	silk	steel
plastic	satin	brass
rock	corduroy	gold
stone	velvet	silver
brick	flannel	copper
concrete	denim	lead
glass	nylon	tin
leather	polyester	aluminum

v. The position of proper adjectives
Proper adjectives usually follow all other types of attributive adjective except defining adjectives.

Proper adjectives are usually derived from proper nouns referring to places or persons. In the following examples, the proper adjectives are underlined.
e.g. sparkling French wine
three red brick Georgian manor houses

In the first example, the proper adjective **French** is derived from the place name **France**, and indicates the place of origin of the wine. In the second example, the proper adjective **Georgian** is derived from **George**, the name of an English king, and indicates that the houses are built in a style developed during the reign of that king.

It should be noted that proper adjectives may sometimes precede adjectives indicating materials, as in the following examples. This occurs when the adjective indicating a material is used as a type of defining adjective, to help identify what type of object is being described.
e.g. Mexican straw hats
an American pearl necklace

See Exercises 5 and 6.

vi. Defining adjectives
When a word preceding a noun does not merely describe the object being referred to, but helps to define or identify the type of object meant, the word preceding the noun can be called a **defining** adjective. The defining adjectives in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. an enjoyable birthday party
a fine young man
the new telephone directory

Defining adjectives are combined with nouns to form fixed expressions, in order to refer to certain types of things. In the above examples, **birthday party**, **young man** and **telephone directory** are fixed expressions which are commonly used to refer to certain types of things.

In many such expressions, the defining adjectives are words which are usually used as nouns. For instance, in the above examples, **birthday**, and **telephone** are words which are usually used as nouns. In such cases, the fixed expressions are sometimes thought of as **compound nouns**.

Many words which are used as gerunds can also be used as defining adjectives, as illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. black hiking boots
our drinking water

In this type of fixed expression, it is also possible for two words to be used together as defining adjectives. In the following examples, the words used as defining adjectives are underlined.
e.g. a roller skating rink
a hot water bottle

Defining adjectives usually immediately precede the nouns they modify. Many defining adjectives indicate the purpose for which the object being referred to is used. In the following examples, the defining adjectives are underlined.
e.g. an egg carton
a coat hanger
a dish cloth
An **egg carton** is a carton used for storing eggs, a **coat hanger** is an object used for hanging up coats, and a **dish cloth** is a cloth used for washing dishes.

As can be seen in these examples, when a word usually used as a countable noun is used as a defining adjective, it is normally the singular form of the word which is used. Thus, in the preceding examples, the singular forms **egg**, **coat** and **dish** are used.

See Exercise 7.

Defining adjectives can also indicate the method of operation of an object. This is the case in the following examples.
e.g. a steam iron
a ten-speed bicycle
an electric light

Defining adjectives sometimes help to define the object being referred to by indicating time or location.
e.g. the morning star
the winter term
the front door
the kitchen window
In these examples the adjectives **morning** and **winter** indicate time, and the adjectives **front** and **kitchen** indicate location.

Defining adjectives are also used in fixed expressions which refer to certain categories of people.
e.g. a little girl
a baby boy
an old woman

See Exercise 8.

vii. Ordinal adjectives
Attributive adjectives such as **next**, **last**, **first**, **second**, **third** and so on, are sometimes referred to as **ordinal** adjectives, since they indicate the order in which things occur.

When they are not followed by commas, ordinal adjectives have the property of modifying any following attributive adjectives together with the accompanying noun. For this reason, the position of an ordinal adjective relative to other attributive adjectives can affect the meaning of a phrase.
e.g. the first reluctant witness
the reluctant first witness

The two preceding examples have different meanings. In the phrase **the first reluctant witness**, the adjective **first** modifies the following adjective **reluctant** together with the noun **witness**. This means that although there may have been previous witnesses, the phrase refers to the first witness who was reluctant.

However, in the phrase **the reluctant first witness**, the adjective **first** modifies only the noun **witness**. This means that there were no previous witnesses. The phrase refers to the first witness, indicating that this witness was reluctant.

Below is a similar example, giving two phrases with different meanings.
e.g. the second unpredictable year
the unpredictable second year

In the phrase **the second unpredictable year**, the adjective **second** modifies the following adjective **unpredictable** together with the noun **year**. This means that although there may have been more than one previous year, the phrase refers to the second year which was unpredictable.

However, in the phrase **the unpredictable second year**, the adjective **second** modifies only the noun **year**. This means that there was only one previous year. The phrase refers to the second year, indicating that this year was unpredictable.

As illustrated in the preceding examples, the position of ordinal attributive adjectives varies depending upon what meaning is to be conveyed.

See Exercise 9.

b. Punctuation used with attributive adjectives
As already indicated, general descriptive adjectives, including adjectives indicating size, weight, temperature, humidity, age and shape are usually separated from one another by

commas.
e.g. the long, winding road
a heavy, awkward box
a cold, wet mist
a small, square room

In contrast, determiners, possessive adjectives, adjectives representing cardinal numbers, and ordinal adjectives are usually not followed by commas. In the following examples, adjectives of these types are underlined.
e.g. those large chairs
my new shirts
two narrow paths
the first tall building

In addition, defining adjectives, proper adjectives, and adjectives indicating color and materials are usually not preceded by commas. In the following examples, adjectives of these types are underlined.
e.g. a large egg carton
a beautiful Chinese vase
elegant black boots
a dilapidated stone building

However, it should be noted that in some cases, proper adjectives and adjectives indicating shape, color and materials may or may not be preceded by commas. In the following examples, adjectives of these types are underlined.
e.g. a beautiful Japanese necklace **or** a beautiful, Japanese necklace
a small square tower **or** a small, square tower
a thin grey cat **or** a thin, grey cat
a black leather briefcase **or** a black, leather briefcase

When such adjectives are **not** preceded by commas, there is an implication that the adjectives are used to help identify the object being described. However, when such adjectives **are** preceded by commas, there is an implication that the adjectives are provided only for purposes of description, and are not being used to help identify the object being described.

For example, in the phrase **a small square tower**, there is the implication that the shape of the tower helps to identify which tower is meant. However, in the phrase **a small, square tower** there is the implication that the adjective **square** is provided only for purposes of description, and is not being used to help identify which tower is meant.

See Exercise 10.

There is also a distinction in meaning associated with the presence or absence of commas following ordinal adjectives. When followed by commas, ordinal adjectives function similarly to general descriptive adjectives, and modify only the accompanying noun.
e.g. the last, lonely outpost
the first, faint morning light
In the first example, the adjective **last** modifies the noun **outpost**. In the second example, the adjective **first** modifies the noun **light**.

However, as explained in the section on ordinal adjectives, when they are not followed by commas, ordinal adjectives have the property of modifying any following attributive adjectives together with the accompanying noun.

c. Stress used with attributive adjectives

In speaking, nouns are usually pronounced with more stress than the preceding attributive adjectives. In the following examples, the words which are pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined.

e.g. a small, green cucumber
an old, rectangular courtyard

In these examples, the nouns **cucumber** and **courtyard** are pronounced with slightly more emphasis than the preceding adjectives.

i. Adjectives indicating materials

However, there are several exceptions to the rule that the noun has the most emphasis. For instance, when a noun is immediately preceded by an adjective naming a material, the adjective is usually pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the noun.

e.g. a leather belt
a silver spoon

In these examples, the adjectives **leather** and **silver** are pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the nouns **belt** and **spoon**.

ii. Defining adjectives indicating location or time

Also, when a noun is preceded by a defining adjective indicating location or time, the adjective is usually pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the noun.

e.g. the front door
the fall term

In these examples, the defining adjectives **front**, indicating location, and **fall**, indicating time, are pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the nouns **door** and **term**.

iii. Defining adjectives indicating purpose

However, when a defining adjective indicates the purpose of the object being described, the defining adjective usually has a strong emphasis, while the noun which follows it has a weak emphasis.

e.g. brown hiking boots
a red milk carton

In these examples, the defining adjectives **hiking** and **milk** receive a stronger emphasis than either the succeeding nouns **boots** and **carton**, or the preceding attributive adjectives.

See Exercise 11.

3. Predicate adjectives

a. Attributive adjectives which can be used as predicate adjectives

An adjective which is separated from the noun or pronoun it modifies by a verb is often referred to as a **predicate** adjective. The predicate adjectives in the following examples are underlined.

e.g. The horse is black.

The streets are long and narrow.
It is large, heavy and awkward.

In these examples, the adjective **black** modifies the noun **horse**. the adjectives **long** and **narrow** modify the noun **streets**, and the adjectives **large**, **heavy** and **awkward** modify the pronoun **it**.

Most general descriptive adjectives, as well as adjectives indicating color, can be used as predicate adjectives. In the following examples, the predicate adjectives are underlined.
e.g. The answer is puzzling.
These envelopes are small.
The bucket was heavy.
The weather will be cool and dry.
That child is young.
The cake is round.
The leaves are red, yellow and orange.

However, there are a few general descriptive adjectives which cannot be used as predicate adjectives. For example, the adjectives listed below are normally used only as attributive adjectives.

Adjectives used only Attributively

chief
main
principal
sheer
utter

It should be noted that although they cannot be used with attributive adjectives, pronouns can be used with predicate adjectives.
e.g. He is happy.
She is proud.
We are careful.
They are successful.

Proper adjectives are sometimes used as predicate adjectives.
e.g. That car is American.
This one is Japanese.

It should be noted that hyphenated adjectives containing nouns often cannot be used as predicate adjectives. When such an expression follows the verb, the hyphens are omitted and the noun assumes a plural form, if required. In the following examples, the nouns contained in the hyphenated adjectives are underlined.
e.g. the two-year-old child
the one-hour program
forty-dollar shoes

When placed after the verb, the hyphenated adjectives must be changed as follows:
e.g. The child is two years old.
The length of the program is one hour.

The price of the shoes is forty dollars.

However, hyphenated adjectives which do not contain nouns can often be used as predicate adjectives. For instance, in the following examples, the hyphenated adjectives are underlined.
e.g. the long-winded orator
the wide-spread belief

These adjectives contain past participles. Hyphenated adjectives containing past participles are frequently used as predicate adjectives.
e.g. The orator was long-winded.
The belief is wide-spread.

i. Order
The order of predicate adjectives relative to one another is generally the same as the order of attributive adjectives relative to one another. The following examples illustrate the order of predicate adjectives.
e.g. The package is small and light.
The weather is clear, cold and dry.
The footstool is round and black.

In the first example, the adjective **small**, indicating size, precedes the adjective **light**, indicating weight. In the second example, the general descriptive adjective **clear** precedes the adjective **cold**, indicating temperature, which precedes the adjective **dry**, indicating humidity. In the third example, the adjective **round**, indicating shape, precedes the adjective **black**, indicating color.

ii. Punctuation
As can be seen in these examples, the last two adjectives in a list of predicate adjectives are usually separated from each another by the word **and**, and any preceding adjectives are usually separated from one another by commas.
e.g. The clothes were clean **and** dry.
The dancers were tall, slender **and** graceful.

In a list of three or more predicate adjectives, an additional comma is sometimes placed before the word **and**.
e.g. The dancers were tall, slender**, and** graceful.
However, this additional comma is usually considered unnecessary.

See Exercise 12.

b. Adjectives which can be used only as predicate adjectives
The following are examples of adjectives with the prefix **a** which can be used only as predicate adjectives, not as attributive adjectives. The prefix **a** was formerly a preposition meaning **on**.

Adjectives used only Predicatively
afloat
afraid
aglow
alive

alone
asleep

In some cases, related words can be used as attributive adjectives. In the following examples, words used only as predicate adjectives and related words used as attributive adjectives are underlined.

Predicate Adjectives	**Attributive Adjectives**
The boat is afloat.	the floating boat
The child is afraid.	the frightened child
The sky is aglow.	the glowing sky
The animal is alive.	the live animal
The boy is asleep.	the sleeping boy

As illustrated below, the words **here**, **there** and **ready** can be used as predicate adjectives.
e.g. The children are here.
The records were there.
I am ready.

The words **here** and **there** are often used as adverbs, and cannot be used as attributive adjectives. The word **ready** is used as an attributive adjective only in certain expressions such as **ready money** and **a ready answer**.

As illustrated in the following examples, a few adjectives differ in meaning, depending upon whether they are used as predicate adjectives or attributive adjectives.
e.g. The treasurer was present.
the present treasurer

Robin Harris was late.
the late Robin Harris

My friend is poor.
my poor friend

In the sentence **the treasurer was present**, the predicate adjective **present** indicates that the treasurer was not absent. However, in the phrase **the present treasurer**, the attributive adjective **present** indicates that the person referred to holds the position of treasurer at the present time.

In the sentence **Robin Harris was late**, the predicate adjective **late** indicates that Robin Harris did not arrive on time. However, in the phrase **the late Robin Harris**, the attributive adjective **late** indicates that Robin Harris is no longer alive.

In the sentence **my friend is poor**, the predicate adjective **poor** indicates that my friend has little money. However, in the phrase **my poor friend**, the attributive adjective **poor** indicates that my friend is in an unfortunate situation.

See Exercise 13.

c. Linking verbs

In addition to the verb **to be**, certain other verbs can be followed by predicate adjectives. Such verbs are sometimes referred to as **linking** verbs, since they can link nouns or pronouns to modifying adjectives. For instance, the following verbs can be used as linking verbs.

Linking Verb	Linking Verb used with Predicate Adjective
to become	The wind became stronger.
to feel	The blanket feels soft, warm and comfortable.
to grow	The weather is growing cold.
to look	The sky looked grey and overcast.
to seem	His reasoning seems logical.
to smell	The soup smelled good.
to sound	The story sounds interesting.
to taste	The carrots tasted sweet.
to turn	The leaves turned scarlet.

In the above examples, the linking verbs link noun subjects with predicate adjectives.

When a verb is used as a linking verb, it is intransitive, since it does not take an object. It should be noted that many of the verbs listed above can also be used transitively.
e.g. The child felt the blankets.
We smelled the soup.
In these examples, the verbs **to feel** and **to smell** are used transitively, taking the objects **blankets** and **soup** respectively.

See Exercise 14.

4. Interpolated adjectives

As well as being used as attributive or predicate adjectives, general descriptive adjectives and adjectives indicating color can also be placed elsewhere in a sentence. When used in this way, adjectives can be said to be **interpolated** into a sentence. In the following sentences, the interpolated adjectives are underlined.
e.g. The child, happy and excited, ran along the beach.
Startled, the small yellow bird stopped singing.
Tense, expectant and alert, we waited to see what would happen.

Since the use of interpolated adjectives is somewhat uncommon, the use of interpolation can serve to emphasize the adjectives. Interpolated adjectives are most often placed immediately after a noun, as shown in the first example; or before a noun or pronoun at the beginning of a sentence, as shown in the second and third examples.

As illustrated above, a noun can be modified simultaneously by both interpolated and attributive adjectives. For instance, in the second example, the noun **bird** is modified by both the interpolated adjective **startled** and the attributive adjectives **the small yellow**.

Care must be taken in the positioning of interpolated adjectives, since the reader or listener will usually assume that the adjectives modify the nearest noun or pronoun.

As can be seen from the examples, the punctuation of interpolated adjectives is similar to that of predicate adjectives. When more than one adjective is used, the last two adjectives are separated from one another by the word **and**, and previous adjectives are separated from one another by commas.

However, unlike predicate adjectives, interpolated adjectives must also be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. For instance, in the first example above, the interpolated adjectives **happy and excited** are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma before the word **happy**, and a comma following the word **excited**. Likewise, in the second example, the interpolated adjective **startled** is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; and in the third example, the interpolated adjectives **tense, expectant and alert** are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma following the word **alert**.

Interpolated adjectives are used more often in written English than in spoken English.

See Exercise 15.

5. Adjectival phrases and clauses

Nouns and pronouns can be modified not only by adjectives, but also by adjectival phrases and clauses. In the following examples, the adjectival phrases and clauses are underlined.
e.g. The table near the door is made of oak.
The one on the desk is mine.
The chair, which was placed in front of the window, was an heirloom.
Those who decide to come will not be disappointed.

In the first example, the noun **table** is modified by the adjectival phrase **near the door**. In the second example, the pronoun **one** is modified by the adjectival phrase **on the desk**. In the third example, the noun **chair** is modified by the adjectival clause **which was placed in front of the window**. In the fourth example, the pronoun **those** is modified by the adjectival clause **who decide to come**.

It should be noted that phrases do not contain verbs, whereas clauses do contain verbs. Phrases and clauses will be discussed further in the chapters dealing with prepositions and conjunctions. As illustrated in the preceding examples, an adjectival phrase or clause usually immediately follows the noun or pronoun being modified.

6. Participles used as adjectives

As has already been mentioned, present and past participles of verbs can be used as adjectives.

a. Present participles

Present participles used as adjectives refer to actions being performed **by** the things being described. In the following examples the present participles used as adjectives are underlined.
e.g. the falling star

the barking dog

The first example indicates that the star is performing the action of falling. The second example indicates that the dog is performing the action of barking.

b. Past participles

Past participles used as adjectives refer to actions which have been performed **on** the things being described. In the following examples, the past participles used as adjectives are underlined.

e.g. the scattered leaves

the broken drum

The first example indicates that something has scattered the leaves. The second example indicates that something has broken the drum.

See Exercise 16.

c. Dangling participles

As well as being used as attributive and predicate adjectives, past and present participles can also be used at the beginning of adjectival phrases interpolated into a sentence. In the following sentences, the interpolated adjectival phrases are underlined. As illustrated by the examples, an interpolated phrase must be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

e.g. Feeling hungry, the child ate an apple.

Disconcerted by the news, we headed for the nearest farmhouse.

In the first example, the present participle **feeling** begins the adjectival phrase **feeling hungry**, which modifies the noun **child**. In the second example, the past participle **disconcerted** begins the adjectival phrase **disconcerted by the news**, which modifies the pronoun **we**.

Since the listener or reader tends to assume that an interpolated adjectival phrase is meant to modify the nearest noun or pronoun, care must be taken to make sure that such a phrase is positioned close to the noun or pronoun to be modified. A participle that begins an interpolated phrase that is not sufficiently close to the noun or pronoun to be modified is usually referred to as a **dangling** participle. Dangling participles can result in ambiguity, or in sentences which do not make sense.

In the following sentences, the phrases beginning with dangling participles are underlined.

e.g. The photographer focused the camera, holding his breath.

Running across the road, his hat blew off.

In the first example, the noun to be modified is **photographer**. However, the phrase **holding his breath** is separated from the noun to be modified by the noun **camera**. Thus, the phrase **holding his breath** seems to modify the noun **camera**. In the second example, the noun or pronoun to be modified is missing from the sentence, and the phrase **running across the road** seems to modify the noun **hat**.

These example illustrate two basic types of dangling participle. In one type, the participle begins an adjectival phrase which is separated from the noun or pronoun to be modified by another noun or pronoun. In the other type, the participle begins an adjectival phrase that is meant to modify a noun or pronoun which in fact is not present in the sentence.

When an adjectival phrase is separated from the noun or pronoun to be modified by another

noun or pronoun, the sentence can be corrected by positioning the adjectival phrase next to the noun or pronoun to be modified. This can often be accomplished by moving the phrase from one end of the sentence to the other.

For instance, in the sentences below, the nouns to be modified and the phrases containing dangling participles are underlined.
e.g. The photographer focused the camera, holding his breath.
Working as quickly as possible, our car was repaired by a mechanic.
Lost for over thirty years, she was overjoyed to find the diaries.
In these examples, **holding his breath** seems to modify the noun **camera**, **working as quickly as possible** seems to modify the noun **car**, and **lost for over thirty years** seems to modify the pronoun **she**.

These sentences can be corrected as follows.
e.g. Holding his breath, the photographer focused the camera.
Our car was repaired by a mechanic, working as quickly as possible.
She was overjoyed to find the diaries, lost for over thirty years.
In the corrected sentences, the adjectival phrases are correctly positioned near the nouns to be modified.

See Exercise 17.

When an adjectival phrase is meant to modify a noun or pronoun which in fact is not present in the sentence, the sentence can be corrected by rewriting either the adjectival phrase or the rest of the sentence, so that the missing noun or pronoun is supplied. For instance, in the sentences below, the phrases containing dangling participles are underlined.
e.g. Running across the road, his hat blew off.
Sitting lost in thought, the book slipped from her hand.
Determined not to be late, our watches were set ten minutes fast.

These sentences can be corrected as follows. In the corrected sentences, the noun or pronoun which was missing from the original sentence is underlined. Two corrected versions are given for each of the preceding sentences.
e.g. As he ran across the road, his hat blew off.
Running across the road, he lost his hat.

As she sat lost in thought, the book slipped from her hand.
Sitting lost in thought, she let the book slip from her hand.

Because we were determined not to be late, our watches were set ten minutes fast.
Determined not to be late, we set our watches ten minutes fast.

In the first corrected version of each of the preceding sentences, the adjectival phrase has been changed to an adjectival clause containing the pronoun which was missing from the original sentence. Thus, the interpolated phrase **running across the road** has been changed to the subordinate clause **as he ran across the road**, the interpolated phrase **sitting lost in thought** has been changed to the subordinate clause **as she sat lost in thought**, and the interpolated phrase **determined not to be late** has been changed to the subordinate clause **because we were determined not to be late**.

In the second corrected version of each of the sentences, the main clause of the sentence has been rewritten so that the pronoun which was missing from the original sentence is positioned next to the adjectival phrase which is meant to modify the pronoun. Thus, whereas in the incorrect sentences, the underlined adjectival phrases seem to modify the adjacent nouns **hat**, **book** and **watches**; in the corrected sentences, the adjectival phrases correctly modify the pronouns **he**, **she** and **we**.

