

MIHAI MIRCEA ZDRENGHEA ANCA LUMINIȚA GREERE

A PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

with exercises

second edition

Clusium 1999

Coperta: CĂLIN STEGEREAN

Tehnoredactare: ANCA LUMINIȚA GREERE

Culegerea și corectura au fost asigurate de autori.

Tipărit la

IMPRIMERIA "ATLAS CLUSIUM" ("ARCADE") august 1999

©Editura "CLUSIUM" 1999

ISBN: 973-555-217-5

Lucrarea este o gramatică a limbii engleze cu accent pe latura practică. Am încercat să combinăm rigurozitatea academică cu experiența practică pentru a produce o gramatică bine argumentată teoretic și accesibilă în conținut. Eficiența tuturor materialelor practice folosite au fost verificate în clasă ani de zile iar aparatul teoretic a fost astfel conceput, încât să completeze secțiunile practice, oferind în același timp o provocare intelectuală celui care învață limba engleză. Intenția noastră a fost de a oferi un material judicios echilibrat atât pentru lucrul în clasă cât și în afara ei, devenind o lucrare vitală pentru cel care învață limba engleză, dar și una de referință pentru profesori.

Caracterul practic al acestei gramatici ne-a obligat uneori ca unele probleme să fie abordate - din unghiuri diferite - în două sau trei capitole. Astfel *acordul* este menționat atât la pluralul substantivelor cât și la categoriile gramaticale ale verbului, adverbul *enough* atât la infinitiv cât și la adverbe, Aflve-cauzativ atât la participiu cât și la diateza pasivă (pentru comparație) ș.a.m.d. Acest lucru a fost determinat de dorința noastră ca fiecare capitol să fie o unitate completă, independentă. Desigur, referințe de la un capitol la altul se fac ori de câte ori este nevoie, astfel lucrarea este ușor de folosit.

Volumul este însoțit de o disketă (ce poate fi obținută prin comandă de la autori: tel. 064-149963, 064-144743), care conține partea practică (exercițiile și rezolvarea lor) precum și informații relevante pentru rezolvarea exercițiilor. Deși cartea poate fi folosită fără disketă, folosirea disketei implică accesul la materialul teoretic din lucrare.

The following symbols have been used:

to refer to main subchapters

to refer to subchapters

to indicate something worth remembering

A

to indicate an observation i.e. exceptions

to point out specific items within the observation frame or within the subchapters

to indicate an exercise of the type 'fill-in', 'complete'

to indicate a translation exercise

to indicate revision exercises

CONTENTS

1. The Noun	11
1.1. <i>number</i>	12
1.2. <i>case</i>	46
1.3. <i>gender</i>	56
2. The Adjective	69
2.1. <i>classification of adjectives</i>	69
2.2. <i>adjective building</i>	71
2.3. <i>usage of adjectives</i>	80
2.4. <i>modification of/by adjectives</i>	83
2.5. <i>adjectives and other word-classes</i>	* 94
2.6. <i>degrees of comparison</i>	105
3. The Article	129
3.1. <i>indefinite article</i>	129
3.2. <i>definite article</i>	136
3.3. <i>zero article</i>	140
3.4. <i>nouns that have an unstable relation to the article</i>	149
4. The Pronoun	163
4.1. <i>personal pronouns</i>	164
4.2. <i>possessive pronouns</i>	176
4.3. <i>'self-pronouns</i>	182
4.4. <i>reciprocal pronouns</i>	188
4.5. <i>demonstrative pronouns</i>	190
4.6. <i>interrogative pronouns</i>	197
4.7. <i>relative pronouns</i>	204
4.8. <i>indefinite pronouns</i>	212
5. The Numeral	227
5.1. <i>cardinals</i>	228
5.2. <i>ordinals</i>	233
5.3. <i>fractions</i>	236
5.4. <i>collective numbers</i>	237
5.5. <i>multiplicative/distributive</i>	237
5.6. <i>expressions with numerals</i>	237
5.7. <i>punctuation marks and other special signs</i>	238
5.8. <i>concord with the verb</i>	240