See Exercise 18.

d. Past participles which follow the verb To Be

In English, the verb **to be** followed by a past participle used as a predicate adjective has the same form as a verb in the Passive Voice. This feature of the language can result in ambiguity. For instance, the following examples each have more than one possible meaning.

e.g. The doors will be closed at nine o'clock.
The train was stopped at midnight.

In the first example, **will be closed** could be the Simple Future of the verb **to be**, followed by the predicate adjective **closed**. In this case, the sentence would have the meaning that at nine o'clock, the doors will not be open. On the other hand, **will be closed** could be the Simple Future Passive of the verb **to close**. In this case, the sentence would imply that at nine o'clock, someone will close the doors.

Similarly, in the second example, **was stopped** could be the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, followed by the predicate adjective **stopped**. In this case, the sentence would indicate that at midnight, the train was not moving. On the other hand, **was stopped** could be the Simple Past Passive of the verb **to stop**. In this case, the sentence would imply that at midnight, someone stopped the train.

See Exercise 19.

CHAPTER 22. ADJECTIVES USED IN COMPARISONS: PART 1

As well as being used to describe persons and things, adjectives which refer to qualities can also be used to compare two or more different persons or things. For instance, in the following sentences, the adjectives used in comparisons are underlined.

e.g. He is as tall as his brother.
She is older than her sister.
They are the youngest students in the class.

1. Positive forms of adjectives preceded and followed by As

The unaltered form of an adjective is often referred to as the **positive** form of the adjective. In the preceding chapter, only the positive form of adjectives was used.

The positive forms of adjectives referring to qualities can be used in making certain types of comparisons. For example, in the following sentences, the positive forms of the adjectives

proud and **intelligent** are combined with the word **as** in order to make comparisons.
e.g. She is <u>as proud as</u> a peacock.
They are <u>as intelligent as</u> I am.

When used in making comparisons, the positive form of an adjective is usually employed as a predicate adjective, preceded and followed by the word **as**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	+	**to be** or other linking verb	+	**as**	+	positive form of adjective	+	**as**	+	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
Swans		are		as		white		as		snow.
Tom		is		as		tall		as		his father.

This type of construction can be used to indicate that the things being compared are equal in some respect. For instance, the first example indicates that swans and snow are equally white. The second example indicates that Tom and his father are equally tall.

The sentence **She is as proud as a peacock** gives an example of a traditional English saying which compares a person having a certain quality to an animal which is noted for possessing that quality. In the following sentences, the traditional expressions are underlined.
e.g. He is <u>as clever as a monkey</u>.
She is <u>as wise as an owl</u>.
My sister looks <u>as pretty as a princess</u>.

The use of this construction with **as** to compare two different types of thing, such as a person and an animal, results in a type of comparison referred to as a **simile**.

See Exercise 1.

The meaning of an expression using **as**, followed by an adjective, followed by **as** can be qualified by adverbs such as **not**, **almost**, **twice**, **three times**, **half**, **one-third** and so on. The adverbs in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. He is <u>not</u> as hard-working as his brother.
She is <u>almost</u> as tall as he is.
Her sister is <u>twice</u> as old as I am.
A millimeter is <u>one-tenth</u> as long as a centimeter.

As shown below, in such a construction, the adverb is placed before the first occurrence of the word **as**.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	+	**to be** or other linking verb	+	<u>adverb</u>	+	**as**	+	positive form of adjective	+	**as**	+	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
He		is		<u>nearly</u>		as		clever		as		his uncle.
The trees		are		<u>not</u>		as		tall		as		the house.

See Exercise 2.

a. The positive form combined with a noun
The construction **as**, followed by an adjective, followed by **as** can also be combined with a noun, as shown in the following examples.
e.g. Gail is as strong a swimmer as Beth.
Mabel is as clever an administrator as Robin.
The girls are as good students as the boys.

In the first example, Gail is being compared as a swimmer to Beth. In the second example, Mabel is being compared as an administrator to Robin. In the third example, the girls are being compared as students to the boys.

As illustrated in these examples, if the noun following the adjective is a singular countable noun, it must be separated from the adjective by the indefinite article **a** or **an**. The position of **a** or **an** is indicated in the summary below.

	as +	positive form of adjective +	**a** or **an** +	noun +	**as**	
He is	as	fine	a	man	as	his father.
She is	as	good	an	instructor	as	her colleague.

In the case of plural nouns, no article is required.
e.g. The boys are as reliable workers as one can find.
They are as powerful athletes as their competitors.

See Exercise 3.

b. The use of ellipsis
The construction **as** followed by an adjective, followed by **as**, can also be combined with longer phrases and clauses, as illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. New York is as distant from San Francisco as Boston is from London.
Music is as important to Cora as literature is to her brother.

In the first example, the distance of New York from San Francisco is being compared to the distance of Boston from London. In the second example, the importance of music to Cora is being compared to the importance of literature to her brother.

The preceding examples illustrate the use of ellipsis. The sentences could also be written as follows. The words which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. New York is as distant from San Francisco as Boston is [distant] from London.
Music is as important to Cora as literature is [important] to her brother.
In such sentences, the adjective in the second part of the sentence is usually omitted, in order to make the sentence less awkward.

Ellipsis is also commonly used following a noun representing the second thing being

compared. For instance, in the following sentences, the final verbs are omitted.
e.g. He is as tall as his brother.
I am as good a swimmer as her sisters.

These sentences could also be written:
e.g. He is as tall as his brother is.
I am as good a swimmer as her sisters are.

In informal English, the final verb is usually not omitted following a personal pronoun representing the second thing being compared.
e.g. I am as tall as he is.
She is as good a swimmer as I am.

However, in formal English, the final verb following a personal pronoun representing the second thing being compared is sometimes omitted.
e.g. I am as tall as he.
She is as good a swimmer as I.

c. The use of the subjective case
As shown above, when a personal pronoun is used in a comparison to represent the second thing being compared, the subjective case of the pronoun should be used. The reason for this is that the pronoun is the subject of a verb, even when the verb is omitted by means of ellipsis.

In informal English, the objective case of such personal pronouns is sometimes used.
e.g. I am as tall as him.
She is as good as swimmer as me.
However, this use of the objective case is considered to be grammatically incorrect.

See Exercise 4.

2. Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives which use endings

As pointed out in the discussion on the possessive forms of nouns, some elements of English grammar are derived from Teutonic languages, such as German, while other elements are derived from Romance languages, particularly French.

Many English adjectives follow the model of French adjectives. These adjectives are combined with adverbs in order to express different types of comparison. In the following examples, the adjectives **careful** and **excitable** are combined with the adverbs **more** and **most**.
e.g. She is more careful than I am.
He is the most excitable boy in the class.

However, in general, the shortest and most commonly used English adjectives follow the model of languages such as German. These adjectives use endings in order to express different types of comparison.
e.g. She is taller than I am.
He is the oldest boy in the class.

The adjectives which use endings in order to express different types of comparison include most one-syllable adjectives, and two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**. For example:

brave
tall
easy
happy

In the above examples, **brave** and **tall** are one-syllable adjectives, while **easy** and **happy** are two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**.

A few other two-syllable adjectives are also sometimes used with endings. For example:

able
simple
clever
quiet
narrow
shallow

It should be noted that one-syllable past participles used as adjectives are usually not used with endings.

a. Comparative forms of adjectives which use endings

The comparative form of an adjective is most often used to compare things which differ in some respect. In the following examples, the comparative forms of adjectives are underlined.

e.g. Louis is <u>younger</u> than Mark.
You are a <u>better</u> actor than he is.

The comparative form of adjectives which use endings is formed with the ending **er**. As illustrated below, the spelling rules which apply when adding the ending **er** to an adjective are the same as those which apply when adding the ending **ed** to a verb.

i. Spelling Rules

In most cases, the ending **er** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**
fast	faster
strong	stronger
tall	taller
young	younger

However, when an adjective ends in a silent **e**, the silent **e** is dropped before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**
brave	braver
close	closer
late	later

When an adjective ends in **y** preceded by a consonant, the **y** is changed to **i** before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**
dry	drier
early	earlier
easy	easier

When an adjective ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y**, following a single stressed vowel, the final consonant is doubled before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**
big	bigger
hot	hotter
sad	sadder

When an adjective ends in **w**, **x** or **y**, following a single stressed vowel, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**
slow	slower
lax	laxer
grey	greyer

It should be kept in mind that when an adjective ends in a single consonant following two vowels, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**
loud	louder
neat	neater
soon	sooner

See Exercise 5.

ii. Irregular adjectives

A few of the adjectives which are used with endings have irregular comparative forms. The comparative forms of the irregular English adjectives are as follows.

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**
bad	worse
far	farther **or** further
good	better
little	less
many	more
much	more

As shown above, the adjective **far** has two comparative forms. The distinction is sometimes made that **farther** is used to refer to physical distances, while **further** is used to refer to

figurative distances. For example:

The farther side of the river is more picturesque than this side.

Nothing could have been further from my mind.

It should be noted that the adjectives **many** and **much** both have the same comparative form, **more**.

See Exercise 6.

iii. The comparative form followed by Than

When used in comparisons, the comparative forms of adjectives are usually followed by the word **than**. For instance, the way in which two things differ in some respect can be expressed by using the comparative form of an adjective as a predicate adjective followed by **than**.

e.g. Paul is wiser than Greg.

The tree is taller than the house.

The first sentence indicates that Paul possesses greater wisdom than Greg. The second sentence indicates that the tree possesses greater height than the house.

This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	+	**to be** or other linking verb	+	comparative form of adjective	+	**than**	+	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
Jill		is		shorter		than		Maureen.
Ice		feels		colder		than		snow.
Driving a car		is		easier		than		riding a horse.

See Exercise 7.

iv. The comparative form followed by a noun, followed by Than

The comparative form of an adjective followed by **than** can also be combined with a noun.

e.g. She is a better cook than her sister.

He has wiser ideas than they do.

It should be noted that in this type of construction, when a singular countable noun is used after the adjective, the comparative form of the adjective follows the indefinite article **a** or **an**. This position of **a** or **an** is indicated in the summary below.

	verb	+	**a** or **an**	+	comparative form of adjective	+	noun	+	**than**	
Kate	is		a		braver		person		than	you are.
Steel	is		a		stronger		material		than	iron.
He	has		a		busier		schedule		than	I do.

It should be noted that this position of **a** or **an** is in contrast to the word order found in the construction with **as**. For instance, in the following examples, the adjectives are underlined

and the indefinite article **a** is printed in bold type.
e.g. Kate is as brave **a** person as Robin.
Kate is **a** braver person than I am.

In the case of nouns which are uncountable or plural, no article is required. In the following examples, the uncountable or plural nouns preceding the word **than** are underlined.
e.g. We produce sweeter honey than they do.
They are better actors than we are.
She has warmer gloves than her friend does.

See Exercise 8.

The comparative form of an adjective followed by **than** can also be combined with longer phrases and clauses, as illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. The air is fresher in the mountains **than** in the valleys.
The work seems easier once one becomes familiar with it **than** it does at first.

v. The use of ellipsis
In comparisons using the comparative form of an adjective, the second half of the comparison is often omitted completely, when it is considered obvious what is meant. In each of the following examples, the part of the comparison which might normally be omitted is enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. Things could get worse [than they are now].
I do not want to walk much further [than this].
Would you like more milk [than you already have]?

vi. The use of the subjective case
In comparisons using **than**, personal pronouns following **than** should be in the subjective case.
e.g. I am taller than he is.
She is a better student than I am.

In formal English, the final verb of such sentences is sometimes omitted.
e.g. I am taller than he.
She is a better student than I.

In informal English, the objective case of a personal pronoun is often used after **than**.
e.g. I am taller than him.
She is a better student than me.
However, this use of the objective case is considered to be grammatically incorrect.

See Exercise 9.

vii. Progressive comparisons
As well as being used in combination with **than** to compare objects which differ in some respect, the comparative form of an adjective can also be used to describe a characteristic which is becoming progressively more pronounced.
e.g. The waves are growing rougher and rougher.
The sounds became fainter and fainter.

The first example indicates that the waves are growing progressively rougher than they were before. The second example indicates that the sounds became progressively fainter than they were before. The meaning expressed in these two examples can also be expressed as follows.
e.g. The waves are growing increasingly rough.
The sounds became increasingly faint.

In this type of construction, the comparative form of an adjective is used as a predicate adjective, and is repeated. The two occurrences of the adjective are connected by the word **and**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing thing being described	+	linking verb, such as **to grow** or **to become**	+	comparative form of adjective	+	**and**	+	comparative form of adjective
The noise		is becoming		louder		and		louder.
The lights		grew		brighter		and		brighter.

In informal English, the verb **to get** is often used in this type of construction.
e.g. The noise is getting louder and louder.
The lights got brighter and brighter.

See Exercise 10.

b. Superlative forms of adjectives which use endings
The superlative form of an adjective is used to describe something which possesses a characteristic in the greatest degree. In the following examples, the superlative forms of the adjectives are underlined.
e.g. Louis is the youngest boy in our class.
She is the best actress I have ever seen.

i. Spelling rules
The superlative form of adjectives which use endings is formed with the ending **est**. As illustrated in the following table, the spelling rules for adding the ending **est** to the positive form of an adjective are the same as those which apply when adding the ending **er**.

Illustration of Spelling Rules for Adjectives which use Endings

Final Letter(s) of Positive Form of Adjective	**Positive Form**	**Comparative Form**	**Superlative Form**
two consonants (other than **y**)	fast	faster	fastest
y preceded by a consonant	dry	drier	driest
silent **e**	brave	braver	bravest
one consonant preceded by 2 vowels	loud	louder	loudest
w, **x** or **y** preceded by a vowel	new	newer	newest
one consonant (other than **w**, **x** or **y**), preceded by a single stressed vowel	fat	fatter	fattest

See Exercise 11.

ii. Irregular adjectives
As can be seen from the following table, the superlative forms of the English irregular adjectives are closely related to the comparative forms of these adjectives.

English Irregular Adjectives

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
bad	worse	worst
far	farther **or** further	farthest **or** furthest
good	better	best
little	less	least
many	more	most
much	more	most

It should be noted that the adjective **far** has two superlative forms, **farthest** and **furthest**, corresponding to the two comparative forms **farther** and **further**; and also that the adjectives **many** and **much** share the same superlative form, **most**, corresponding to the comparative form **more**.

See Exercise 12.

iii. The superlative form preceded by The
The superlative forms of adjectives are usually preceded by **the**, and followed by the nouns they modify. For example, in the following sentences, the superlative forms **tallest** and **fastest** are preceded by **the** and followed by the nouns **boy** and **runner**.
e.g. Frank is the tallest boy in the class.
Nancy is the fastest runner on the team.
The first example indicates that no other boy in the class is as tall as Frank. The second example indicates that no one else on the team is as fast a runner as Nancy.

This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	the +	superlative form of adjective +	noun	
This is	the	newest	building	in the city.
They are	the	best	students	I have met.

It should be noted that this use of **the** is consistent with the previously discussed use of **the** to refer to things which are considered unique in some way.

See Exercises 13 and 14.

It should also be noted that the superlative forms of adjectives can be preceded by possessive adjectives, instead of by the definite article **the**. In the following examples, the possessive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. My worst suspicions were aroused.
He promised to give it his closest attention.
Jack's best friend is a member of the hockey team.

iv. The use of ellipsis
When the superlative forms of adjectives are employed to make comparisons, ellipsis is commonly used in the second part of the comparisons. The following are examples of the use of ellipsis in this type of comparison.
e.g. She is the best doctor I know.
This is the worst thing that could have happened.

These two sentences could also be written as follows. The words which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. She is the best doctor [of all the doctors that] I know.
This is the worst thing [of all the things] that could have happened.

It should be noted that the noun following the superlative form of an adjective is often omitted, when it is obvious what is meant. This is illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. That star is the brightest.
These cookies are the best.

These sentences could also be written as follows. The nouns which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. That star is the brightest [star].
These cookies are the best [cookies].

v. The comparison of one or more things with a group
When one or more things are compared with a group to which they do not belong, the comparative form of an adjective is normally used.
e.g. Alan is younger than all the other boys in the class.
In this example, Alan is being compared with all the **other** boys in the class. Thus, he is being compared with a group to which he does not belong, and the comparative form **younger** is used.

In general, the presence of the word **other** in the second half of a comparison usually indicates that one or more things are being compared with a group to which they do not belong.

In contrast, when one or more things are compared with members of a group to which they belong, the superlative form of an adjective is normally used.
e.g. Alan is the youngest of all the boys in the class.
In this example, Alan is being compared with members of the group identified as **all the boys** in the class. This is a group to which he belongs. Therefore, the superlative form **youngest** is used.

The following examples provide a further illustration of the difference between the two types of comparison.
e.g. The girls are neater than the boys.
The girls are the best students in the school.

In the first example, the girls are being compared with **the boys**, a group to which they do not belong. Therefore, the comparative form **neater** is used.

In the second example, the girls are being compared with members of a group consisting of all

the students in the school, a group to which the girls belong. Therefore, the superlative form **best** is used.

CHAPTER 23. ADJECTIVES USED IN COMPARISONS: PART 2

1. Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives which do not use endings

Adjectives which follow the model of the French language do not use the endings **er** and **est**. Instead, the adjectives are preceded by the adverbs **more** and **most**.

a. Comparative forms: The use of More

The comparative form of an adjective which does not take endings is formed by placing the word **more** before the positive form of the adjective.

e.g. She is more intelligent than her sister.
He is more determined than his brother.

In these examples, the comparative forms of the adjectives **intelligent** and **determined** have been formed by placing the word **more** before the positive forms of the adjectives.

See Exercise 1.

With the exception of two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**, most adjectives of more than one syllable form the comparative with the adverb **more**.

In addition, a few one-syllable adjectives, including one-syllable past participles used as adjectives, form the comparative with the adverb **more**.

e.g. This nail is more bent than that one.
He is more skilled than his brother.
She is more spoiled than her cousin.

The following table summarizes the formation of the comparative forms of English adjectives.

The Comparative forms of English Adjectives

Adjectives which take Endings	Adjectives used with More
Most one-syllable adjectives, e.g. strong, stronger	A few one-syllable adjectives, e.g. bent, more bent
Two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**, e.g. easy, easier, and a few other two-syllable adjectives, e.g. quiet, quieter	Most adjectives of more than one syllable, e.g. graceful, more graceful

i. The comparative form followed by Than

Adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** are used in the same constructions as adjectives which form the comparative with the ending **er**.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of comparative form followed by **than**.

e.g. Tom is wiser **than** Ned.
Tom is more intelligent **than** Ned.

Parchment is stronger **than** paper.
Parchment is more durable **than** paper.

See Exercise 2.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of comparative form followed by a noun, followed by **than**.
e.g. Kirby is a finer musician **than** Tim.
Kirby is a more confident musician **than** Tim.

Rubber is a tougher material **than** leather.
Rubber is a more waterproof material **than** leather.

She has better tools **than** we do.
She has more expensive tools **than** we do.

See Exercise 3.

ii. Progressive comparisons
Like adjectives which take endings, adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** can be used in progressive comparisons.

In the case of an adjective which takes endings, the comparative form of the adjective is repeated in a progressive comparison. However, in the case of an adjective which forms the comparative with **more**, only the word **more** is repeated. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing thing being described	+	linking verb, such as **to grow** or **to become**	+	**more**	+	**and**	+	**more**	+	positive form of adjective
The park		is becoming		more		and		more		beautiful.
The horses		grew		more		and		more		restless.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of comparative form in progressive comparisons.
e.g. Tom became angrier and angrier.
Tom became more and more anxious.

The stars grew brighter and brighter.
The stars grew more and more brilliant.

See Exercise 4.

b. The use of Less
Adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** may also be used in a similar

way with the adverb **less**. **Less** and **more** have opposite meanings.

i. The construction Less ... Than
The following examples illustrate the use of adjectives preceded by **less** and followed by **than**.
e.g. Arnold is less confident **than** Charles is.
The red bicycle is less expensive **than** the blue one.
The first example indicates that Arnold possesses a smaller degree of confidence than Charles does. The second example indicates that the red bicycle has a lower cost than the blue one.

See Exercise 5.

The following examples illustrate the use of adjectives preceded by **less**, and followed by a noun, followed by **than**.
e.g. He is a less well-known performer **than** his brother is.
They found themselves in a less fortunate situation **than** they had expected.
In these examples, the adjectives **well-known** and **fortunate** are followed by the nouns **performer** and **situation**.

ii. The construction Not As ... As
In informal English, the following construction is often used:

	not as	+	positive form of adjective	+	**as**	
e.g. He is	not as		reliable		as	his brother.

For adjectives which form the comparative with **more**, either the construction **less ... than** or the construction **not as ... as** may be used. The construction **not as ... as** is somewhat less formal than the construction **less ... than**.

For instance, the two sentences in each of the following pairs have the same meaning.
e.g. Formal: The red bicycle is less expensive **than** the blue one.
Informal: The red bicycle is **not as** expensive **as** the blue one.

Formal: Arnold is less confident **than** Charles is.
Informal: Arnold is **not as** confident **as** Charles is.

For adjectives which form the comparative with the ending **er**, either the construction **not as ... as**, or the comparative form of an adjective of opposite meaning may be used.

For instance, the two sentences in each of the following pairs have similar meanings.
e.g. This chair is **not as** soft **as** that one.
This chair is harder **than** that one.

He is **not as** old **as** his sister.
He is younger **than** his sister.

iii. The construction Less and Less
Both adjectives which take endings and adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** can be used with the idiom **less and less**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing thing being described	+	linking verb, such as **to grow** or **to become**	+	**less**	+	**and**	+	**less**	+	positive form of adjective
The water		is becoming		less		and		less		rough.
The situation		grew		less		and		less		predictable.

The meaning of these two examples can also be expressed as follows:
e.g. The water is becoming decreasingly rough.
The situation grew decreasingly predictable.

See Exercise 6.

It should be noted that an adjective in a progressive comparison does not express exactly the same meaning as an adjective of opposite meaning used with the idiom **less and less**.

For instance, the following two sentences have somewhat different meanings.
e.g. The water is becoming less and less rough.
The water is becoming calmer and calmer.

The adjectives **rough** and **calm** have opposite meanings. The first example implies that the water is still quite rough, but that it is becoming decreasingly rough. The second example implies that the water is already quite calm, but that it is becoming increasingly calm.

c. Superlative Forms
As illustrated in the following table, the superlative form of adjectives which do not use endings is formed by placing the word **most** before the positive form of the adjective.

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**	**Superlative Form**
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
dangerous	more dangerous	most dangerous
intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent
interesting	more interesting	most interesting

For example:
She is the most intelligent child in the family.
This is the most interesting book I have ever read.

Adjectives which form the superlative with the adverb **most** are used in the same constructions as adjectives which form the superlative with the ending **est**.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of superlative form preceded by the word **the** and followed by a noun.
e.g. Quebec is one of **the** oldest cities in Canada.
Quebec is one of **the** most attractive cities in Canada.

This is **the** hardest question on the test.
This is **the** most difficult question on the test.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of superlative form preceded by a possessive adjective and followed by a noun.
e.g. This is **his** newest invention.
This is **his** most recent invention.

She is **my** closest friend.
She is **my** most trusted friend.

See Exercise 7.

Adjectives which form the superlative with the adverb **most** may also be used in a similar way with the adverb **least**. **Least** and **most** have opposite meanings.
e.g. This is **the** least interesting book I have ever read.
This is **the** least difficult question on the test.

2. The adjectives Many, Much, Few and Little used to compare quantities

a. The use of Many, Much, Few and Little with countable and uncountable nouns

The adjectives **many** and **much** have the same meaning, except that **many** is used with plural countable nouns, and **much** is used with uncountable nouns.
e.g. He has written many books.
How much snow has fallen?
In these examples, **books** is a plural countable noun modified by **many**, and **snow** is an uncountable noun modified by **much**.

As pointed out in the previous chapter, the two adjectives **many** and **much** have the same comparative form, **more**, and the same superlative form, **most**. **More** and **most** can be used to modify both countable and uncountable nouns.

Similarly, the adjectives **few** and **little** have the same meaning, except that **few** is used with plural countable nouns, and **little** is used with uncountable nouns.
e.g. I made few mistakes.
They have little hope of success.
In these examples, **mistakes** is a plural countable noun modified by **few**, and **hope** is an uncountable noun modified by **little**.

The comparative and superlative forms of **few** and **little** follow the same rules as the positive forms. Thus, the adjectives **fewer** and **fewest** are used to modify plural countable nouns, and the adjectives **less** and **least** are used to modify uncountable nouns.
e.g. This recipe requires fewer eggs **than** that recipe.
This street has less traffic **than** that street.

This recipe requires **the** fewest eggs.
This street has **the** least traffic.

In these examples **eggs** is a plural countable noun modified by **fewer** and **fewest**, and **traffic** is an uncountable noun modified by **less** and **least**.

The use of these adjectives with countable and uncountable nouns is summarized below. The adjectives in the left-hand column are used to compare quantities of things which can be counted, while those in the right-hand column are used to compare amounts of things which are considered as substances.

Used with Countable Nouns	**Used with Uncountable Nouns**
many	much
more	more
most	most
few	little
fewer	less
fewest	least

See Exercise 8.

b. Synonyms for Many and Much

In questions and negative statements, the adjectives **many** and **much** are commonly used in both formal and informal English.

e.g. Question: How many museums have you visited?
Negative Statement: He does not have much confidence.

In affirmative statements, the adjectives **many** and **much** are commonly used in combination with words such as **as**, **so** and **too**.

e.g. I have read twice as many books as you have.
He has so much money he can buy whatever he likes.
There are too many possibilities to consider.

However, in affirmative statements not containing words such as **as**, **so** and **too**, the adjective **much** is rarely used in either formal or informal English, and the adjective **many** is rarely used in informal English. Instead, synonyms are used.

The phrases **a great deal of**, **a lot of**, and **lots of** are used as synonyms for **much**. The phrase **a great deal of** may be used in formal English, and the phrases **a lot of** and **lots of** may be used in informal English. The phrase **lots of** is more informal than the phrase **a lot of**.

e.g. Formal: He has a great deal of confidence.
Informal: He has a lot of confidence.
More Informal: He has lots of confidence.

In informal English, the phrases **a lot of** and **lots of** are used as synonyms for **many**. The phrase **lots of** is more informal than the phrase **a lot of**.

e.g. Formal: There are many possibilities.
Informal: There are a lot of possibilities.
More Informal: There are lots of possibilities.

c. Positive forms used in comparisons
In order to indicate that the things being compared are equal in some respect, the positive forms **many**, **much**, **few** and **little** can be used as follows:

	as +	positive form +	noun +	**as**	
e.g. She has	as	many	brothers	as	sisters.
He has	as	much	courage	as	you do.
They take	as	few	risks	as	possible.
He knows	as	little	English	as	they do.

It is possible to modify such expressions by placing an adverb before the first occurrence of **as**, as illustrated below.

	adverb +	**as** +	positive form +	noun +	**as**	
e.g. She has	twice	as	many	brothers	as	sisters.
He has	nearly	as	much	courage	as	you do.
He knows	almost	as	little	English	as	they do.

See Exercise 9.

The positive forms **many**, **much**, **few** and **little** can also be combined with expressions referring to a quantity of something. This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	as +	positive form +	**as** +	expression indicating a quantity of something
The course includes	as	many	as	ten tests.
Yesterday he drank	as	much	as	three liters of milk.
The game requires	as	few	as	two players.
The magazines cost	as	little	as	fifteen cents.

It should be noted that when a noun names a unit of currency or a unit of measurement, the amount referred to is usually considered as a whole. When this is the case, the noun acts as an uncountable noun, in that it may be modified by the adjectives **much**, **little** and **less**.

For instance, in the examples:
Yesterday he drank as much as three **liters** of milk.
The magazines cost as little as fifteen **cents**.
the noun **liters** names a unit of measurement, and the noun **cents** names a unit of currency. Since the amounts referred to are each considered as a whole, the adjectives **much** and **little** are used.

Likewise, in the following examples, the noun **dollars** names a unit of currency, and the nouns **ounces** and **degrees** name units of measurement.

e.g. We saved as much as fifteen **dollars**.
The kittens weighed as little as three **ounces** each.
The temperature this morning was less than five **degrees**.
In these examples, the nouns printed in bold type refer to amounts considered as a whole, and the adjectives **much**, **little** and **less** are used.

d. Comparative forms used in comparisons
The comparative forms **more**, **fewer** and **less** are often employed in comparisons using the following construction:

	comparative form +	noun +	**than**	
e.g. I bought	more	apples	than	I needed.
We eat	more	rice	than	they do.
The class has	fewer	boys	than	girls.
They ate	less	cake	than	we did.

This type of construction can also be combined with phrases or clauses. When two phrases or clauses are used to distinguish the things being compared, the word **than** may be placed before the second phrase or clause.
e.g. There is more wood in the park **than** on the island.
We have more fun when we go out **than** when we stay at home.

In the first example two locations are distinguished by the phrases **in the park** and **on the island**, and the second phrase, **on the island**, is preceded by the word **than**. In the second example two situations are distinguished by the clauses **when we go out** and **when we stay at home**, and the second clause, **when we stay at home**, is preceded by the word **than**.

See Exercise 10.

The comparative forms **more**, **fewer** and **less** can also be used in comparisons referring to a quantity of something. The type of construction used is summarized below, followed by examples.

	comparative form +	**than** +	expression indicating a quantity of something
The bicycle costs	more	than	twenty dollars.
The class has	fewer	than	ten students.
The book costs	less	than	five dollars.

In addition, the comparative forms **more**, **fewer** and **less** can be combined with nouns to form comparisons similar to progressive comparisons. The type of construction used is summarized below, followed by examples.

	comparative form +	**and** +	comparative form +	noun
The baby is drinking	more	and	more	milk.
The student made	fewer	and	fewer	mistakes.

The boy is spending	less	and	less	money.

The first example indicates that the baby is drinking an increasing quantity of milk. The second example indicates that the student made a decreasing number of mistakes. The third example indicates that the boy is spending a decreasing amount of money.

See Exercise 11.

e. Superlative forms used in comparisons
The superlative forms **most**, **fewest** and **least** can be used in the following construction:

	the +	superlative + form	noun
e.g. She scored	the	most	points.
He made	the	fewest	mistakes.
This room has	the	least	furniture.

3. The adjectives Similar, Different and Same used in comparisons

The idioms **similar to**, **different from** and **the same as** can each be used in the following construction:

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared +	**to be** or other linking verb +	**different from**, **similar to**, or **the same as** +	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
e.g. Her bicycle	looks	similar to	mine.
The result	was	different from	what I had expected.
His timetable	is	the same as	yours.

See Exercise 12.

The adjective **similar** followed by the preposition **to** can be used in comparing things which have characteristics in common.
e.g. The landscape of Maine is similar to that of Scandinavia.
His background is similar to yours.

The adjective **different** followed by the preposition **from** can be used in comparing things which have differing characteristics.
e.g. His ideas are different from mine.
Fish that live in the ocean are different from fish that live in rivers and lakes.

The verb **differ** followed by the preposition **from** can also be used in comparing things which have differing characteristics.
e.g. His ideas differ from mine.

Fish that live in the ocean differ from fish that live in rivers and lakes.

The phrase **the same** followed by **as** can be used in comparing things which are identical in some respect.
e.g. Your shoes look the same as mine.
The temperature of the water is the same as the temperature of the air.

It should be noted that the phrase **the same** can also be followed by a noun or other expression, as indicated below:

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	+	verb	+	**the same**	+	expression stating what aspect is being compared	+	**as**	+	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
e.g. My coat		is		the same		color		as		hers.
She		has		the same		postal code		as		you do.

If desired, adverbs may be used before the expressions **similar to**, **different from** and **the same**, in order to modify these types of comparisons. The adverbs in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. Her bicycle looks quite similar to mine.
The result was somewhat different from what I had expected.
His timetable is almost the same as yours.
My coat is nearly the same color as hers.

It is also possible for the expressions **similar**, **different** and **the same** to be used at the end of a sentence. This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

expression representing the objects being compared	+	linking verb	+	**different**, **similar** or **the same**
The flavors of strawberries and kiwi fruit		are		similar.
My conclusion and your conclusion		are		different.
The two sweaters		look		the same.

See Exercise 13.

4. Making logical comparisons

If complex sentences containing phrases or clauses are used to make comparisons, care must be taken, particularly in formal English, to ensure that the comparisons are logical and that the appropriate objects are in fact being compared.

For example, the following sentence is logically incorrect, because it compares **life in the country** to **the city**.
e.g. Life in the country is different from the city.

In order to be logically correct, the sentence must be changed so that similar types of things are being compared.
e.g. Life in the country is different from life in the city.
This sentence is logically correct, since it compares **life in the country** to **life in the city**.

Similarly, the following sentence is logically incorrect, because it compares **the vowel sounds of English** to **Spanish**.
e.g. The vowel sounds of English are more numerous than Spanish.

In order to be logically correct, the sentence must be changed so that similar types of things are being compared. Thus, the sentence may be corrected as follows:
e.g. The vowel sounds of English are more numerous than the vowel sounds of Spanish.

See Exercise 14.

In such sentences, the noun or phrase which is repeated in the second part of the comparison may be replaced by **that** or **those**. **That** is used if the noun being replaced is singular, and **those** is used if the noun being replaced is plural.
e.g. Life in the country is different from that in the city.
The vowel sounds of English are more numerous than those of Spanish.

In the first example, **that** is used to replace the singular noun **life**. In the second example, **those** is used to replace the phrase **the vowel sounds**. The form **those** must be used, since the noun **sounds** is plural.

See Exercise 15.

CHAPTER 24. ADVERBS: POSITION IN A SENTENCE

Words which are used to modify verbs or adjectives are usually referred to as **adverbs**. For instance, the adverbs in the following sentences are printed in bold type, and the words they modify are underlined.
e.g. I **often** visit the library.
It is **surprisingly** hot today.
In the first example, the adverb **often** modifies the verb **visit**. In the second example, the adverb **surprisingly** modifies the adjective **hot**.

Words which are used to modify adverbs can also be referred to as **adverbs**.
e.g. The train travels **very** quickly.
In this example, the adverb **very** modifies the adverb **quickly**.

1. Adverbs which modify adjectives and other adverbs

Adverbs which modify adjectives or other adverbs usually immediately precede the words they modify.
e.g. The package is **extremely** large.
We experienced **relatively** few difficulties.
Buses depart **quite** regularly.
In these examples, the underlined adverbs immediately precede the words they modify. **Extremely** modifies the adjective **large**, relatively modifies the adjective **few**, and **quite** modifies the adverb **regularly**.

The adverbs **ago** and **enough** are exceptional, since they usually follow the adjectives or adverbs they modify.
e.g. That happened long **ago**.
He is old **enough** to make his own decisions.
We ran fast **enough** to catch the bus.
In these examples, the adverbs **ago** and **enough** follow the words they modify. **Ago** modifies the adverb **long**, and **enough** modifies the adjective **old** and the adverb **fast**.

It should be noted that in modern English, when **enough** is used as an adjective modifying a noun, it precedes the noun. For instance, in the following example, the adjective **enough** precedes the noun **apples**.
e.g. Do we have **enough** apples to make a pie?

However, when **ago** is used with a noun, it follows the noun. For instance, in the following example, **ago** follows the noun **months**.
e.g. That happened six months **ago**.
The reason for this may be found in the history of the word. **Ago**, formerly spelled **agone**, was originally a past participle.

a. Intensifiers
An adverb which is used to modify adjectives and adverbs, but which is not usually used to modify verbs, can be referred to as an **intensifier**. In the following examples, the intensifiers are printed in bold type.
e.g. I am **very** happy.
The film was **quite** good.
You did that **rather** well.
Must you leave **so** soon?
In these examples, **very** modifies the adjective **happy**, **quite** modifies the adjective **good**, **rather** modifies the adverb **well**, and **so** modifies the adverb **soon**.

The following words are commonly used as intensifiers:

fairly
quite
rather
so
too
very

In addition, the word **really** is often used as an intensifier in informal English.

e.g. The film was **really** good.
You did that **really** well.

2. Adverbs which modify verbs

The following table gives examples of six different types of adverb which can be used to modify verbs.

Adverbs of Frequency	Adverbs of Manner	Adverbs of Location	Adverbs of Time	Connecting Adverbs	Negative Adverbs
always	carefully	ahead	again	also	barely
ever	correctly	back	early	consequently	hardly
frequently	eagerly	forward	late	furthermore	little
generally	easily	here	now	hence	never
never	fast	high	sometime	however	not
often	loudly	low	then	moreover	nowhere
rarely	patiently	near	today	nevertheless	rarely
seldom	quickly	outside	tomorrow	otherwise	scarcely
sometimes	quietly	somewhere	tonight	therefore	seldom
usually	well	there	yesterday	thus	

a. Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency answer the question **How often?**

An adverb which modifies a verb may occupy one of three main positions in a clause. These positions may be referred to as the beginning position, the middle position, and the end position. Adverbs of frequency may occupy any of these positions. In the following examples, the adverbs of frequency are printed in bold type.

An adverb in the beginning position is located at the beginning of a clause. For example:
Often the wind blows less strongly at night.
In this example, the adverb of frequency **often** is located at the beginning of the clause.

Most adverbs can occupy the beginning position in a clause. The use of this position tends to emphasize the adverb.

An adverb in the end position occurs after an intransitive verb, or after the direct object of a transitive verb.
e.g. He speaks **seldom**.
I visit her **frequently**.
In the first example, **seldom** follows the intransitive verb **speaks**. In the second example, **frequently** follows the direct object **her** of the transitive verb **visit**.

Usually only one adverb at a time can occupy the beginning position or the middle position in a clause. However, more than one adverb at a time can occupy the end position in a clause.

When more than one adverb occurs in the end position, the different types of adverb are usually placed in a certain order. For instance, in the end position, adverbs of frequency

usually follow adverbs of manner and adverbs of location, and precede adverbs of time and adverbs of purpose.

Adverbs of frequency which consist of single words most often occupy the middle position of a clause. The location of adverbs in the middle position varies depending on the type of verb used. Adverbs in the middle position occupy the locations indicated below:

1) They follow the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**.
2) They precede the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**.
3) They follow the first auxiliary, in tenses which have auxiliaries.
4) They precede the first auxiliary, or the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, in short answers.

The following examples illustrate the use of adverbs of frequency in the middle position of a clause. The relevant verbs are underlined.
1) We are **always** on time.
2) He **rarely** makes a mistake.
3) I have **often** wondered about that.
4) Have you seen this movie before? No, I **never** have.
In the preceding examples, **always** follows **are**, the Simple Present of the verb **to be**; **rarely** precedes **makes**, the Simple Present of a verb other than the verb **to be**; **often** follows the first auxiliary **have** of the verb **have wondered**; and **never** precedes the auxiliary **have** in the short answer **I never have**.

See Exercise 1.

In negative statements, and negative questions with **not**, adverbs in the middle position of a clause usually follow the word **not**.
e.g. Negative Statement: They do not **often** miss the bus.
Question with **Not**: Does he not **usually** know the answers?
In these examples, the adverbs **often** and **usually** follow the word **not**.

In affirmative questions, and negative questions with **n't**, adverbs in the middle position of a clause usually follow the subject of the clause. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. Affirmative Question: Is it **always** this cold in February?
Question with **n't**: Doesn't he **usually** know the answers?
In the first example, the adverb **always** follows the subject **it**. In the second example, the adverb **usually** follows the subject **he**.

It should be noted that the adverbs **daily**, **weekly**, **monthly**, **yearly** and **annually** usually do not occupy the middle position of a clause.

See Exercise 2.

Verbs may be modified not only by single-word adverbs, but also by adverb phrases and clauses. Like adverbs of frequency, adverb phrases and clauses of frequency answer the question **How often?**

Adverb phrases and clauses of frequency usually occupy either the beginning or end position

of a clause.
e.g. Once in a while, I like to try something new.
We visited the museum as often as we could.
In the first example, the adverb phrase of frequency **once in a while** occupies the beginning position of the clause **I like to try something new**. In the second example, the adverb clause of frequency **as often as we could** occupies the end position of the clause **We visited the museum**.

It should be noted that except in the case of commonly used adverbs such as **now**, **then** , **today**, **tomorrow**, **sometimes**, **usually**, **maybe** and **perhaps**, adverbs and adverb phrases at the beginning of a clause must usually be followed by commas. In the following examples, the commas are underlined.
e.g. Unfortunately, it began to rain.
As often as possible, we went outside for a walk.

b. Adverbs of time
Adverbs of time answer the question **When?**

Adverbs of time usually occupy either the beginning position or the end position of a clause. In the following examples, the adverbs of time are printed in bold type.
e.g. **Today** I will go to the library.
I will go to the post office **tomorrow**.
In the first example, **today** occupies the beginning position of a clause. In the second example, **tomorrow** occupies the end position of a clause.

In the end position, adverbs of time usually follow adverbs of manner and adverbs of location.

With a few exceptions, such as **now**, **then** and **once**, most adverbs of time may not occupy the middle position of a clause.

The adverbs **now**, **then** and **once** may occupy any of the three positions in a clause. For instance, in the following examples, **now** occupies the first position, the middle position, and the end position of a clause.
e.g. **Now** it is time to leave.
It is **now** time to leave.
It is time to leave **now**.

It should be noted that **sometimes** is an adverb of frequency, whereas **sometime** is an adverb of time.
e.g. I **sometimes** see him in the park.
I would like to read that book **sometime**.
In the first example, the adverb of frequency **sometimes** occupies the middle position of a clause. In the second example, the adverb of time **sometime** occupies the end position of a clause.

Adverb phrases and clauses of time usually occupy either the beginning or end position of a clause.
e.g. At nine o'clock, the train will leave.
I will call you when I am ready.
In the first example, the adverb phrase **at nine o'clock** occupies the beginning position of the

clause **the train will leave**. In the second example, the adverb clause **when I am ready** occupies the end position of the clause **I will call you**.

c. Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner answer the question **How?** Many adverbs of manner have the ending **ly**. The formation and use of adverbs of manner will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Adverbs of manner most often occupy the end position of a clause, where they follow an intransitive verb, or the direct object of a transitive verb.
e.g. We waited **patiently** for the play to begin.
I sold the strawberries **quickly**.
In the first example, the adverb of manner **patiently** follows the intransitive verb **waited**. In the second example, the adverb of manner **quickly** follows the direct object **strawberries** of the transitive verb **sold**.

An adverb of manner may be placed at the beginning of a clause, in order to emphasize the idea expressed by the adverb.
e.g. **Patiently**, we waited for the show to begin.
Quickly, I sold the strawberries.
In these examples, the ideas expressed by **patiently** and **quickly** are emphasized.

Adverbs of manner are often placed in the middle position of a clause, particularly when the clause contains no adverb of frequency.
e.g. I **slowly** opened the door.
I have **carefully** considered all of the possibilities.
In the first example, the adverb of manner **slowly** precedes **opened**, a verb in the Simple Past. In the second example, the adverb of manner **carefully** follows the auxiliary **have** of the verb **have considered**.

In informal English, adverbs of manner are often placed immediately after the word **to** of an infinitive. When this is done, the infinitive is referred to as a **split infinitive**.
e.g. I wanted to **carefully** consider the situation.
In this example, the infinitive **to consider** is split by the adverb **carefully**.