6. The Verb 244

6.1. types of verbs	245
6.1.1.-6.1.4. auxiliaries	245
6.1.5.-6.1.16. modal verbs	250
6.1.17. regular and irregular verbs	279
6.1.18. troublesome verbs	294
6.1.19. phrasal verbs	297
6.2. agreement of verb and other word classes	299
6.3. verbal forms	306
6.3.1.-6.3.21. tenses	307
6.3.22.-6.3.23. voice	364
6.3.24.-6.3.25. mood	379^
6.3.26. aspect	390'
6.3.27.-6.3.31. non-finite verbal forms	403

7. The Adverb

442

7.1. types of adverbs

7.2. modification of/by adverbs

7.3. comparison of adverbs

7.4. adverbs and adjectives

442 463 466 467

8. Subordinate Clauses

472

8.1. direct object clauses and the sequence of tenses 472

8.2. clauses of place, time and manner 475

8.3. if-clauses 475

8.4. clauses of purpose 486

8.5. clauses of result 488

8.6. clauses of concession 490

8.7. clauses of contrast, exception and sentential relative clauses 492

8.8. clauses of reason and comparison 493

9. Direct and Indirect Speech

496

9.1. direct speech

9.2. indirect speech

9.3. free indirect speech

496 501 519

A Practical English Grammar

1. THE NOUN

DEFINITION:

A noun is the name of anything that may be the subject of discourse. Hence the noun is the naming word It is a little difficult to define the limits of this part of speech. Generally, the different

parts of speech are marked off by formal criteria:

The chief criteria, by which nouns as such are distinguished from other parts of speech, are **the formation of the plural by means of the ending -s** and **the formation of the genitive in 's**. Neither of these criteria is absolute and applicable to all nouns; there are nouns which form no plural, and there are a great many nouns from which the genitive is never formed.

Another criterion is **the capability of taking an (adjective) adjunct**. Especially when a word can take one of the articles *the* and *a* before, we seldom hesitate to reckon it among nouns.

If we make the **content** a criterion, other difficulties appear; here the chief distinction between nouns and adjectives is, of course, that the former have an **association of substance** while the latter have an **association of quality**.

As a conclusion all three criteria must be taken into consideration when we want to point the limits of this part of speech.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS:

In modern English form does not play an important part in the identifying or the classifying of nouns for inflectional purposes, since more nouns are now declined alike, form and gender having little influence on the inflections of nouns.

According to their **FORM**, nouns can be classified as:

simple nouns compound nouns phrasal nouns

According to their **MEANING**, nouns can be classified as:

proper nouns common nouns

names of materials (mass nouns) collective nouns

11

The Noun

Nouns can be classified as:

concrete nouns abstract nouns

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE NOUN

The following categories will be discussed:

1.1: number

1.2. case

1.3. gender

1.1 THE NUMBER

DEFINITION:

The form assumed by a noun to show whether it denotes one thing or more than one is called *the number*. When one thing is spoken of, the noun is **SINGULAR**; when two or more things are spoken of, the noun is **PLURAL**.

FORMATION:

The Regular Plural. Some nouns form the plural in a regular way, by

1.1.1. adding the inflection -s or -es. *girl/girls*

The Irregular Plural Other nouns are subject to irregular patterns of forming the plural such as:

1.1.2. mutation: *foot/feet*

1.1.3. adding of the inflection -en: *child/children*

1.1.4. changing of -/into -v : *half/halves*

1.1.5. the zero plural: *sheep/sheep, Chinese/Chinese* **1.1.6.** the foreign plural: *radius/radii, larva/larvae*

The Plural of Compounds. Some nouns form the plural in different ways. These are

1.1.7. compound nouns : *man-of-war/men-of-war*

The Plural of Proper Nouns

1.1.8. proper nouns may also have a plural form.

The Plural of Abbreviations, Numbers and Letters of the Alphabet These categories act like nouns in some cases and they form plurals in a specific way:

1.1.9. abbreviations:

bro.(brother)/bros.(brothers)

1.1.10. numbers : *the 1980's or the 1980s*

1.1.11. letters: *i's*

12

MEANING VARYING WITH NUMBER

There are 1.1.12. nouns that change their meaning from the singular to the plural

1.1.13. nouns that have two plural forms that are different in meaning

CONCORD WITH THE VERB

The classes of nouns mentioned earlier will concord with the verb according to their given form, be it singular or plural. But there are other classes of nouns for which concord is determined either by the nature of the noun or by the meaning intended when the noun is used. These are:

The Invariables There are nouns that have an invariable form, either resembling the singular or the plural.