However, in formal English, it is considered preferable not to use split infinitives. In formal English, the above example could be written:
I wanted to consider the situation **carefully**.

Adverb phrases and clauses of manner usually occupy the end position of a clause.
e.g. We arrived on foot.
We finished the work as quickly as we could.
In the first example, the adverb phrase of manner **on foot** follows the intransitive verb **arrived**. In the second example, the adverb clause of manner **as quickly as we could** follows the direct object **work** of the transitive verb **finished**.

Adverb phrases and clauses of manner are sometimes placed at the beginning of a clause, for emphasis. For example:
As quickly as we could, we finished the work.
In this example, the adverb clause **as quickly as we could** is emphasized.

d. Connecting adverbs

Adverbs such as **however**, **nevertheless** and **therefore** are often used to connect the ideas expressed by the clauses in which they occur to ideas expressed in previous clauses. In the following examples, the connecting adverbs are printed in bold type.

Connecting adverbs are often placed at the beginning of a clause.
e.g. I would like to go skiing. **However**, I have too much work to do.
She was very busy; **nevertheless**, she found time to go swimming.

In the first example, the adverb **however**, which occurs at the beginning of the clause **I have too much work to do**, connects the idea expressed in this clause with the idea expressed in the previous clause, **I would like to go skiing**. In the second example, the adverb **nevertheless**, which occurs at the beginning of the clause **she found time to go swimming**, connects the idea expressed in this clause with the idea expressed in the previous clause, **she was very busy**.

Many connecting adverbs may be placed in the middle position of a clause. This is often done when the clause contains no adverb of frequency.
e.g. I am, **nevertheless**, anxious to continue.
We **thus** had no difficulty finding the motel.
We have, **therefore**, decided to do it.

In the first example, **nevertheless** follows **am**, the Simple Present of the verb **to be**. In the second example, **thus** precedes **had**, the Simple Past of a verb other than the verb **to be**. In the third example, **therefore** follows the auxiliary **have** of the verb **have decided**.

The adverb **however** may occupy any of the three positions in a clause. As illustrated in the following examples, a connecting adverb is usually separated by commas from the rest of the sentence.
e.g. **However**, it has stopped snowing.
It has, **however**, stopped snowing.
It has stopped snowing, **however**.

It should be noted that the adverb **instead** is often placed at the end of a clause.
e.g. Because there was no meat, I bought fish **instead**.

Connecting adverb phrases are most often placed at the beginning of a clause. For example:
As a result, I decided to study hard.
In this example, the phrase **as a result** is placed at the beginning of the clause **I decided to study hard**.

The following table summarizes the most commonly used positions for the four different types of adverb discussed above.

Type of Adverb	**Most commonly used Position in Clause**
Adverb of frequency	Middle position
Adverb of time	End position, following adverbs of manner and location
Adverb of manner	End position, preceding other adverbs
Connecting adverb	Beginning position

See Exercise 3.

e. Adverb phrases and clauses of purpose

Adverb phrases and clauses of purpose answer the question **Why?** This question is usually answered by a phrase or clause, rather than by a single-word adverb. In the following examples, the adverb phrases and clauses of purpose are underlined.

Adverb phrases and clauses of purpose usually occupy the end position of a clause, and follow any other adverbs, or adverb phrases or clauses.

e.g. I went to the store yesterday to buy a coat.

I need to buy a new coat soon because my old one is worn out.

In the first example, the adverb phrase of purpose **to buy a coat** occupies the end position of a clause, following the adverb of time **yesterday**. In the second example, the adverb clause of purpose **because my old one is worn out** occupies the end position of a clause, following the adverb of time **soon**.

Adverb phrases or clauses of purpose are sometimes placed at the beginning of a clause, for emphasis.

e.g. To reach the airport on time, we had to complete the trip in two hours.

Because it was such a beautiful day, I decided to go for a walk.

In the first example, the adverb phrase of purpose **to reach the airport on time** is placed at the beginning of the clause **we had to complete the trip in two hours**. In the second example, the adverb clause **because it was such a beautiful day** is placed at the beginning of the clause **I decided to go for a walk**.

f. Adverbs of location

Adverbs of location answer the question **Where?**

Adverbs of location, and adverb phrases and clauses of location, most often occupy the end position of a clause, where they precede adverbs of time and adverbs of purpose. In the following examples, the adverbs and adverb phrases and clauses of location are underlined.

e.g. I am going there tomorrow.

He left his bicycle in the driveway last night.

I know the office where she works.

In the first example, the adverb of location **there** follows the verb **am going**, and precedes the adverb of time **tomorrow**. In the second example, the adverb phrase of location **in the driveway** follows the object **bicycle** of the verb **left**, and precedes the adverb phrase of time **last night**. In the third example, the adverb clause of location **where she works** follows the object **office** of the verb **know**.

It should be noted that the position of adverbs and adverb phrases and clauses of location relative to other types of adverb is affected by whether or not the verb being modified is a **verb of motion**.

A verb of motion is a verb which describes some type of movement. The verbs **come**, **go**, **arrive**, **leave**, **walk**, **run** and **fly** are examples of verbs of motion.

If the verb of a clause is not a verb of motion, the most usual order of the different types of adverb in the end position of a clause is as follows:

Adverb of Manner
Adverb of Location
Adverb of Time
Adverb of Purpose

The following example illustrates this order:

We waited	patiently	outside the theater	all afternoon	to buy tickets.
Type of Phrase:	Manner	Location	Time	Purpose

See Exercise 4.

The order may be varied if it is desired to emphasize one of the adverb phrases. For instance, the adverb phrase of time **all afternoon** could be given more emphasis by placing it immediately after the adverb **patiently**, as follows:

We waited patiently all afternoon outside the theater to buy tickets.

When the verb of a clause is a verb of motion, any adverb of location, or adverb phrase or clause of location, is usually placed immediately after the verb. The following table compares the position of adverbs following verbs of motion with the position of adverbs following other verbs.

The most usual Position of Adverbs following a Verb

Order of Adverbs following a Verb of Motion	**Order of Adverbs following a Verb which is not a Verb of Motion**
Adverb of Location	Adverb of Manner
Adverb of Manner	Adverb of Location
Adverb of Time	Adverb of Time
Adverb of Purpose	Adverb of Purpose

It can be seen that the order of the adverbs following the two types of verb is the same except for the relative order of the adverb of location and the adverb of manner.

The following example illustrates the most usual order of the four different types of adverb phrase following a verb of motion:

I will go	to the library	by bus	tomorrow	to return the book.
Type of Phrase:	Location	Manner	Time	Purpose

See Exercise 5.

Adverbs and adverb phrases and clauses of location are sometimes placed at the beginning of a clause, for emphasis.

e.g. Here, the glacier deposited soil and rocks.

On the way to school, she saw a robin building its nest.

Wherever I look, I see signs of spring.
In these examples, the adverb **here**, the adverb phrase **on the way to school** and the adverb clause **wherever I look** are each placed at the beginning of a clause.

Adverbs of location usually cannot be placed in the middle position of a clause.

i. Here and There
The words **here** and **there**, indicating location, are often used at the beginning of a clause, followed by the verb **to be**.

In this construction, if the subject of the verb is a noun, the subject follows the verb.
e.g. **Here** are the tickets.
There was our bus.
In these examples, the noun subjects **tickets** and **bus** follow the verbs **are** and **was**.

However, if the subject of the verb is a personal pronoun, the subject precedes the verb.
e.g. **Here** they are.
There it was.
In these examples, the personal pronoun subjects **they** and **it** precede the verbs **are** and **was**.

When the subject follows the verb, care must be taken to make sure that the verb agrees with its subject.
e.g. **Here** is one of the examples.
There are his aunt and uncle.
In the first example, the verb **is** is singular to agree with the singular subject **one**. In the second example, the verb **are** is plural to agree with the plural subject **his aunt and uncle**.

See Exercise 6.

ii. There used as an introductory word
In addition to being used to indicate location, **there** can also be used as an introductory word, in clauses indicating the existence of something. **There** as an introductory word is often used with verbs such as **to be**, **to appear** and **to seem**. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. **There** is a public holiday on Monday.
There are three universities in the city.
There seem to be two possible answers to this question.

In affirmative statements using this construction, the subject follows the verb. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. **There** are only twenty-four hours in a day.
There seems to be a message for you.
In the first example, the verb **are** is plural, to agree with the plural subject **hours**. In the second example, the verb **seems** is singular, to agree with the singular subject **message**.

In questions using this construction, **there** follows the verb in the case of the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**; otherwise, **there** follows the first auxiliary. In the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** must be used. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. Is **there** a post office near here?

Were **there** many people on the train?
Can **there** be any doubt about it?
Do **there** seem to be any maple trees in this forest?

In the first two examples, **there** follows **is** and **were**, the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**. In the last two examples, **there** follows the first auxiliaries **can** and **do**.

iii. Inverted word order

When used with a verb of motion, an adverb or adverb phrase of location may be placed at the beginning of a clause, followed immediately by the verb, followed by the noun subject of the verb. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

adverb phrase of location +	verb of motion +	noun subject
Up the hill	trundled	the train.
Here	come	our friends.

If the subject of the verb is a personal pronoun, the subject must precede the verb, as illustrated below:

adverb phrase of location +	pronoun subject +	verb of motion
Up the hill	it	trundled.
Here	they	come.

See Exercise 7.

g. Negative adverbs

Negative adverbs include adverbs with an explicit negative meaning, such as **never**, **not** and **nowhere**, as well as adverbs with an implied negative meaning, such as **hardly**, **scarcely** and **seldom**.

i. Double negatives

In modern English, there is a rule that a clause containing one negative word expresses a negative meaning, but a clause containing two negative words expressed an affirmative meaning. In the case of a clause with two negative words, it is considered that one of these words negates the other, so that an affirmative meaning results. The presence of two negative words in a clause is referred to as a **double negative**.

In some dialects of English, clauses containing two negative words may be used to express a negative meaning.

e.g. I'm not saying nothing about it.
He never told nobody the secret.

However, this use of the double negative is considered to be grammatically incorrect in standard English.

For each of the above examples, the double negative can be eliminated by omitting or altering one of the negative words. Thus, the meaning of the first example could be correctly expressed by either of the following sentences:

I'm saying **nothing** about it. **or**
I'm **not** saying **anything** about it.

Similarly, the meaning of the second example could be correctly expressed by either of the following sentences:
He told **nobody** the secret. **or**
He **never** told **anybody** the secret.

See Exercise 8.

ii. Inverted word order
If a clause begins with a negative adverb, inverted word order must usually be used, with the subject following the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, or the first auxiliary. In the case of the Simple Present or Simple Past of any verb other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** must be used. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

negative adverb or adverb phrase	+	Simple form of verb **to be** or first auxiliary	+	subject	
Never before		was		I	so eager to reach home.
Little		did		we	think we would meet again.
Seldom		had		they	tasted such a delicacy.

Following are other examples of this type of construction. The negative adverbs and adverb phrases are printed in bold type, and the subjects of the verbs are underlined.
e.g. **Seldom** was he at a loss for words.
Scarcely had we left the house, when it began to rain.
Not for many years was the true story known.
No sooner did the bell ring than the children ran out of the school.
In the first example, the subject **he** follows **was**, the Simple Past of the verb **to be**. In the succeeding examples, the subjects **we**, **story** and **bell** follow the auxiliaries **had**, **was** and **did**, respectively.

See Exercise 9.

In this type of inverted construction, if **there** is used as an introductory word, **there** follows the Simple Past or Simple Present of the verb **to be**, or the first auxiliary.
e.g. **Seldom** were there more than five ducks on the pond.
Rarely had there been more swans on the lake than there were that day.
In the first example, **there** follows **were**, the Simple Past of the verb **to be**. In the second example, **there** follows the auxiliary **had**, of the verb **had been**.

It should be noted that the expression **so ... that** can also be used with inverted word order.
e.g. **So** exhausted were we **that** we fell asleep at the table.
In this example, the subject **we** follows the verb **were**.

3. Interrogative adverbs

The adverbs **how**, **when**, **where** and **why** can be used as interrogative adverbs at the beginning of direct questions. The interrogative adverbs in the following direct questions are printed in bold type.
e.g. **How** are you?
When is he coming?
Where were you?
Why did you say that?

As shown in these examples, inverted word order must be used, with the subject following the Simple Past or Simple Present of the verb **to be**, or the first auxiliary. In the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** must be used. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. **How** is your sister?
When did you see him?
Where is she going?
Why has he changed his mind?

In these examples, the subject **sister** follows the verb **is**, and the subjects **you**, **she** and **he** follow the auxiliaries **did**, **is** and **has**, respectively.

See Exercise 10.

As well as being used as interrogative adjectives at the beginning of direct questions, **how**, **when**, **where** and **why** can also be used at the beginning of subordinate clauses. In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. Be ready to start when you hear the signal.
He camped close to where the brook flows into the lake.
In the first example, **when you hear the signal** is an adverb clause of time. In the second example, **where the brook flows into the lake** is an adverb clause of location.

In addition to being used at the beginning of adverb clauses, **how**, **when**, **where** and **why** can also be used at the beginning of indirect questions. In the following examples, the indirect questions are underlined.
e.g. I want to know how he did that.
I wonder when they will arrive.
Please tell me where the school is.
I will ask why she left early.

As pointed out previously, inverted word order is not used in indirect questions. Thus, the subject of an indirect question precedes the verb. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. We should find out **how** the information was transmitted.
Ask her **when** she will be here.
I wonder **where** they are.
Please find out **why** he could not come with us.
In these examples, the subjects **information**, **she**, **they** and **he** precede the verbs **was transmitted**, **will be**, **are** and **could come**.

See Exercise 11.

CHAPTER 25. ADVERBS OF MANNER AND ADVERBS USED IN COMPARISONS

1. Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner are the largest group of adverbs. Most adverbs of manner are closely related to corresponding adjectives. Although some words can be used as either adjectives or adverbs, in most cases, adverbs of manner are formed by adding **ly** to the corresponding adjectives.

a. Spelling rules for adding ly

In most cases, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
bad	badly
complete	completely
normal	normally
surprising	surprisingly

i. Adjectives ending in ic

However, when the adjective ends in **ic**, the syllable **al** is usually added before the **ly** ending. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
dramatic	dramatically
scientific	scientifically
specific	specifically

ii. Adjectives ending in le

When the adjective ends in **le** preceded by a consonant, the final **e** is usually changed to **y**, to form the **ly** ending. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
favorable	favorably
humble	humbly
simple	simply

When the adjective ends in **le** preceded by a vowel, in most cases, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
agile	agilely

sole	solely

However, in the case of the adjective **whole**, the final **e** is removed before the ending **ly** is added:

Adjective	**Adverb of Manner**
whole	wholly

iii. Adjectives ending in ll

When the adjective ends in **ll**, only **y** is added. For example:

Adjective	**Adverb of Manner**
dull	dully
full	fully
shrill	shrilly

iv. Adjectives ending in ue

When the adjective ends in **ue**, the final **e** is usually omitted before the ending **ly** is added. For example:

Adjective	**Adverb of Manner**
due	duly
true	truly

v. Adjectives ending in y

When the adjective ends in **y** preceded by a consonant, the **y** is usually changed to **i** before the ending **ly** is added. For example:

Adjective	**Adverb of Manner**
busy	busily
easy	easily
happy	happily

However, in the case of the adjectives **shy** and **sly**, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective:

Adjective	**Adverb of Manner**
shy	shyly
sly	slyly

When the adjective ends in **y** preceded by a vowel, in most cases, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Adjective	**Adverb of Manner**
coy	coyly
grey	greyly

However, in the case of the adjective **gay**, **y** is changed to **i** before the ending **ly** is added:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
gay	gaily

See Exercise 1.

It should be noted that while most adverbs which end in **ly** are adverbs of manner, other types of adverb may also end in **ly**. For instance, **consequently** and **subsequently** are connecting adverbs. The following are adverbs of frequency which are formed by adding **ly** to the corresponding adjectives.

Adjective	Adverb of Frequency
frequent	frequently
rare	rarely
usual	usually

b. Adverbs which do not use the ending ly

The adverb of manner **well** appears unrelated to the corresponding adjective, **good**. **Good** and **well** both have the comparative form **better** and the superlative form **best**.

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
good	well

It should be noted that in addition to being used as an adverb, the word **well** can also be used as an adjective with the meaning **healthy**. The adjective **well** is most often used as a predicate adjective.

e.g. **Well** used as an Adjective: I hope you are **well**.
Well used as an Adverb: He did **well** on the examination.

In the first example, **well** is a predicate adjective, modifying the pronoun **you**. In the second example, **well** is an adverb of manner, modifying the verb **did**.

The following table gives examples of adverbs of manner, location, time and frequency which have the same forms as the corresponding adjectives.

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
fast	fast
hard	hard
little	little
loud	loud **or** loudly
much	much
straight	straight

Adjective	Adverb of Location
far	far
high	high
low	low
near	near
wide	wide

Adjective	Adverb of Time

early	early
first	first
late	late
long	long

Adjective	**Adverb of Frequency**
daily	daily
monthly	monthly
weekly	weekly
yearly	yearly

See Exercise 2.

It should also be noted that there are several adjectives ending in **ly** which have no corresponding adverbs:

friendly
likely
lively
lonely
silly
ugly

When it is desired to use one of these words to modify a verb, an adverb phrase of manner may be used. In the following examples, the adverb phrases are underlined.
e.g. He behaved in a friendly manner.
They acted in a silly way.

The following table gives examples of pairs of adverbs which are closely related, but which have different meanings.

Adverbs With and Without ly Endings

Adverb	**Meaning**	**Adverb**	**Meaning**
hard	with effort	**hardly**	scarcely
high	opposite of **low**	**highly**	very; very well
late	opposite of **early**	**lately**	recently
near	opposite of **far**	**nearly**	almost
wide	opposite of **narrow**	**widely**	commonly

The meanings of these adverbs are illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. I worked **hard**.
I have **hardly** enough time to finish.

He threw the ball **high** into the air.
He is **highly** successful in what he does.

The class began **late**.
The weather has been cold **lately**.

I held my breath as the squirrel crept **near** to get the nuts.
I have **nearly** finished reading the book.

I opened the door **wide**.
That theory is **widely** believed.

c. The differing functions of adjectives and adverbs
When an adverb differs in form from a corresponding adjective, it is necessary to distinguish between the functions of adjectives and adverbs in order to determine which form should be used in a given situation.

Whereas adjectives modify nouns, pronouns, and expressions which serve the same grammatical functions as nouns; adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

i. Adjectives which modify nouns compared with adverbs which modify verbs
The following examples illustrate the distinction which must be made between adjectives which modify nouns and adverbs which modify verbs. The adjectives and adverbs are printed in bold type, and the words which are modified are underlined.
e.g. Adjective: It has been a **quiet** afternoon.
Adverb: The afternoon passed **quietly**.

Adjective: She is a **good** musician.
Adverb: She plays the flute very **well**.

In the first pair of sentences, the adjective **quiet** modifies the noun **afternoon**, whereas the adverb **quietly** modifies the verb **passed**. In the second pair of sentences, the adjective **good** modifies the noun **musician**, whereas the adverb **well** modifies the verb **plays**.

In informal English, adjectives are sometimes used to modify verbs.
e.g. She plays good.
In this example, the adjective **good** is used to modify the verb **plays**. However, this use of adjectives is considered to be grammatically incorrect.

See Exercise 3.

ii. Adjectives which modify nouns compared with adverbs which modify adjectives
The following examples illustrate the distinction which must be made between adjectives which modify nouns and adverbs which modify adjectives.
e.g. Adjective: a **large** wooden building
Adverb: a **largely** wooden building

Adjective: **conspicuous** dark clouds
Adverb: **conspicuously** dark clouds

In the first pair of phrases, the adjective **large** modifies the noun **building**, and the adverb **largely** modifies the adjective **wooden**. Thus, the phrase **a large wooden building** has the meaning **a big wooden building**, whereas the phrase **a largely wooden building** has the meaning **a building mostly made of wood**.

In the second pair of phrases, the adjective **conspicuous** modifies the noun **clouds**, and the adverb **conspicuously** modifies the adjective **dark**. Thus, the phrase **conspicuous dark clouds** means that the clouds themselves are noticeable; whereas the phrase **conspicuously dark clouds** means that the darkness of the clouds is noticeable.

See Exercise 4.

iii. Predicate adjectives which modify the subjects of verbs compared with adverbs which modify verbs

As pointed out previously, certain verbs, called **linking verbs**, can be followed by predicate adjectives. A distinction must be made between predicate adjectives which modify the subjects of linking verbs, and adverbs which modify verbs.

A few linking verbs, such as the verb **to be**, can be followed by predicate adjectives, but cannot be modified by adverbs of manner. In the following examples using the verb **to be**, the nouns which are modified are underlined.

e.g. He is **happy**.
The wind was **strong**.

In these examples, the predicate adjectives **happy** and **strong** modify the subjects **he** and **wind**.

However, there are several verbs which can be used either as linking verbs followed by predicate adjectives, or as non-linking verbs modified by adverbs of manner. The following examples illustrate the use of the verb **to appear** as a linking verb and as a non-linking verb.

e.g. Linking Verb: His uncle appeared **kind**.
Non-linking Verb: His uncle appeared **punctually** at ten o'clock.

In the first example, **kind** is a predicate adjective which modifies the noun **uncle**. In the second example, **punctually** is an adverb of manner which modifies the verb **appeared**.

The verbs below can be used either as linking or non-linking verbs:

to appear	to become
to feel	to grow
to look	to remain
to smell	to sound
to taste	to turn

If the subject of the verb is to be modified, a predicate adjective is required after such verbs; whereas if the verb is to be modified, an adverb is required. In the pairs of examples below, the verbs **to grow**, **to look** and **to turn** are used first as linking verbs followed by adjectives, and then as non-linking verbs modified by adverbs. The adjectives and adverbs are printed in bold type, and the words which are modified are underlined.

e.g. Adjective: As he became old, he grew **slow** at remembering dates.
Adverb: The tree grew **slowly**.

Adjective: They looked **anxious**.
Adverb: We looked **anxiously** up the street.

Adjective: The weather turned **cold**.
Adverb: She turned **coldly** away from the salesman.

In these examples, the predicate adjectives **slow**, **anxious** and **cold** modify the subjects **he**, **they** and **weather**; whereas the adverbs of manner **slowly**, **anxiously** and **coldly** modify the verbs **grew**, **looked** and **turned**.

See Exercise 5.

2. Adverbs used in comparisons

a. The formation of comparative and superlative forms of adverbs

It should be noted that many adverbs, such as **sometimes**, **never**, **here**, **there**, **now**, **then**, **first**, **again**, **yesterday** and **daily** have no comparative or superlative forms.

i. Adverbs used with More and Most

Most adverbs used in comparisons, including those formed from corresponding adjectives by adding the ending **ly**, form the comparative with the word **more**, and the superlative with the word **most**. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
carefully	more carefully	most carefully
easily	more easily	most easily
frequently	more frequently	most frequently
slowly	more slowly	most slowly
softly	more softly	most softly

ii. Adverbs used with the endings er and est

Adverbs which have the same positive forms as corresponding adjectives generally also have the same comparative and superlative forms as the corresponding adjectives. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
early	earlier	earliest
fast	faster	fastest
hard	harder	hardest
high	higher	highest
late	later	latest
long	longer	longest
low	lower	lowest
near	nearer	nearest
straight	straighter	straightest

The adverb of time **soon** also uses the endings **er** and **est**:

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
soon	sooner	soonest

It should be noted that adverbs formed by adding **ly** to one-syllable adjectives are sometimes used with the endings **er** and **est**.
e.g. We walked slower and slower.
They sang the softest.

However, in modern English, it is generally considered to be more correct to write:
We walked more and more slowly.
They sang the most softly.

iii. Irregular adverbs
The irregular adverbs have the same comparative and superlative forms as the corresponding irregular adjectives:

Positive Form	**Comparative Form**	**Superlative Form**
badly	worse	worst
far	farther **or** further	farthest **or** furthest
little	less	least
much	more	most
well	better	best

b. Positive forms of adverbs used in comparisons
The constructions employed when adverbs are used in comparisons are very similar to those employed when adjectives are used in comparisons.

i. The construction with As ... As
When used in making comparisons, the positive form of an adverb is usually preceded and followed by **as**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	as +	positive form of adverb +	**as**	
I can run	as	fast	as	you can.
He moves	as	slowly	as	a snail.
Her eyes shone	as	brightly	as	stars.

If desired, an adverb may be placed before the first occurrence of **as**:

	adverb +	**as** +	positive form of adverb +	**as**	
I can run	twice	as	fast	as	you can.
Her eyes shone	almost	as	brightly	as	stars.

ii. Ellipsis
Ellipsis is often employed in comparisons using adverbs. For instance, in the second half of such comparisons, instead of repeating the verb, the first auxiliary may be used, or the verb may be omitted entirely. In the following examples, the words which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.

e.g. I can run as fast as you can [run].
He moves as slowly as a snail [moves].
Her eyes shone as brightly as stars [shine].

c. Comparative forms of adverbs used in comparisons

i. The construction with Than

When used in making comparisons, the comparative form of an adverb is usually followed by **than**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	comparative form of adverb	+	**than**	
He can swim	farther		than	I can.
She sings	more beautifully		than	her sister does.

As is the case with comparisons using adjectives, comparisons using adverbs can be combined with phrases or clauses.

e.g. She performs **better** in front of an audience **than** she does in rehearsal.
They walked **faster** when they were on their way to school **than** they did when they were on their way home.

In the first example, the two situations being compared are distinguished by the phrases **in front of an audience** and **in rehearsal**. In the second example, the two situations being compared are distinguished by the clauses **when they were on their way to school** and **when they were on their way home**. The use of ellipsis should be noted. In the first example, the auxiliary **does** is used instead of repeating the verb **performs**. In the second example, the auxiliary **did** is used instead of repeating the verb **walked**.

See Exercise 6.

ii. Progressive comparisons

The comparative forms of adverbs can be used in progressive comparisons. For adverbs with the ending **er**, the following construction is used:

	comparative form of adverb	+	**and**	+	comparative form of adverb
e.g. The plane flew	higher		and		higher.
The team performed	better		and		better.

The meanings expressed in these examples can also be expressed as follows:

e.g. The plane flew increasingly high.
The team performed increasingly well.

For adverbs which form the comparative with **more**, the following construction is used:

	more	+	**and**	+	**more**	+	positive form of adverb
He solved the problems	more		and		more		easily.

We visited them	more	and	more	frequently.

The meanings expressed in these examples can also be expressed as follows:
e.g. He solved the problems increasingly easily.
We visited them increasingly frequently.

iii. The construction with Less and Less
A similar construction, employing the expression **less and less**, can also be used. The expressions **less and less** and **more and more** have opposite meanings.

	less +	**and** +	**less** +	positive form of adverb
He solved the problems	less	and	less	easily.
We visited them	less	and	less	frequently.

The meanings expressed in these examples can also be expressed as follows:
e.g. He solved the problems decreasingly easily.
We visited them decreasingly frequently.

See Exercise 7.

iv. The construction with The ..., the ...
Two clauses, each beginning with **the**, and each containing a comparative form of an adjective or adverb, can be used together in order to indicate a cause and effect relationship between two different things or events. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

The +	comparative form of adverb or adjective +	1st part of comparison, +	**the** +	comparative form of adverb or adjective +	2nd part of comparison
The	more	they eat,	the	fatter	they get.
The	faster	we skated,	the	warmer	we felt.

The following are further examples of the use of this type of construction. In these examples, the comparative forms are underlined.
e.g. **The** more cleverly we hid the Easter eggs, **the** more enthusiastically the children searched for them.
The more I scold her, **the** worse she behaves.
As shown in the examples, in this type of construction the two clauses beginning with **the** must be separated by a comma.

d. Superlative forms of adverbs used in comparisons

i. The construction with The
When used in making comparisons, the superlative form of an adverb is usually preceded by **the**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

the +	superlative form of adverb

He jumped	the	highest	of all the boys in the class.
Our team plays	the	best	of all the teams in the league.
They sing	the	most sweetly	of all the choirs I have heard.

See Exercises 8 and 9.

In the case of adverbs which form the superlative with the ending **est**, the superlative is sometimes preceded by a possessive adjective, instead of by the definite article, **the**. In the following examples, the possessive adjectives are printed in bold type.
e.g. He ran **his** fastest.
I did **my** best.

ii. The construction with The Least
Adverbs may also be preceded by the expression **the least**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples. The words **least** and **most** have opposite meanings.

	the +	**least** +	positive form of adverb	
She speaks	the	least	loudly	of all the children.
This bus runs	the	least	often.	

CHAPTER 26. PREPOSITIONS

The words **at**, **in**, **of**, **on** and **to** are examples of prepositions. A word such as a noun, pronoun or gerund following a preposition is said to be the **object** of the preposition. As pointed out previously, a personal pronoun following a preposition must be in the objective case.

A phrase beginning with a preposition can be referred to as a **prepositional phrase**. The prepositional phrases in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. He owns the house on the corner.
We are waiting for her.
She has read many books about flying.

In the first example, the noun **corner** is the object of the preposition **on**. In the second example, the personal pronoun **her** is the object of the preposition **for**. It can be seen that the personal pronoun **her** is in the objective case. In the third example, the gerund **flying** is the object of the preposition **about**.

A preposition serves to connect its object with the rest of a sentence. In doing so, a preposition indicates the relationship of the idea expressed in the prepositional phrase to the ideas expressed In the rest of the sentence.

For instance in the sentence **He owns the house on the corner**, the preposition **on** indicates that the words **the corner** express the location of the house referred to in the rest of the sentence. Similarly, in the sentence **We are waiting for her**, the preposition **for** indicates that the word **her** expresses the reason for the action of waiting referred to in the rest of the

sentence.

Although there are fewer than one hundred English prepositions, although prepositions do not take endings, and although the structure of most prepositional phrases is simple, the use of English prepositions is very complex. The reasons for this are that most prepositions have more than one meaning, many prepositions can also be used as adverbs, prepositions are used in hundreds of idioms, many adjectives, nouns, and verbs must usually be followed by certain prepositions, and there are hundreds of phrasal verbs formed from combinations of verbs with adverbs and prepositions.

It should also be noted that the use of prepositions varies somewhat among the different dialects of English. For instance, as illustrated in the following example, there are some differences between British and North American English in the use of prepositions.
e.g. British Usage: There is a fence **about** the garden.
American Usage: There is a fence **around** the garden.

The discussion below emphasizes the North American usage of English prepositions.

1. The meanings of prepositions

The table below gives the most usual meanings of English prepositions. Each meaning is illustrated by an example.

About
1. On the subject of: This is a story **about** elephants.
2. Approximately: He is **about** ten years old.

Above
1. Higher than; over: The plane flew **above** the clouds.
2. Earlier on a page: There is a heading **above** each diagram.

Across
1. From one side to the other: We walked **across** the field.
2. On the other side of: There is a store **across** the street.

After
1. Later in time: **after** ten o'clock; **after** lunch
2. Later in a series: Q comes **after** P in the alphabet.
3. In pursuit of: The dog ran **after** the cat.

Against
1. In opposition to: Theft is **against** the law.
2. Touching; supported by: I leaned my bicycle **against** the wall.

Along
1. Following the length of: We walked **along** the road.

Among

1. Within a group: The money was shared **among** three people.

Note: In formal English, **among** is usually used only when referring to more than two persons or things. In contrast, **between** is used when referring to two persons or things.

Around

1. Circling something: We walked **around** the block.
2. Surrounding: There is a fence **around** the garden.
3. In different parts of: I looked **around** the house for the keys.
4. In the other direction: We turned **around** and went back home.
5. Approximately: He is **around** six feet tall.

At

1. A specific location: **at** 23 Chestnut Street; **at** the park
2. A point in time: **at** 5 o'clock; **at** Christmas
3. A condition: **at** peace; **at** war; **at** rest
4. An activity: **at** work; **at** school; **at** play
5. Towards: Look **at** someone; wave **at** someone

Note: When referring to a specific location or to a point in time, **at** is usually used. When referring to a certain street or a certain day, **on** is usually used. When referring to a location as an area, or when referring to a unit of time longer than a day, **in** is usually used.
e.g. **at** Christmas; **on** Christmas day; **in** the Christmas holidays

Before

1. Earlier in time: **before** two o'clock; **before** Christmas
2. Earlier in a series: S comes **before** T in the alphabet.

Behind

1. At the back of: The little girl hid **behind** her mother.
2. Late: I am **behind** in my work.
3. Cause; origin: Who was **behind** that idea?

Below

1. Lower than; under: **below** freezing; **below** sea level
2. Later on a page: Footnotes are provided **below** the text.

Beneath

1. Lower than; below: **beneath** the earth

Beside

1. Next to; at the side of: I sit **beside** her in class.

Besides

1. Also; as well as: We study other languages **besides** English.

Note the differing meanings of **beside** and **besides**. **Beside** is usually used with reference to a physical location.

Between

1. An intermediate location: Toronto lies **between** Montreal and Vancouver.
2. An intermediate time: **between** Christmas and New Year's Day
3. Intermediate in a series: B comes **between** A and C in the alphabet.
4. An intermediate amount: **between** five and ten people
5. Within a group of two: The money was shared **between** two people.

Beyond

1. Farther than: The mountains lie **beyond** the horizon.
2. Further than; exceeding: That was **beyond** my expectations.

But

1. Except: I have read all **but** the last chapter.

Note: But is used more often as a conjunction than as a preposition.

By

1. Near: a house **by** the sea
2. Past: He waved as he drove **by** the house.
3. Not later than: Try to finish the work **by** next week.
4. In units of: cheaper **by** the dozen; sold **by** weight
5. Through the means of: travel **by** plane; written **by** him

Note: By is often used in combination with verbs in the Passive Voice.

Concerning

1. Connected with; about: He studies everything **concerning** trees.

Despite

1. In spite of: We walked downtown **despite** the rain.

Down

1. To a lower position: The ball rolled **down** the hill.
2. Further along: He lives **down** the street.

During

1. Throughout a period: She works **during** the day.
2. Sometime within a period: An accident occurred **during** the night.

Except

1. Not including: I have visited everyone **except** him.

For

1. Duration of time: We walked **for** two hours.
2. Distance: I walked **for** five kilometers.
3. Purpose: I bought this jacket **for** you.
4. In the direction of: She left **for** New York.
5. In favor of: We are **for** the proposal.
6. Considering: The boy is clever **for** his age.

From

1. Place of origin: We left **from** Boston; he comes **from** Mexico
2. Start of a period of time: **from** now on; **from** yesterday until today
3. Start of a range: **From** 20 to 30 people were present.
4. Cause: He suffers **from** nervousness.
5. Source: I first heard the story **from** you.

In

1. Place thought of as an area: **in** London; **in** Europe
2. Within a location: **in** the room; **in** the building
3. Large units of time: That happened **in** March, **in** 1992.
4. Within a certain time: I will return **in** an hour.
5. By means of: write **in** pencil; speak in English
6. Condition: **in** doubt; **in** a hurry; **in** secret
7. A member of: He is **in** the orchestra; **in** the navy
8. Wearing: the boy **in** the blue shirt
9. With reference to: lacking **in** ideas; rich **in** oil

Inside

1. Within: They are **inside** the house.

Into

1. To the inside of: We stepped **into** the room.
2. Change of condition: The boy changed **into** a man.

Like

1. Resembling: That looks **like** him.
2. Appearing possible: It looks **like** rain.
3. Be in a suitable mood for: I feel **like** going swimming.

Minus

1. Less: Three **minus** two equals one.

Near

1. Close to: **near** the school; **near** the ocean

Of

1. Location: east **of** here; the middle **of** the road
2. Possession: a friend **of** mine; the sound **of** music
3. Part of a group: one **of** us; a member **of** the team
4. Measurement: a cup **of** milk; two meters **of** snow

Off

1. Not on; away from: Please keep **off** the grass.
2. At some distance from: There are islands **off** the coast.

On

1. Touching the surface of: **on** the table; **on** the wall
2. A certain day: That happened **on** Sunday, **on** the 6th of June.
3. A certain street: **on** South Street

4. About: a book **on** engineering
5. A state or condition: **on** strike; **on** fire; **on** holiday
6. By means of: live **on** a pension; shown **on** television

Onto

1. To a position on: The child climbed **onto** the table.

Opposite

1. Facing: The library is **opposite** the fire station.

Out of

1. To the outside of: She went **out of** the room.
2. From among: We won two games **out of** three.
3. Motive: We spoke to them **out of** politeness.
4. Material: The bridge is made **out of** steel.
5. Beyond: **out of** control; **out of** danger

Outside

1. On the outer side of: **outside** the house
2. Beyond the limits of: **outside** my experience

Over

1. Above; higher than: There are cupboards **over** the sink.
2. Covering: We spread an extra blanket **over** the bed.
3. Across: I jumped **over** a puddle.
4. More than: It cost **over** ten dollars; it took **over** an hour
5. During: I saw him several times **over** the past week.
6. By means of: We made plans **over** the telephone.

Past

1. Up to and beyond: I walked **past** the house.
2. After (in time): It was **past** 2 o'clock; half **past** two
3. Beyond: **past** belief

Per

1. For each: 60 kilometers **per** hour; price **per** liter

Plus

1. With the addition of: Six **plus** four equals ten.

Since

1. From a specific time in the past: I had been waiting **since** two o'clock.
2. From a past time until now: I have been waiting here **since** noon.

Note: Because of its meaning, the preposition **since** is usually used in combination with a perfect tense. It should be noted that the preposition **for** can also be used with a perfect tense. However, when used with reference to time, **for** is usually followed by a phrase referring to a **period** of time; whereas **since** is usually followed by a phrase referring to a **specific** time.
e.g. I have known him **for** six months.
I have known him **since** January.

In the first example, **for** is followed by **six months**, which refers to a period of time. In the second example, **since** is followed by **January**, which refers to a specific time.

Through

1. Across; from end to end of: the main road **through** town
2. For the whole of a period: I slept **through** the night.
3. By means of: Skill improves **through** practice.

Throughout

1. In every part of: **throughout** the world
2. For the whole of a period: **throughout** the winter

Till

Note: Till can be used instead of **until**. However, at the beginning of a sentence, **until** is usually used.

To

1. In the direction of: Turn **to** the right.
2. Destination: I am going **to** Rome.
3. Until: from Monday **to** Friday; five minutes **to** ten
4. Compared with: They prefer hockey **to** soccer.
5. With indirect object: Please give it **to** me.
6. As part of infinitive: I like **to** ski; he wants **to** help.
7. In order to: We went to the store **to** buy soap.

Toward (or **Towards**)

1. In the direction of: We walked **toward** the center of town.
2. Near; just before (time): It rained **towards** evening.

Under

1. Beneath: **under** the desk; **under** the trees
2. Less than: **Under** 100 people were present.
3. In circumstances of: **under** repair; **under** way; **under** discussion

Underneath

1. Below, under: **underneath** the carpet

Until

1. Up to a certain time: She will stay **until** Friday; **until** 5 p.m.

Upon

Note: On and **upon** have similar meanings. **Upon** may be used in certain expressions, as in **once upon a time**, and following certain verbs, as in to **rely upon** someone.

Up

1. To a higher place: We went **up** the stairs.
2. In a higher place: She lives **up** the hill.

Up to

1. As far as: **up to** now; I have read **up to** page 100.

2. Depending on: The decision is **up to** you.
3. As good as; ready for: His work is **up to** standard.

Versus
1. Against (sports, legal): The next game is England **versus** Australia.

Via
1. By way of: He went to Los Angeles **via** San Francisco.

With
1. Accompanying: He came **with** her; I have my keys **with** me.
2. Having; containing: Here is a book **with** a map of the island.
3. By means of; using: I repaired the shoes **with** glue.
4. Manner: **with** pleasure; **with** ease; **with** difficulty
5. Because of: We were paralyzed **with** fear.

Within
1. Inside of: **within** twenty minutes; **within** one kilometer

Without
1. Not having: Do not leave **without** your coat; **without** money

See Exercises 1 and 2.

2. Prepositions used in idioms

Below are examples of idioms consisting of prepositional phrases. The following selection of idioms emphasizes those used in North American English. The meaning of each idiom is indicated after the colon.

At

not **at** all**:** not in any way
at all times**:** always
at any rate**:** whatever happens
keep someone **at** arm's length**:** avoid becoming closely involved with someone
at close quarters**:** very near
at one's disposal**:** to be used as one wishes
at a distance**:** not near
at fault**:** causing something wrong
at first**:** at the beginning
see **at** a glance**:** see immediately
at hand**:** near; readily available
at last**:** finally, after some delay
at a loss**:** uncertain what to do or say
at the mercy of**:** without defense against
at the moment**:** now
at once**:** immediately

at present**:** now
at rest**:** not moving
at risk**:** threatened by danger or loss
at short notice**:** with little warning
at stake**:** to be won or lost
at a stretch**:** continuously
at that rate**:** under those circumstances
at this point**:** at this place; at this moment
at the wheel**:** in control

Behind
behind the scenes**:** (of persons) influencing events secretly; (in a theater) behind the stage
behind schedule**:** not on time

Beside
be **beside** oneself**:** lose one's self-control
beside the point**:** irrelevant

Between
read **between** the lines**:** deduce a meaning that is not actually expressed

Beyond
beyond help**:** unable to be helped
beyond a joke**:** too annoying to be amusing
beyond reproach**:** perfect; blameless

By
by accident**:** not deliberately
by all means**:** by any possible method
bit **by** bit**:** gradually
by chance**:** by accident; without planning
by courtesy of**:** with the help or permission of
win **by** default**:** win because of lack of competition
by degrees**:** gradually
perform **by** ear**:** perform (music) by listening to the sound, without referring to written music
by hand**:** without the use of machinery
by heart**:** from memory
little **by** little**:** gradually
by means of**:** by using
by mistake**:** accidentally
by no means**:** not at all
one **by** one**:** one at a time
by oneself**:** alone
side **by** side**:** beside one another
by the way**:** incidentally (used to introduce an unrelated topic of conversation)
by word of mouth**:** orally

For
once and **for** all**:** for the last time (e.g. used when giving someone a final warning)

for certain**:** definitely; without doubt
for a change**:** for the sake of variety
for example**:** as an illustration
for fun**:** for the sake of enjoyment
for good**:** permanently
for good measure**:** in addition to the necessary amount
for instance**:** for example; as an illustration
for keeps**:** (colloquial) permanently
for a living**:** as a profession
for now**:** temporarily
run **for** office**:** compete for an elected position
for one thing**:** because of one reason (out of several)
for the sake of**:** for the benefit of; for the purpose of
for sale**:** intended to be sold
for sure**:** definitely (more colloquial than **for certain**)
food **for** thought**:** something which makes one think
play **for** time**:** delay doing something in the hope that the situation will improve
for the time being**:** until some other arrangement is made
ask **for** trouble**:** act in a dangerous or foolish way
for a while**:** for a period of time
word **for** word**:** exactly as said or written

From
from afar**:** from a distance
from all sides**:** from all directions
from head to foot**:** (of a person) completely; all over
from scratch**:** from the beginning
from time to time**:** occasionally

In
in addition to**:** as well as
in advance**:** before
be **in** agreement with**:** have the same opinion as
in any case**:** whatever happens
in brief**:** in a few words
in bulk**:** (of goods) in large amounts; not in packages
be **in** charge of**:** have responsibility for
in common**:** shared by all members of a group
in control**:** having the power to direct something
in the course of**:** during
in danger**:** likely to be harmed
in a daze**:** unable to think clearly; confused
in debt**:** owing money
in demand**:** (of goods or persons) desired by many people
in depth**:** (investigate something) thoroughly
in detail**:** (explain something) thoroughly
in disgrace**:** regarded with disapproval because of having done something wrong
in the distance**:** far away
in doubt**:** uncertain
in duplicate**:** so that there are two identical copies (of a document)

in earnest**:** seriously; in a determined way
in effect**:** (of rules) operating
in the end**:** finally
in fact**:** in reality; really
in fashion**:** fashionable; accepted as being the most desirable and up to date
in favor of**:** supporting (an idea)
in flames**:** burning, with visible flames
in a flash**:** very quickly; suddenly
in full**:** without omitting anything
in general**:** usually; as a whole
hand **in** hand**:** (of persons) holding hands; (of related situations) occurring together
in a hurry**:** trying to accomplish something quickly
in jest**:** as a joke
in kind**:** (payment) in goods rather than in money
in itself**:** without reference to anything else
in league with**:** (of persons) joined together with (usually for a dishonest purpose)
be **in** the limelight**:** be the focus of attention; receive great publicity
in the long run**:** in the end; eventually
in the long term**:** looking ahead to the distant future
leave someone **in** the lurch**:** abandon someone who is in a difficult situation
be **in** the minority**:** be in the smaller of two groups
in mint condition**:** (of manufactured goods) perfect; brand-new
in a minute**:** soon
in a moment**:** soon; quickly
set something **in** motion**:** start something going
nip something **in** the bud**:** put an end to something before it gets properly started
in no time**:** very soon; very quickly
in order of**:** arranged according to
in order to**:** for the purpose of
in part**:** to some degree
in particular**:** especially
in power**:** (of a political party) holding office
in practice**:** able to do something well because of recent practice; in reality (opposite of **in** theory)
in print**:** (of a book) printed and available from the publisher
in private**:** not in front of other people
in public**:** openly; not in private
in reality**:** really
in reserve**:** saved for later use
in retrospect**:** looking back over past events
in return for**:** as repayment for
be **in** the right**:** be correct
in season**:** (of fruit or vegetables) readily available at that time of year
in a second**:** soon; quickly
in short supply**:** scarce; not easily obtainable
in sight**:** able to be seen
in stock**:** (of goods at a store) present and available
in that case**:** if that is true
in theory**:** ideally; according to theoretical considerations
be **in** time**:** not be late

in touch with in**:** communication with; informed about
in triplicate**:** so that there are three identical copies (of a document)
be **in** trouble**:** be in a difficult situation; be blamed or punished for doing something wrong
in tune**:** at the correct pitch
act **in** unison**:** act together
in vain**:** without success
in the vicinity of**:** near
once **in** a while**:** occasionally
in words of one syllable**:** (explain something) clearly and simply
in working order**:** able to function properly
in the wrong**:** responsible for an error; guilty

Inside
inside out**:** with the inner side out; thoroughly

Into
paint oneself **into** a corner**:** take a course of action which greatly narrows one's future choices of action
go **into** hiding**:** hide oneself
get **into** a rut**:** get into a fixed and uninteresting way of life
get **into** trouble**:** get into a difficult situation; do something deserving blame or punishment

Of
of course**:** certainly; as one would expect; as everyone knows
hard **of** hearing**:** somewhat deaf
next **of** kin**:** nearest relative or relatives
of one's own accord**:** voluntarily; on one's own initiative
of one's own free will**:** voluntarily; by choice
one's point **of** view**:** one's opinion about something
right **of** way**:** public right to use a path or road; (of road traffic) right to proceed before others
rule **of** thumb**:** a simple way to calculate what procedure to follow, based on extensive experience, rather than on theoretical considerations

Off
go **off** the air**:** (of radio or television) stop broadcasting
off duty**:** not engaged in one's regular work
off one's hands**:** no longer one's responsibility
off and on**:** from time to time
off the record**:** say something privately, that is not to be officially recorded
off the track**:** following a wrong line of thought or action

On
on account of**:** because of
be **on** the air**:** (of radio or television) be in the process of broadcasting
on the alert**:** ready to act
be **on** all fours**:** (of a person) be on hands and knees
on the average**:** usually; normally
on behalf of**:** for; in the interests of
on board**:** on a ship or airplane

on business**:** as part of one's work
on condition that**:** only if; provided that
on demand**:** when asked for
on display**:** being exhibited
on duty**:** engaged in one's regular work
on fire**:** burning
to go **on** foot**:** to walk
be **on** one's guard**:** be alert and ready to meet an attack
on hand**:** available
on loan**:** lent and not yet returned
shoot **on** location**:** (of a movie) film in natural surroundings, not in a studio
on the lookout**:** watchful
put something **on** the map**:** cause something to become well-known
get **on** one's nerves**:** annoy; irritate
on no account**:** absolutely not
on the one hand**:** (used to introduce one side of an argument)
on one's own**:** alone; without help
act **on** one's own initiative**:** act independently, without orders from anyone else
on order**:** requested but not yet delivered
on the other hand**:** (used to introduce a contrasting side of an argument)
act **on** principle**:** do something to support a policy
on purpose**:** deliberately
go **on** record**:** say something which is to be officially recorded
on sale**:** being sold at a lower price than usual
on schedule**:** at the correct time; as planned or predicted
on second thoughts**:** after thinking further about something
on a shoestring**:** with a very small amount of money
be **on** the spot**:** be where important events are taking place; be placed in an awkward situation
on the spur of the moment**:** on a sudden impulse
go off **on** a tangent**:** change suddenly to a new line of thought or action
on time**:** at the correct time
walk **on** tiptoe**:** walk on the toes and balls of the feet
accept something **on** trust**:** accept something without proof
on the verge of**:** very close to; about to
on the whole**:** taking everything into consideration

Out of

out of the blue**:** unexpectedly
out of breath**:** (after running) panting from a shortage of oxygen
out of character**:** unlike a person's known character
out of control**:** not able to be regulated or guided
out of danger**:** safe
out of date**:** no longer used; old-fashioned; (of news) no longer true
out of debt**:** having paid one's debts
be **out of** one's depth**:** be unable to handle a situation because of lack of experience
out of doors**:** in the open air; not in a building
out of fashion**:** not fashionable; not presently in common use
out of hand**:** not under control
out of harm's way**:** safe

out of line with**:** in disagreement with
be **out of** one's mind**:** be insane
out of order**:** not functioning properly; (at a formal meeting) not behaving according to the rules
out of the ordinary**:** unusual
out of place**:** unsuitable
out of practice**:** unable to do something as well as one has in past, because of lack of recent practice
out of print**:** (of a book) no longer available from the publisher
out of proportion**:** too big or too small; not having the appropriate relationship to something
out of the question**:** impossible; not to be considered
out of season**:** (of fruit or vegetables) not readily available at that time of year
out of shape**:** (of persons) not in top condition because of lack of exercise
out of sight**:** hidden, not able to be seen
out of stock**:** (of goods at a store) temporarily unavailable
out of style**:** not fashionable
out of touch**:** with not in communication with; not informed about
out of town**:** having temporarily left town
out of trouble**:** not in trouble
out of tune**:** not at the correct pitch
out of work**:** no longer having employment

To
to all intents and purposes**:** in all important ways
to a certain extent**:** partly
to date**:** so far; until now
up **to** date**:** current; modern
see eye **to** eye with**:** agree entirely with
take something **to** heart**:** be much affected by something
made **to** measure**:** exactly suitable; (of clothes) made for a certain person
keep something **to** oneself**:** not tell anyone
to the point**:** relevant

Under
under age**:** below the age of being legally permitted to do something
be **under** arrest**:** be held prisoner and charged with wrongdoing
under the auspices of**:** with the patronage of; supported by
under one's breath**:** in a whisper
under the circumstances**:** because this is true
under consideration**:** being thought about
under control**:** able to be regulated or guided
under cover of**:** protected by; undetected because of
under fire**:** being shot at; being criticized
under the impression that**:** having the idea that
be **under** the influence of**:** be affected by
be **under** oath**:** have sworn to tell the truth
under observation**:** being watched carefully
under restraint**:** prevented from doing something

Up
have something **up** one's sleeve**:** have a secret idea or plan in reserve

With
with impunity**:** without risk of injury or punishment
with the naked eye**:** without using a magnifying lens
with no strings attached**:** (of help given) with no conditions; to be used freely
take **with** a pinch of salt**:** not believe completely
with regard to**:** concerning; about
with respect to**:** concerning; about
tarred **with** the same brush**:** having the same faults
with a vengeance**:** very much; more than usual

Within
within limits**:** to a certain extent; not too much
within living memory**:** within the memory of people now alive

Without
go **without** saying**:** be obvious

See Exercises 3 and 4.

3. Nouns followed by prepositions

The following are examples of nouns which are usually followed by certain prepositions. In the case of phrases which are idioms, the meanings of the phrases are indicated in brackets.

Against
take precautions against

For
have affection for
have compassion for
a reason for
have respect for
have a talent for
pave the way for (prepare for)
make allowances for
an excuse for
have a reputation for
have sympathy for
lie in wait for (ambush)

From
absence from

In
have confidence in
have an interest in
make progress in
have faith in
take part in

Into

have insight into

Of

have an abhorrence of
take advantage of
take command of
an example of
make a fool of
have an impression of
neglect of
a pair of
a possibility of
a proof of
recognition of
a result of
catch sight of (see suddenly)
a survey of
a symptom of
make use of
wash one's hands of (stop caring about and dealing with)
an acknowledgement of
take care of
evidence of
an excess of
make fun of (ridicule)
a lack of
a number of
be part of
make a practice of (do often)
a quantity of
a recollection of
run the risk of (risk)
a sign of
a symbol of
a token of
a way of

On

an attack on
make an impression on
shed light on (explain)
dependence on
play a joke on
have pity on

To

have access to
an objection to
a response to
shut one's eyes to (deliberately ignore a problem)
pay attention to
a reply to
lay siege to (besiege)

Toward or **Towards**

animosity toward(s)
an attitude toward(s)

With

have a connection with
fall in love with
find fault with (criticize)
change places with

See Exercise 5.

4. Adjectives and verbs in the passive voice followed by prepositions

In some cases different prepositions can be used without causing a change in meaning. For instance, the following examples both have the same meaning.
e.g. I was angry **at** them.

I was angry **with** them.

However, in many cases, the use of different prepositions causes a change in meaning. For instance, the past participle **protected** is typically followed by the preposition **from**. However, like many other past participles, **protected** may also be followed by the preposition **by**, where **by** serves to introduce the performer of the action expressed by the past participle.
e.g. The city is protected **from** the soldiers.
The city is protected **by** the soldiers.
The first example indicates that the soldiers are a threat to the city; whereas the second example indicates that the soldiers are protecting the city.

The following are examples of predicate adjectives and past participles of verbs in the Passive Voice which are usually followed by certain prepositions. In addition, it should be kept in mind that most verbs in the Passive Voice can be followed by a phrase beginning with the preposition **by**.

About

anxious about	concerned about
curious about	depressed about
doubtful about	enthusiastic about
excited about	happy about
pleased about	wrong about
worried about	

At

adept at	alarmed at
amazed at	overjoyed at
shocked at	surprised at

Between

torn between

By

accompanied by	caused by
guided by	manufactured by
obsessed by	written by

For

blamed for	eligible for
famous for	fit for
known for	late for
noted for	praised for
punished for	qualified for
ready for	responsible for
ripe for	sorry for
suitable for	

From

absent from	apart from
derived from	descended from

detached from
distinct from
far from
omitted from
removed from
separated from
different from
exempt from
isolated from
protected from
safe from

In

absorbed in
engaged in
interested in
disappointed in
immersed in
involved in

Of

accused of
ashamed of
capable of
composed of
convinced of
devoid of
ignorant of
jealous of
regardless of
sure of
suspected of
tired of
afraid of
aware of
certain of
conscious of
deprived of
fond of
independent of
proud of
reminded of
suspicious of
terrified of
worthy of

On

based on
intent on
dependent on

To

acceptable to
accustomed to
addicted to
attached to
close to
comparable to
detrimental to
due to
equivalent to
exposed to
favorable to
impervious to
indispensable to
kind to
next to
obliged to
opposed to
partial to
preferable to
accessible to
adapted to
adjacent to
attributable to
committed to
dedicated to
devoted to
equal to
essential to
faithful to
foreign to
indifferent to
inferior to
loyal to
obedient to
oblivious to
parallel to
peculiar to
prior to

proportional to
reduced to
relative to
resigned to
restricted to
sensitive to
subject to
suited to
susceptible to
reconciled to
related to
relevant to
resistant to
senior to
similar to
subordinate to
superior to
tied to

Toward or **Towards**

protective toward(s)

With

acquainted with
associated with
compared with
confronted with
covered with
exasperated with
finished with
infatuated with
pleased with
synonymous with
affiliated with
besieged with
compatible with
consistent with
cursed with
familiar with
identified with
patient with
satisfied with
threatened with

See Exercise 6.

5. Verbs followed by prepositions

The following are examples of verbs which are often followed by certain prepositions.

About

care about
forget about
reminisce about
think about
worry about
complain about
lie about (tell a lie)
talk about
wonder about

Against

discriminate against
react against
turn against
protest against
rebel against

At

aim at
connive at
gaze at
bark at
frown at
glare at

growl at
look at
shoot at
snap at
stare at
wink at
hint at
point at
smile at
sneer at
wave at

For

apply for
beg for
budget for
long for
mourn for
plead for
pray for
press for
search for
substitute for
wait for
apologize for
blame for
hope for
look for
pay for
pose for
prepare for
register for
shop for
vouch for
wish for

From

abstain from
deduct from
desist from
detract from
differ from
escape from
flee from
profit from
quote from
recoil from
refrain from
stem from
benefit from
derive from
deter from
deviate from
divert from
extricate from
infer from
protect from
radiate from
recover from
shrink from
suffer from

In

believe in
indulge in
invest in
persist in
engage in
intervene in
participate in
succeed in

Into

change into
delve into
develop into
fall into
plunge into
sink into
convert into
dip into
divide into
merge into
pry into
transform into

Of

approve of
beware of

conceive of
deprive of
disapprove of
consist of
die of
smell of

On

blame on
depend on
impose on
intrude on
reflect on
report on
subsist on
concentrate on
impinge on
insist on
pounce on
rely on
spy on
thrive on

Over

preside over
trip over

To

adapt to
adjust to
belong to
contribute to
listen to
pertain to
refer to
respond to
revert to
subscribe to
surrender to
adhere to
amount to
conform to
correspond to
object to
prefer to
relate to
resort to
submit to
succumb to
yield to

With

agree with
collaborate with
communicate with
concur with
contend with
cope with
flirt with
share with
associate with
combine with
comply with
consort with
cooperate with
correspond with
mingle with
sympathize with

See Exercise 7.

CHAPTER 27. PHRASAL VERBS

A phrasal verb is an idiom which consists of a verb followed by a preposition, a verb followed by an adverb, or a verb followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition. The phrasal verbs in the following examples are printed in bold type.

e.g. I **ran into** an old friend.
We **put off** washing the dishes.
They all **look up to** him.

In these examples, the phrasal verb **to run into** consists of the verb **to run** followed by the preposition **into**, the phrasal verb **to put off** consists of the verb **to put** followed by the adverb **off**, and the phrasal verb **to look up to** consists of the verb **to look** followed by the adverb **up**, followed by the preposition **to**.

Many phrasal verbs are used more often in informal English than in formal English. In most cases, the ideas expressed by such phrasal verbs may also be expressed by other phrases which are more likely to be used in formal English.

For instance in the table below, the phrasal verbs used in the preceding examples are listed in the left-hand column and other phrases with the same meanings are listed in the right-hand column.

Informal	**Formal**
to run into	to meet unexpectedly
to put off	to postpone
to look up to	to admire

It should be noted that the use of many phrasal verbs varies among the different dialects of English. For instance, in order to express the idea of contacting someone by means of the telephone, the expression **to ring someone up** is frequently used in British English; whereas the expression **to call someone** is frequently used in American English.

Because of differences in dialect, the forms of the verbs and the meanings given may vary from one dictionary to another. In addition, some phrasal verbs have more than one meaning. The meanings provided in this chapter are samples of meanings which are used in North American English.

1. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition

Some phrasal verbs consist of a verb followed by a preposition. As has been seen in previous chapters, it is very common for English verbs to be followed by prepositions. However, in the case of a phrasal verb, the verb followed by the preposition forms an expression with an idiomatic meaning.

For instance, the phrasal verb **to come across** is an idiomatic expression with the meaning **to find**. Similarly, the phrasal verb **to frown on** is an idiomatic expression with the meaning **to disapprove of**.
e.g. We **came across** an old diary while we were cleaning out the attic.
The workers **frowned on** the practice of smoking in the office.

It should be noted that some phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition can be used in the Passive Voice.

e.g. The practice of smoking in the office **was frowned on** by the workers.
The children **were looked after** by their aunt.
In these examples, the phrasal verbs **to frown on** and **to look after** are used in the Passive Voice.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs which consist of a verb followed by a preposition. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Verbs Followed by Prepositions

abide by: adhere to	We **abided by** the rules.
account for: explain	He **accounted for** the discrepancy.
ask for: request	They **asked for** an extension.
bank on: depend on	We are **banking on** good weather tomorrow.
bear with: be patient with	Please **bear with** the delay.
border on: be near, be next to	Their excitement **bordered on** hysteria.
break into: enter by force	Thieves **broke into** the store.
build on: develop from	We want to **build on** our success.
burst into: suddenly enter	He **burst into** the room.
call for: demand	This **calls for** an investigation.
call on: ask, order	We will **call on** you to give a speech.
come across: find accidentally	She **came across** some old papers.
come upon: discover	We **came upon** a small lake.
confide in: share a secret	The two friends **confided in** each other.
count on: depend on	We are **counting on** you.
cut across: use a short route	I **cut across** the parking lot.
dawn on: realize	Finally the truth **dawned on** him.
deal in: stock, sell	He **deals in** gold and jewels.
deal with: handle successfully	She can **deal with** any situation.
decide on: settle on	They **decided on** a course of action.
dispense with: proceed without	The chairman **dispensed with** formalities.
dispose of: get rid of	If he moves, he will have to **dispose of** his furniture.
dwell on: emphasize	He **dwelt on** the risks involved.
enlarge on: say more about	Please **enlarge on** your proposal.
enter into: begin, commence	The brothers **entered into** an agreement.
expand on: say more about	Please **expand on** what you said before.
frown on: disapprove of	Absenteeism is **frowned on**.
get at: reach	The store was so crowded, it was hard to **get at** the food.
get into: become involved with	I don't want to **get into** an argument.
get over: recover from	Have you **got over** the flu yet?
get through: survive, finish	I don't know how I can **get through** all this work.
go against: oppose	Don't **go against** the rules.
go over: review	I would like to **go over** the report again.
go through: examine in detail	Have you **gone through** the evidence?
go with: look good with	Those shoes don't **go with** that outfit.
grow on: become more attractive to	I'm sure the idea will **grow on** you.
guard against: take precautions	We must **guard against** possible attack.
hinge on: depend on	Everything **hinges on** her decision.

inquire into: investigate	Please **inquire into** the alternatives.
keep to: adhere to	The train will **keep to** the schedule.
laugh at: mock, make fun of	Don't **laugh at** me!
launch into: start	He **launched into** an explanation.
leaf through: turn the pages	She **leafed** idly **through** the book.
live on: survive using	What did you **live on**?
look after: take care of	I will **look after** the children.
look into: investigate	He will **look into** the situation.
look through: examine quickly	We **looked through** the magazines while we were waiting.
part with: give up reluctantly	She refused to **part with** her necklace.
pick on: be unkind to	Because he was the youngest, the other boys **picked on** him.
prey on: hunt and eat; disturb	Ospreys **prey on** fish; the idea **preys on** my mind.
provide for: prepare for	We have **provided for** any emergency.
reason with: try to persuade	It is hard to **reason with** an angry person.
reckon on: calculate on	I hadn't **reckoned on** being the center of attention.
rise above: be superior to	He **rose above** his circumstances and managed to succeed.
run across: find accidentally	They **ran across** some interesting information.
run into: meet accidentally	I **ran into** my cousin downtown.
run over: injured by a vehicle	Children must be careful not to be **run over** by cars.
see through: not be deceived by	I instantly **saw through** the disguise.
send for: ask to be sent	You will have to **send for** your transcripts.
settle for: reluctantly accept	Since there was no kale, we had to **settle for** cabbage.
side with: support in a dispute	Why did you **side with** him?
sit through: sit and endure	It was all I could do to **sit through** the lecture without falling asleep.
stand by: support	I hope you will **stand by** me.
stand for: represent	What does the abbreviation <u>etc.</u> **stand for**?
stick to: adhere to	We shall **stick to** the original plan.
stumble across: find accidentally	He **stumbled across** an interesting fossil.
survive on: survive using	During the winter, we had to **survive on** turnips and parsnips.
take after: resemble an ancestor	He **takes after** his grandfather.
tamper with: interfere with	Someone has **tampered with** the lock.
touch on: mention	She **touched on** many important subjects.
verge on: approach	His behavior **verges on** rudeness.
wade through: slowly peruse	We had to **wade through** a pile of documents.
watch over: guard	The shepherd **watched over** the sheep.

See Exercise 1.

a. The position of the object of the preposition

The object of a preposition usually follows the preposition, whether the object is a noun or a pronoun. In the following examples, the objects are underlined.

e.g. We have **launched into** a new <u>project</u>.

We have **launched into** <u>it</u>.

In these examples, the noun **project** and the pronoun **it** are the objects of the preposition **into** of the phrasal verb **to launch into**. Both the noun object and the pronoun object follow the preposition.

See Exercise 2.

b. The position of an adverb of manner modifying the verb
If a verb is followed by a preposition, an adverb of manner may be placed between the verb and the preposition. In the following examples, the adverbs of manner are underlined.
e.g. We **reasoned** patiently **with** the little girl.
I **leafed** quickly **through** the book.

In the first example, the adverb of manner **patiently** is placed between the verb **reasoned** and the preposition **with** of the phrasal verb **to reason with**. In the second example, the adverb of manner **quickly** is placed between the verb **leafed** and the preposition **through** of the phrasal verb **to leaf through**.

See Exercise 3.

c. Stress in spoken English
When a verb followed by a preposition occurs at the end of a clause, it is usually the verb which is stressed in spoken English. In the following examples, the words which are stressed are printed in bold type.
e.g. No one likes to be **laughed** at.
I need someone to **confide** in.

In the first example, the verb **laughed** followed by the preposition **at** occurs at the end of a clause, and the verb **laughed** is stressed. In the second example, the verb **confide** followed by the preposition **in** occurs at the end of a clause, and the verb **confide** is stressed.

It should be noted that, when used in a phrasal verb at the end of a clause, the prepositions **after**, **into** and **over** are often pronounced with somewhat greater emphasis than the verb. In this case, both the verb and the preposition are stressed. For example:
The twins are easy to **look after**.
The building would be difficult to **break into**.
You'll never guess whom I **ran into**.
I heard that someone was **run over**.

The prepositions **above**, **across** and **through** are also occasionally emphasized in this way. For example:
The research papers were difficult to **wade through**.

d. Expressions in which the verb has an object
In the case of some phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition, the verb and the preposition may each have an object. In the following examples, the objects are underlined.

e.g. I can **make** nothing **of** the situation.
We **talked** my sister **into** agreeing.

In the first example, the verb **make** of the phrasal verb **to make of** has the object **nothing**, and the preposition **of** has the object **situation**. In the second example, the verb **talked** of the phrasal verb **to talk into** has the object **sister**, and the preposition **into** has the object **agreeing**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition, where the verb may have an object. The objects of the verbs are underlined. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use. The last example illustrates the use of the Passive Voice.

Verbs followed by Objects followed by Prepositions

drag into: involve unwillingly	Don't **drag** me **into** this discussion!
draw into: involve gradually	We managed to **draw** her **into** the conversation.
drum into: teach by repetition	We **drummed** the safety rules **into** the children.
frighten into: control by fear	The little girl **frightened** her brother **into** obeying her.
hold against: blame for	Please don't **hold** my mistakes **against** me.
lay before: present to	We will **lay** the evidence **before** the court.
let into: allow to share	Shall we **let** her **into** the secret?
make of: understand	Can you **make** anything **of** this message?
read into: find other meanings	You are **reading** too much **into** her remarks.
set against: make antagonistic	She likes to **set** people **against** one another.
set on: order to attack	We will **set** our dogs **on** any intruders.
talk into: persuade	Can you **talk** him **into** changing his mind?
thrust upon: force upon	We **thrust** the responsibility **upon** the treasurer.
write into: add to in writing	The terms were **written into** the lease.

2. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb

Many phrasal verbs consist of a verb followed by an adverb. Some of these phrasal verbs are intransitive and some are transitive.

For instance, the intransitive phrasal verb **to show up** is formed from the verb **to show** followed by the adverb **up**. In the following example, the phrasal verb does not have an object.
At ten o'clock, her brother **showed up**.

The following are examples of intransitive phrasal verbs which consist of a verb followed by an adverb. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Intransitive Verbs followed by Adverbs

blow over: pass	I wonder when the trouble will **blow over**.
boil away: disappear by boiling	If the water **boils away**, the stew will burn.

boil over: overflow by boiling — The soup **boiled over**.
bounce back: recover — He **bounced back** from his previous defeat.
buckle down: work seriously — You may fail your courses if you don't **buckle down** to work.
catch on: be widely accepted — Do you think the idea will **catch on**?
cloud over: become overcast — Although it **clouded over** in the afternoon, the rain held off.
die down: become less — After a few days, the excitement **died down**.
double up: bend over — We were **doubled up** with laughter.
drop in: visit — Please **drop in** any time.
fade away: become less — The sound gradually **faded away**.
fall off: become less — Attendance at the concerts has **fallen off**.
get away: escape — I hooked a fish, but it **got away**.
get by: barely succeed — She studied just hard enough to **get by**.
give in: admit defeat — I will never **give in**!
go on: continue — Please **go on**. Don't let me interrupt you.
grow up: become an adult — What do you want to do when you **grow up**?
keep on: persist in — He **kept on** changing the subject.
level off: stop rising — Prices finally **leveled off**.
log on: contact a computer — Do you know how to **log on**?
log off: break contact with a computer system — The system was overloaded, so I had to **log off**.
move in: take possession of living quarters — When are you **moving in**?
move out: give up possession of living quarters — He **moved out** yesterday.
nod off: go to sleep — Half the bus passengers **nodded off**.
pass out: faint — It was so hot, I almost **passed out**.
pitch in: help — If everyone **pitches in**, the work will be done in a few minutes.
play along: pretend to agree — Let's **play along** until we find out what his plans are.
pull in: arrive (of vehicles) — The bus **pulled in** next to the curb.
pull out: leave (of vehicles) — The train **pulled out** at ten o'clock.
set off: leave — They **set off** at six o'clock in the morning.
settle down: become peaceful — After the excitement, the students found it difficult to **settle down**.
settle in: become used to — How are you **settling in** to your new job?
show up: arrive — She **showed up** at noon.
stay up: not go to bed — We **stayed up** until midnight.
step down: resign — He **stepped down** for health reasons.
step in: intervene — The government had to **step in** to save the business.
take off: leave the ground — The plane **took off** on time.
touch down: land (of planes) — The plane **touched down**.
tune in: find a station on the radio — We **tuned in** to listen to the hockey game.
watch out: beware — **Watch out**! The roads are icy.
wear off: gradually disappear — The feeling of excitement gradually **wore off**.

See Exercise 4.

The transitive phrasal verb **to sort out** is formed from the verb **to sort** followed by the adverb **out**. For example:

We **sorted out** the papers.

In this example, the phrasal verb **sorted out** has the object **papers**.

The following are examples of transitive phrasal verbs which consist of a verb followed by an adverb. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Transitive Verbs followed by Adverbs

back up: support	I will **back up** your story.
bail out: rescue	If you run into difficulties, who will **bail** you **out**?
break in: make something new fit for use	I **broke in** my new hiking boots.
breathe in: inhale	We **breathed in** the fresh air.
breathe out: exhale	I **breathed out** a sigh of relief.
bring back: return	She **brought back** her library books.
bring around: persuade	We gradually **brought** her **around** to our point of view.
bring up: raise	**Bringing up** children is never easy.
butter up: flatter	We **buttered** him **up**, hoping that he would agree to our proposal.
call in: ask to assist	I think it is time we **called in** an expert.
call off: cancel	We **called off** the meeting.
call up: telephone	Why don't you **call** him **up**?
cheer on: cheer, encourage	I will be there to **cheer** you **on**.
chop down: fell	They **chopped down** the dead tree.
clean up: tidy	The mayor asked everyone to help **clean up** the city streets.
fend off: repel	The goalie **fended off** every attack.
ferret out: find with difficulty	We managed to **ferret out** the information.
figure out: solve, understand	I can't **figure out** what happened.
fill in: complete	Please **fill in** this form.
fill out: complete	I **filled out** the form.
fill up: make full	We **filled up** the glasses with water.
give back: return	I **gave back** the bicycle I had borrowed.
give off: send out	Skunk cabbage **gives off** an unpleasant odor.
hand down: give to someone younger	The tradition **was handed down** from father to son.
hand in: give to person in authority	The students **handed** their assignments **in** to the teacher.
hand on: give to another person	I am not sorry to **hand** the responsibility **on** to you.
hand over: transfer	We had to **hand** the evidence **over** to the police.
hang up: break a telephone connection	After receiving a busy signal, I **hung up** the phone.
hold back: restrain, delay	He is so enthusiastic, it is hard to **hold** him **back**.
iron out: remove	I am sure we can **iron out** every difficulty.
knock out: make unconscious	Boxers **are** often **knocked out**.
lap up: accept eagerly	The public **lapped up** the story.
lay off: put out of work	The company **laid off** seventy workers.

leave behind: leave, not bring	I accidentally **left** my umbrella **behind**.
leave out: omit	Tell me what happened. Don't **leave** anything **out**!
let down: disappoint	We will **let** him **down** if we don't arrive on time.
live down: live so that past faults are forgotten	This will be hard to **live down**!
look up: find (information)	We **looked up** the word in a dictionary.
make up: invent	She likes to **make up** stories.
pass up: not take advantage	I couldn't **pass up** such an opportunity.
pension off: dismiss with a pension	He was **pensioned off** at the age of sixty.
phase in: introduce gradually	The new program will be **phased in** over the next six months.
phase out: cease gradually	The practice will gradually be **phased out**.
pick up: collect	You may **pick up** the papers at the office.
pin down: get a commitment	When the guest speaker is **pinned down**, we can set a date for the conference.
play down: de-emphasize	He **played down** the importance of the news.
point out: draw attention to	She **pointed out** the advantages of the proposal.
polish off: finish	We **polished off** the rest of the apple pie.
pull down: demolish	Many old buildings are **pulled down** to make way for new ones.
pull off: succeed	Do you think she can **pull off** her plan?
put away: put in proper place	It is time to **put** the toys **away**.
put back: return to original location	Please **put** the book **back** on the shelf.
put off: postpone	We cannot **put off** the meeting again.
reel off: recite a long list	She **reeled off** a long list of names.
rope in: persuade to help	We **roped in** everyone we could to help with the work.
rub out: erase	Be sure to **rub out** all the pencil marks.
rule out: remove from consideration	None of the possibilities can be **ruled out** yet.
scale down: reduce	Because of lack of funds, we had to **scale down** our plans.
sell off: dispose of by selling	We **sold off** all the books and furniture.
set back: delay	This could **set back** the project by several years.
shout down: stop from speaking by shouting	The crowd **shouted down** the speaker.
shrug off: dismiss as unimportant	He attempted to **shrug off** the mistake.
single out: select from others	You have been **singled out** for special attention.
size up: assess	I quickly **sized up** the situation.
sort out: organize	It will take some time to **sort out** this mess.
sound out: talk with to learn the opinion of	We attempted to **sound** him **out**.
stammer out: stammer	They **stammered out** their apologies.
sum up: summarize	He **summed up** the discussion in a few well-chosen words.
summon up: gather	I attempted to **summon up** my courage.
take in: absorb	We tried to **take in** the new information.
take out: invite to a restaurant	May I **take** you **out** for supper?
take over: assume control	They will **take over** at the beginning of June.
talk over: discuss	Let us **talk** it **over** before we decide.
tear up: destroy by tearing	She **tore up** the letter.

think over: consider	I need some time to **think** it **over**.
think up: invent	What will they **think up** next?
track down: search for and find	We finally **tracked** him **down** at the bookstore.
trade in: give as part payment	Why don't you **trade in** your old vacuum cleaner for a new one?
try on: test clothes by putting them on	I **tried on** the new suit, but it didn't fit me.
try out: test by using	Would you like to **try out** my fountain pen?
turn away: refuse admission	The event was so popular that many people had to be **turned away**.
turn back: reverse direction	Every fall the clocks must be **turned back** by one hour.
turn off: deactivate by using a switch	I **turned off** the radio.
turn on: activate by using a switch	Please **turn on** the light.
water down: dilute	The soup has been **watered down**.
wear out: gradually destroy by wearing or using	My jacket is **wearing out**, although it is only a year old.
write down: make a note	I **wrote down** the instructions.
write off: cancel, regard as	They were forced to **write off** several irretrievable debts.
write up: compose in writing	I used my notes to **write up** the report.

See Exercise 5.

a. The position of the object of the verb

In the case of transitive phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, if the object of the verb is a noun, the object can usually either follow or precede the adverb. In the following examples, the objects are underlined.

e.g. I **called off** the meeting.

I **called** the meeting **off**.

In the first example the object **meeting** follows the adverb **off**, while in the second example the object **meeting** precedes the adverb **off**.

However, in the case of a few phrasal verbs, a noun object must usually follow the adverb.

e.g. We attempted to **smooth over** the disagreement.

In this example, the phrasal verb **to smooth over** is followed by the noun object **disagreement**. In this case, the object **disagreement** cannot be placed before the adverb **over**.

The following are examples of transitive phrasal verbs where a noun object must usually follow the adverb. Each phrasal verb is accompanied by its meaning and an example of its use. The objects of the verbs are underlined.

Verbs followed by Adverbs followed by Noun Objects

drum up: raise	She has **drummed up** support for the plan.
paper over: repair superficially	They attempted to **paper over** their differences.
smooth over: improve	We tried to **smooth over** the situation.

In the case of transitive phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, if the object

of the verb is a pronoun, the object must usually precede the adverb. In the following examples, the pronoun objects are underlined.
e.g. I **called** it **off**.
We attempted to **smooth** it **over**.
In these examples, the pronoun object **it** precedes the adverbs **off** and **over**.

See Exercise 6.

Most transitive phrasal verbs may be used in the Passive Voice.
e.g. The meeting was **called off** by me.
The disagreement was **smoothed over**.
In these examples, the phrasal verbs **to call off** and **to smooth over** are used in the Passive Voice.

b. The position of an adverb of manner modifying the verb
In the case of a phrasal verb consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, the verb and the adverb usually may not be separated by an adverb of manner. In the following example, the adverb of manner is underlined.
e.g. I hurriedly **called off** the meeting.
In this example, the adverb of manner **hurriedly** precedes the phrasal verb **called off**. The adverb **hurriedly** may also be placed at the beginning or the end of the sentence, but may not be placed between the verb **called** and the adverb **off**.

c. Stress in spoken English
When a phrasal verb consisting of a verb followed by an adverb occurs at the end of a clause, it is usually the adverb which is stressed in spoken English. In the following examples, the words which are stressed are printed ion bold type.
e.g. How did that come **about**?
Please drop **in** whenever you have time.
In the first example, the verb **come** followed by the adverb **about** occurs at the end of a clause, and the adverb **about** is stressed. In the second example, the verb **drop** followed by the adverb **in** occurs at the end of a clause, and the adverb **in** is stressed.

d. Ergative verbs
It should be noted that there are a few phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, which have the same meaning whether they are used transitively or intransitively. For example:
The engineer **slowed down** the train.
The train **slowed down**.

In the first example, the phrasal verb **to slow down** is used transitively, with the object **train**. In the second example, the phrasal verb **to slow down** is used intransitively, without naming the originator of the action. In these two examples, it can be seen that the object of the transitive verb is the subject of the intransitive verb. However, the general meaning of the two sentences is the same. Verbs which can be used in this way may be referred to as **ergative verbs**.

The following are examples of expressions which can function as ergative phrasal verbs. Each ergative phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and examples of its use.

Ergative Phrasal Verbs

blare out: make a loud sound	The loudspeakers **blared out** the music. The music **blared out**.
blow up: destroy by an explosion	Troops **blew up** the bridge. The bridge **blew up**.
break up: break into pieces	The icebreaker **broke up** the ice. The ice **broke up**.
burn down: destroy by fire	We **burned down** the old barn. The old barn **burned down**.
calm down: become calm	I **calmed down** the child. The child **calmed down**.
dry out: become dry	The sun **dried out** the earth. The earth **dried out**.
get across: transmit	We **got** our point **across** to the audience. Our point **got across** to the audience.
liven up: become lively	He **livened up** the party. The party **livened up**.
pull through: recover from, survive	The doctor **pulled** her **through** the illness. She **pulled through** the illness.
roll up: wrap into a cylinder	I **rolled up** the window blind. The window blind **rolled up**.
shut down: close, stop working	They **shut down** the factory. The factory **shut down**.
wake up: stop sleeping	I **woke** her **up**. She **woke up**.
wash out: remove by washing	We **washed out** the dye. The dye **washed out**.
wear away: gradually remove	Water **wore away** the rock. The rock **wore away**.
wear out: gradually destroy by using	I **wore out** the sweater. The sweater **wore out**.

3. Distinguishing between verbs followed by prepositions and verbs followed by adverbs

It has been seen that the position of pronoun objects, adverbs of manner and stress in spoken English varies according to whether a verb is followed by a preposition or by an adverb.

These differences are summarized in the following table. The verbs **to sit** and **to turn** are used as examples. The verb **to sit** is followed by **on** used as a preposition, whereas the verb **to turn** is followed by **on** used as an adverb.

Verb followed by Preposition	**Verb followed by Adverb**
Pronoun object is placed after the preposition: I sat on **it**.	Pronoun object is placed before the adverb: I turned **it** on.
Adverb of manner may be placed	Adverb of manner may not be

between verb and preposition:	placed between verb and adverb:
I sat **quietly** on it.	I **quietly** turned it on.
Verb is stressed:	Adverb is stressed:
This is what I **sat** on.	This is what I turned **on**.

Because of the differences summarized above, it is important to be able to distinguish between a verb followed by a preposition, and a verb followed by an adverb.

a. Adverb phrases of location compared with phrasal verbs followed by objects
In many cases, it is necessary to distinguish between an ordinary verb followed by an adverb phrase of location, and a phrasal verb followed by an object.
e.g. I turned up the street.
I turned up the volume.

In the first example, the verb **turned** is followed by the adverb phrase of location **up the street**. In the second example, the phrasal verb **turned up** is followed by the object **volume**. In this example, the phrasal verb **turned up** has the meaning **increased**.

In the first example, **street** is the object of the preposition **up**. If the object is changed to a pronoun, the pronoun must follow the preposition:
I turned up the street.
I turned up it.

In the second example, **volume** is the object of the phrasal verb **turned up**. If the object is changed to a pronoun, the pronoun must precede the adverb **up**.
I turned up the volume.
I turned it up.

In the first example, if the verb is modified by an adverb of manner, the adverb of manner may precede the adverb phrase of location:
I turned up the street.
I turned quickly up the street.

In the second example, if the verb is modified by an adverb of manner, the adverb of manner may not be placed between the two parts of the phrasal verb:
I turned up the volume.
I quickly turned up the volume.

See Exercises 7 and 8.

b. Words used as prepositions or adverbs
It is also necessary to be able to distinguish between a phrasal verb consisting of a verb followed by a preposition, and a phrasal verb consisting of a transitive verb followed by an adverb. In many cases it is possible to make the distinction by means of the preposition or adverb following the verb.

For example, the following words are used in phrasal verbs as prepositions, but are not usually used in phrasal verbs as adverbs following transitive verbs:

after	against
at	before
by	for
from	into
of	to
toward	with
without	

In contrast, the following words are used in phrasal verbs as adverbs following transitive verbs, but are not usually used in phrasal verbs as prepositions:

along	aside
away	back
behind	down
forward	out
together	up

It should be noted that of these words, **aside**, **away**, **back**, **forward**, **out** and **together** are usually never used as prepositions. In contrast, the words **along**, **behind**, **down** and **up** are often used as prepositions, but are not usually used as prepositions in phrasal verbs.

See Exercises 9 and 10.

The following words present more difficulty, since they can be used in phrasal verbs both as prepositions and as adverbs following transitive verbs:

across	around **or** round
in	off
on **or** upon	over
through	

Thus, it is advisable to study which phrasal verbs use these words as prepositions, and which phrasal verbs use these words as adverbs. The following table gives examples of phrasal verbs containing each of these words. The left-hand column gives phrasal verbs consisting of verbs followed by prepositions, while the right-hand column gives phrasal verbs consisting of transitive verbs followed by adverbs.

Words used as Prepositions or Adverbs

Verb + Preposition	**Transitive Verb + Adverb**
come **across**	get **across** (an idea)
cut **across**	put **across** (an idea)
run **across**	
stumble **across**	

Verb + Preposition	**Transitive Verb + Adverb**
hang **around**	bring **round**
lounge **around**	
mill **around**	
pass **around**	
rally **round**	

show **around**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
confide **in**	break **in**
deal **in**	breathe **in**
join **in**	call **in**
	fill **in**
	hand **in**
	phase **in**
	rope **in**
	take **in**
	trade **in**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
glance **off**	call **off**
keep **off**	fend **off**
warn **off**	give **off**
	lay **off**
	pair **off**
	pension **off**
	polish **off**
	pull **off**
	put **off**
	reel **off**
	sell **off**
	shrug **off**
	turn **off**
	write **off**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
bank **on**	cheer **on**
border **on**	hand **on**
build **on**	try **on**
call **on**	turn **on**
come **upon**	
count **on**	
dawn **on**	
decide **on**	
dwell **on**	
enlarge **on**	
expand **on**	
frown **on**	
grow **on**	
hinge **on**	
live **on**	
pick **on**	
prey **on**	
reckon **on**	
survive **on**	
thrust upon	

touch **on**
verge **on**

Verb + Preposition	**Transitive Verb + Adverb**
get **over**	take **over**
go **over**	talk **over**
run **over**	think **over**
watch **over**	paper **over**
	smooth **over**

Verb + Preposition	**Transitive Verb + Adverb**
break **through**	pull **through**
get **through**	
go **through**	
leaf **through**	
look **through**	
sail **through**	
scrape **through**	
see **through**	
sit **through**	
wade **through**	

See Exercise 11.

4. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition

Some phrasal verbs consist of an intransitive verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition. For example:

We **passed by**.
We **passed by** the library.

In the first example, the word **by** of the phrasal verb **passed by** functions as an adverb. In the second example, the word **by** of the phrasal verb **passed by** functions as a preposition which has the object **library**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs which contain words which may function either as adverbs or as prepositions. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and examples of its use. The objects of the prepositions are underlined.

Intransitive Verbs followed by words which may function either as Adverbs or Prepositions

break through: appear	The sun **broke through**. The sun **broke through** the clouds.
do without: survive without	We had to **do without**. We had to **do without** electricity.
glance off: hit and bounce off	The ball **glanced off**.

	The ball **glanced off** the wall.
go without: not have	They **went without**.
	They **went without** food.
hang around: stay near	We **hung around**.
	We **hung around** the movie theater.
join in: become involved in	I **joined in**.
	I **joined in** the game.
lounge around: relax in	We **lounged around**.
	We **lounged around** the living room.
mill around: (of a crowd) move randomly	The students **milled around**.
	The students **milled around** the lobby.
pass by: pass	I **passed by**.
	I **passed by** the house.
rally round: gather to give support	We **rallied round**.
	We **rallied round** our class president.
sail through: succeed easily	She **sailed through**.
	She **sailed through** the exam.
scrape through: barely succeed	They **scraped through**.
	They **scraped through** the course.
turn off: leave a road	We **turned off**.
	We **turned off** the main highway.

a. Expressions in which the verb has an object

There are a few phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition, where the verb may have an object. In the following examples the objects are underlined.

e.g. We **passed** the candies **around**.

We **passed** the candies **around** the class.

In each of these examples, the verb **passed** of the phrasal verb **to pass around** has the object **candies**. In the first example, the word **around** functions as an adverb, while in the second example, the word **around** functions as a preposition with the object **class**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition, where the verb may have an object. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and examples of its use. The objects of the verbs and prepositions are underlined. The last example illustrates the use of the Passive Voice.

Verbs followed by objects followed by words which may function either as Adverbs or Prepositions

cross off: put a line through	I **crossed** his name **off**.
	I **crossed** his name **off** the list.
pass around: distribute	I **passed** the papers **around**.
	I **passed** the papers **around** the class.
show around: conduct on a tour	We **showed** the visitors **around**.
	We **showed** the visitors **around** the city.
tide over: provide for temporarily	This money will **tide** me **over**.
	This money will **tide** me **over** the weekend.
warn off: warn to leave	We were **warned off**.
	We were **warned off** the premises.

5. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb followed by a preposition

There are several commonly used phrasal verbs which consist of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition. For example:

I **went along with** the idea.

In this example, the phrasal verb **went along with** consists of the verb **to go**, followed by the adverb **along**, followed by the preposition **with** which has the object **idea**.

The following table gives examples of phrasal verbs which consist of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Verbs followed by Adverbs followed by Prepositions

add up to: amount to	It is hard to see what that **adds up to**.
back down from: withdraw, avoid	She never **backs down from** a challenge.
back out of: not fulfill	I wish I could **back out of** the agreement.
boil down to: can be reduced to	All his arguments **boil down to** a belief in the supernatural.
bow out of: withdraw	He **bowed out of** the race.
brush up on: refresh knowledge of	I must **brush up on** my English.
carry on with: continue with	We **carried on with** our conversation.
catch up to: overtake	The boy ran quickly to **catch up with** his friends.
clean up after: tidy for	She spent half her time **cleaning up after** the children.
come down to: can be reduced to	Your choices **come down to** these.
come down with: become ill with	She **came down with** a cold.
come out in: develop	He **came out in** a rash.
come up against: meet an obstacle	They **came up against** many difficulties.
come up with: produce	She **came up with** a solution to the problem.
creep up on: approach undetected	Old age tends to **creep up on** one.
cry out for: urgently require	The education system is **crying out for** improvement.
cut back on: reduce	The government has **cut back on** spending.
do away with: abolish	We want to **do away with** delays.
face up to: accept and deal with	It is best to **face up to** one's problems.
fall back on: turn to for help	Because of unexpected expenses, we had to **fall back on** our savings.
fit in with: be suited to	You don't **fit in with** this group.
fool around with: not be serious, have as a hobby	He likes to **fool around with** computers.
get away with: not be punished	He **got away with** being late for school.
get down to: begin dealing seriously with	It is time to **get down to** business.
get in on: manage to participate in	I want to **get in on** the planning for the new school.
give up on: stop trying	I've **given up on** the situation.
go along with: agree, not resist	I'm willing to **go along with** your idea.

go back on: break a promise	He never **goes back on** his word.
go through with: fulfill, carry out	Are you going to **go through with** your plan to conduct a survey?
grow out of: become too big for	My son has **grown out of** most of his clothes.
hold out for: not compromise	We want to **hold out for** better conditions.
keep up with: be on the same level as	She has a hard time **keeping up with** her brother.
lead up to: be a preparation for	The first thirty chapters of the book **lead up to** the dramatic conclusion.
live up to: maintain a standard	She has **lived up to** her reputation as a great singer.
log on to: contact a computer	She **logged on to** the new system.
look down on: regard as inferior	He **looks down on** his classmates.
look forward to: anticipate	I'm **looking forward to** the holidays.
look out for: watch for	**Look out for** fallen branches.
look up to: admire	We **looked up to** her.
make up for: compensate for	She tried to **make up for** her past mistakes.
pull out of: leave (of vehicles)	The train **pulled out of** the station.
push on with: go ahead, continue	I must **push on with** my work.
put up with: endure, tolerate	Bus passengers must often **put up with** crowded conditions.
read up on: read about	Whenever I travel, I like to **read up on** the place I am going to visit.
rub off on: acquire from someone	Some of his enthusiasm has **rubbed off on** me.
run up against: meet	One **runs up against** many different kinds of people.
send away for: order by mail	We **sent away for** warm winter boots.
stick up for: defend, support	Will you **stick up for** me?
stock up on: lay in supplies	We should **stock up on** bananas.
talk down to: speak patronizingly	He always **talks down to** people younger than he is.
walk away with: win easily	They **walked away with** all the prizes.
watch out for: beware of	**Watch out for** snakes.
wriggle out of: avoid	She always tries to **wriggle out of** her responsibilities.
zero in on: focus on	Let us **zero in on** the heart of the problem.

See Exercise 12.

a. Expressions in which the verb has an object

There are a few phrasal verbs consisting of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition, where the verb may have an object. In the following example, the objects are underlined.

e.g. We **played** them **off against** each other.

In this example, the verb **played** of the phrasal verb **to play off against** has the object **them**, while the preposition **against** has the object **each other**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs consisting of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition, where the verb may have an object. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use. The objects of the phrasal verbs are underlined.

Verbs followed by Objects followed by Adverbs followed by Prepositions

get over with: undergo, finish	If I must visit the dentist, I prefer to **get** it **over with** as soon as possible.
let in on: allow to share	We **let** them **in on** the secret.
play off against: encourage to fight	In the last century, the British weakened their enemies by **playing** them **off against** one another.
put down to: attribute to	We **put** his bad temper **down to** fatigue.
put up to: urge to do wrong	She **put** me **up to** playing a trick on the teacher.
take out on: vent bad feelings on	She **took** her dissatisfaction with her job **out on** her neighbors.
take up on: accept an offer	I would like to **take** you **up on** your offer.
talk out of: dissuade from	We tried to **talk** him **out of** retiring.

CHAPTER 28. CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction may be used to indicate the relationship between the ideas expressed in a clause and the ideas expressed in the rest of a sentence. The conjunctions in the following examples are printed in bold type.

e.g. We could go to the library, **or** we could go to the park.
He **neither** finished his homework **nor** studied for the test.
I went out **because** the sun was shining.

1. Coordinate conjunctions

Coordinate conjunctions are used to join two similar grammatical constructions; for instance, two words, two phrases or two clauses.

e.g. My friend **and** I will attend the meeting.
Austria is famous for the beauty of its landscape **and** the hospitality of its people.
The sun rose **and** the birds began to sing.

In these examples, the coordinate conjunction **and** is used to join the two words **friend** and **I**, the two phrases **the beauty of its landscape** and **the hospitality of its people**, and the two clauses **the sun rose** and **the birds began to sing**.

The most commonly used coordinate conjunctions are **and**, **but** and **or**. In addition, the words **nor** and **yet** may be used as coordinate conjunctions. In the following table, each coordinate conjunction is followed by its meaning and an example of its use. Note the use of inverted word order in the clause beginning with **nor**.

Coordinate Conjunctions

and: in addition	She tried **and** succeeded.
but: however	They tried **but** did not succeed.
or: alternatively	Did you go out **or** stay at home?

nor:	and neither	I did not see it, **nor** did they.
yet:	however	The sun is warm, **yet** the air is cool.

As illustrated above, when a coordinate conjunction joins two verbs which have the same subject, the subject need not be repeated. For instance, in the example **she tried and succeeded**, the pronoun **she** acts as the subject for both the verb **tried** and the verb **succeeded**. It should also be noted that when a coordinate conjunction joins two verbs which do not have the same subject, the two coordinate clauses may be separated by a comma or semicolon, in order to make the meaning clear.

See Exercise 1.

2. Correlative conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are used in pairs, in order to show the relationship between the ideas expressed in different parts of a sentence. For instance, in the following example, the expression **either ... or** is used to indicate that the ideas expressed in the two clauses represent two alternative choices of action.
e.g. **Either** you should study harder, **or** you should take a different course.

The most commonly used correlative conjunctions are **both ... and**, **either ... or** and **neither ... nor**. In the table below, each pair of correlative conjunctions is accompanied by an example of its use. Note that in the construction **if ... then**, the word **then** can usually be omitted.

Correlative Conjunctions

both ... and	He is **both** intelligent **and** good-natured.
either ... or	I will **either** go for a walk **or** read a book.
neither ... nor	He is **neither** rich **nor** famous.
hardly ... when	He had **hardly** begun to work, **when** he was interrupted.
if ... then	**If** that is true, **then** what happened is not surprising.
no sooner ... than	**No sooner** had I reached the corner, **than** the bus came.
not only ... but also	She is **not only** clever, **but also** hard-working.
rather ... than	I would **rather** go swimming **than** go to the library.
scarcely ... when	**Scarcely** had we left home, **when** it started to rain.
what with ... and	**What with** all her aunts, uncles **and** cousins, she has many relatives.
whether ... or	Have you decided **whether** you will come **or** not?

See Exercise 2.

3. Subordinate conjunctions

As has been seen in previous chapters, subordinate clauses may begin with relative pronouns

such as **that**, **what**, **whatever**, **which**, **who** and **whom**, as well as with words such as **how**, **when**, **where**, **wherever** and **why**. In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. The house, which stood on a hill, could be seen for miles.
I wonder how he did that.

In addition, subordinate clauses may also begin with words which are commonly referred to as **subordinate conjunctions**. In the following examples, the subordinate conjunctions are printed in bold type.
e.g. **Because** it was cold, I wore my winter coat.
Let us wait **until** the rain stops.

The subordinate conjunctions below are accompanied by their meanings and examples of use.

Subordinate Conjunctions

As
1. because: **As** he is my friend, I will help him.
2. when: We watched **as** the plane took off.

After
1. later in time: **After** the train left, we went home.

Although or **though**
1. in spite of the fact that: **Although** it was after midnight, we did not feel tired.

Before
1. earlier than: I arrived **before** the stores were open.

Because
1. for the reason that: We had to wait, **because** we arrived early.

For
1. for, because: He is happy, **for** he enjoys his work.

If
1. on condition that: **If** she is here, we will see her.

Lest
1. for fear that: I watched closely, **lest** he make a mistake.

Note the use of the Subjunctive Mood in the clause with **lest**.

Providing or **provided**
1. on condition that: All will be well, **providing** you are careful.

Since
1. from a past time: I have been here **since** the sun rose.
2. as, because: **Since** you are here, you can help me.

So or **so that**
1. consequently: It was raining, **so** we did not go out.

2. in order that: I am saving money **so** I can buy a bicycle.

Note: When used with the meaning **in order that**, **so** is usually followed by **that** in formal English.
e.g. I am saving money **so that** I can buy a bicycle.

Supposing
1. if: **Supposing** that happens, what will you do?

Than
1. used in comparisons: He is taller **than** you are.

Unless
1. except when, if not: **Unless** he helps us, we cannot succeed.

Until or **till**
1. up to the time when: I will wait **until** I hear from you.

Whereas
1. because: **Whereas** this is a public building, it is open to everyone.
2. on the other hand: He is short, **whereas** you are tall.

Whether
1. if: I do not know **whether** she was invited.

While
1. at the time when: **While** it was snowing, we played cards.
2. on the other hand: He is rich, **while** his friend is poor.
3. although: **While** I am not an expert, I will do my best.

In addition, the following phrases are often used at the beginning of subordinate clauses.

As if
1. in a similar way: She talks **as if** she knows everything.

As long as
1. if: **As long as** we cooperate, we can finish the work easily.
2. while: He has lived there **as long as** I have known him.

As soon as
1. immediately when: Write to me **as soon as** you can.

As though
1. in a similar way: It looks **as though** there will be a storm.

Even if
1. in spite of a possibility: I am going out **even if** it rains.

In case
1. because of a possibility: Take a sweater **in case** it gets cold.

Or else

1. otherwise: Please be careful, **or else** you may have an accident.

So as to

1. in order to: I hurried **so as to** be on time.

See Exercise 3.

Certain words, such as **after**, **before**, **since** and **until** may function either as prepositions or subordinate conjunctions. However it should be noted that in some cases different words must be used as prepositions and subordinate conjunctions, in order to express similar meanings. This is illustrated in the table below.

Differing Prepositions and Conjunctions

Meaning	Preposition	Conjunction
for this reason	because of	because
in spite of this	despite	although
at the time when	during	while
in a similar way	like	as if

In the following examples, the objects of the prepositions, and the verbs of the subordinate clauses are underlined.

Preposition: They were upset **because of** the delay.
Conjunction: They were upset **because** they were delayed.

Preposition: **Despite** the rain, we enjoyed ourselves.
Conjunction: **Although** it rained, we enjoyed ourselves.

Preposition: We stayed indoors **during** the storm.
Conjunction: We stayed indoors **while** the storm raged.

Preposition: It looks **like** rain.
Conjunction: It looks **as if** it will rain.

In the above examples, it can be seen that the prepositions **because of**, **despite**, **during** and **like** have the noun objects **delay**, **rain** and **storm**; whereas the subordinate conjunctions **because**, **although**, **while** and **as if** introduce subordinate clauses containing the verbs **were delayed**, **rained**, **raged** and **will rain**.

It should be noted that **like** is sometimes used as a subordinate conjunction in informal English.
e.g. It looks like it will rain.
However, this use of **like** is considered incorrect in formal English.

See Exercise 4.

4. Connecting adverbs

Connecting adverbs are often used to show the relationship between the ideas expressed in a clause and the ideas expressed in a preceding clause, sentence or paragraph. In the following examples, the connecting adverbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. I wanted to study; **however**, I was too tired.
We knew what to expect. **Therefore**, we were not surprised at what happened.

In the first example, the connecting adverb **however** shows that there is a conflict between the idea expressed in the clause **I was too tired** and the idea expressed in the preceding clause **I wanted to study**. In the second example, the connecting adverb **therefore** shows that there is a cause and effect relationship between the idea expressed in the sentence **we knew what to expect**, and the clause **we were not surprised at what happened**.

Connecting adverbs are similar to conjunctions in that both may be used to introduce clauses. However, the use of connecting adverbs differs from that of conjunctions in the ways indicated below.

a. Stress and punctuation

In spoken English, a connecting adverb is usually given more stress than a conjunction. Correspondingly, in formal written English a connecting adverb is usually separated from the rest of a clause by commas, whereas a conjunction is usually not separated from the rest of a clause by commas.

In addition, in formal written English a clause containing a connecting adverb is often separated from a preceding clause by a semicolon; whereas a clause beginning with a conjunction is usually not separated from a preceding clause by a semicolon.
e.g. I wanted to study; **however**, I was too tired.
I wanted to study, **but** I was too tired.
In the first example, the connecting adverb **however** is preceded by a semicolon, and is separated from **I was too tired** by a comma. In the second example, the conjunction **but** is preceded by a comma rather than by a semicolon, and is not separated from **I was too tired** by a comma.

It should be noted that when no conjunction is present, a semicolon may be used to connect two main clauses. For example:
The clouds dispersed; the moon rose.
In this example, the two main clauses **the clouds dispersed** and **the moon rose** are connected by a semicolon rather than by a conjunction.

b. Connecting adverbs used to connect sentences

Unlike conjunctions, connecting adverbs may be used in formal English to show the relationship between ideas expressed in separate sentences. For example:
The wind was strong. **Thus**, I felt very cold.
In this example, the connecting adverb **thus** shows that there is a cause and effect relationship between the ideas expressed by the two sentences **the wind was strong** and **I felt very cold**.

In informal English, coordinate conjunctions are sometimes used to show the relationship between the ideas expressed in separate sentences. For example:
The wind was strong. <u>And</u> I felt very cold.

However, this use of coordinate conjunctions is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

c. Position in a clause

A subordinate conjunction must usually be placed at the beginning of a clause. However, as was seen in the discussion on adverbs, a connecting adverb may be placed at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a clause. This is illustrated below.

e.g. His visit was unexpected. **Nevertheless**, I was pleased to see him.
His visit was unexpected. I was, **nevertheless**, pleased to see him.
His visit was unexpected. I was pleased to see him, **nevertheless**.

d. Examples of connecting adverbs

The following are examples of words which may be used as connecting adverbs. Each connecting adverb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Connecting Adverbs

accordingly: so	He was very persuasive; **accordingly**, I did what he asked.
also: in addition	She is my neighbor; she is **also** my best friend.
besides: in addition	I like the job. **Besides**, I need the money.
consequently: so	She had a fever; **consequently**, she stayed at home.
furthermore: in addition	You should stop smoking. **Furthermore**, you should do it at once!
hence: for that reason	He is a good friend. **Hence**, I was not embarrassed to ask him for help.
however: but	We wanted to arrive on time; **however**, we were delayed by traffic.
likewise: in addition	The region is beautiful. **Likewise**, the climate is excellent.
moreover: in addition	She is very intelligent; **moreover**, she is very ambitious.
nevertheless: but	They are proud. **Nevertheless**, I like them.
nonetheless: but	The ascent was dangerous. **Nonetheless**, he decided to attempt it.
otherwise: if not, or else	We should consult them; **otherwise**, they may be upset.
still: but	It is a long way to the beach. **Still**, it is a fine day to go swimming.
then: 1. next, afterwards	We went shopping, **then** we had lunch.
2. so	If you are sure, **then** I must believe you.
therefore: for that reason	I was nervous; **therefore**, I could not do my best.
thus: so, in this way	He travelled as quickly as possible. **Thus**, he reached Boston the next day.

As indicated in the following table, several connecting adverbs have meanings similar to those of the conjunctions **and**, **but** or **so**.

Connecting Adverbs with meanings similar to And, But and So

Similar to And	Similar to But	Similar to So
also	however	accordingly
besides	nevertheless	consequently
furthermore	nonetheless	hence
likewise	still	therefore

moreover thus

See Exercises 5 and 6.

5. Parallel construction

The repetition of a particular grammatical construction is often referred to as **parallel construction**. This is illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. I am **neither** angry **nor** excited.
The resort contains tennis courts, swimming pools and a snack bar.
In the first example, the two phrases **neither angry** and **nor excited** exhibit parallel construction. In the second example, the three phrases **tennis courts**, **swimming pools** and **a snack bar** exhibit parallel construction.

In English, it is considered preferable to use parallel construction whenever parallel ideas are expressed.

Thus, whenever possible, parallel construction should be employed when correlative conjunctions are used. In the following example, the correlative conjunctions are printed in bold type.
e.g. Incorrect: He has **both** a good education, **and** he has good work habits.
Corrected: He has **both** a good education **and** good work habits.
The first sentence is incorrect, since **both** and **and** are followed by different grammatical constructions. **Both** is followed by the phrase **a good education**; whereas **and** is followed by the clause **he has good work habits**. The second sentence has been corrected by changing the clause **he has good work habits** into the phrase **good work habits**.

The following example illustrates the use of parallel construction with the correlative conjunctions **neither ... nor**.
e.g. Incorrect: She turned **neither** right **nor** to the left.
Corrected: She turned **neither** right **nor** left.
or Corrected: She turned **neither** to the right **nor** to the left.
The first sentence is incorrect, since **neither** is followed by a single word; whereas **nor** is followed by a prepositional phrase. The second sentence has been corrected by changing the phrase **to the left** to the word **left**. Alternatively, as shown in the third sentence, two prepositional phrases can be used.

See Exercise 7.

Parallel construction should also be used when listing a series of ideas. For example:
Incorrect: The hotel is charming, well-situated and is not expensive.
Corrected: The hotel is charming, well-situated and inexpensive.
The first sentence is incorrect, since the first two items in the series, **charming** and **well-situated**, are adjectives, whereas the last item, **is not expensive**, contains a verb. The second sentence has been corrected by changing **is not expensive** to the adjective **inexpensive**.

The following is another example of the use of parallel construction when listing a series of ideas.

e.g. Incorrect: I like to ski, skating and swimming.
Corrected: I like skiing, skating and swimming.
The first sentence is incorrect, since the first item in the series, **to ski**, is an infinitive, whereas the second and third items, **skating** and **swimming**, are gerunds. The second sentence has been corrected by changing the infinitive **to ski** to the gerund **skiing**.

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