Singular invariables always make a singular concord with the verb. These are

1.1.14. uncountable nouns : *gold, music*

1.1.15. proper nouns : *Henry*

1.1.16. some nouns ending in -s : *news*

Plural invariables have a plural form and always make a plural concord with the verb. These are:

1.1.17. nouns formed out of two parts: *scissors*

1.1.18. some proper nouns : *the Netherlands*

1.1.19. some nouns ending in -s: *thanks, wages*

1.1.20. some collective nouns: *cattle, police*

Nouns that Make Concord According to the Meaning Intended There are nouns that have either a singular form or a plural one but that make the concord according to the meaning intended. These are

1.1.21. collective nouns : *team, government*

1.1.22. some nouns ending in -ics : *acoustics, tactics*

1.1.23. adjectives acting as nouns: *the rich, the new*

1.1.24. the words '*means*', '*people*', '*youth*', '*head*'

1.1.1. The REGULAR PLURAL formed by adding the inflection -s

There are nouns that form the plural in a regular way. These, according to their form-be it singular or plural-make the concord with the

13

The Noun

finite verb. The general rule for forming the plural number of such a noun is by adding the inflection -s to the singular.

PRONUNCIATION:

In speech the regular plural has three different pronunciations (/iz/, /z/, /s/) depending on the final sound of the base.

Nouns **ending in silent -e preceded by a fricative** add an extra syllable in taking the -s:

bridge/bridges, corpse/corpses, box/boxes and these will be pronounced /iz/.

Nouns **ending in vowels and voiced sounds other than voiced sibilants** are to be pronounced /ɪz/ :
bed/beds, hero/heroes

Nouns **ending in voiceless sounds other than voiceless sibilants** are to be pronounced /s/ :
bet/bets, month/months

. SPELLING:

The -s suffix is written -s after most nouns including those ending in silent -e.

Addition of -es

Nouns **ending in a fricative, unless written with a silent -e (-s, -z, -x, -ch, -sh, -ss, -zz)** add **-es** to the singular noun to build up their plurals, thus by adding a syllable:

box/boxes, tax/taxes, watch/watches Nouns **ending in -th** are exceptional, usually adding -s only:
mouth/mouths, path/paths

Treatment of -y

If the noun ends in -y and -y is **preceded by a consonant**, the plural takes the form of **-ies**:

cry/cries, try/tries.

In proper names, however, we simply add the inflection -s to the singular:

Mary/Marys

Nouns **ending in -quy** form the plural in -ies, because in such words the **u** does not make a diphthong with **y** but the qu (=kw) is regarded as a double consonant:

colloquy/colloquies 14

A Practical English Grammar

NOUNS ENDING IN -O

If the noun ends in **-o** and **the -o is preceded by a consonant**, the plural is generally formed by adding -es:

Negro/Negroes, tomato/tomatoes.

But all nouns ending in **-o preceded by a vowel** form the plural in -s and not in -es:

bamboo/bamboos, embryo/embryos, folio/folios

Some nouns ending in -o preceded by a consonant,	
form the plural in -s and	not in -es:
<i>grotto/grottos</i>	<i>memento/mementos</i>
<i>proviso/provisos</i>	<i>piano/pianos</i>
<i>canto/cantos</i>	<i>solo/solos</i>
<i>tango/tangos</i>	<i>soprano/sopranos</i>
<i>tobacco/tobaccos</i>	<i>concerto/concertos</i>

Proper names add also -s :

Neros, Romeos, Filipinos **Abbreviations** ending in -o add also -s:

kilos < kilogram, photos < photograph, pros < professional

There are a few nouns ending in -o which form the plural		
both in -s and	-es:	
SG.	PL. in -s	PL. in -es
<i>archipelago</i>	<i>archipelagos</i>	<i>archipelagoes</i>
<i>banjo</i>	<i>banjos</i>	<i>banjoes</i>
<i>buffalo</i>	<i>buffalos</i>	<i>buffaloes</i>
<i>cargo</i>	<i>cargos</i>	<i>cargoes</i>
<i>commando</i>	<i>commandos</i>	<i>commandoes</i>
<i>domino</i>	<i>dominos</i>	<i>dominoes</i>
<i>flamingo</i>	<i>flamingos</i>	<i>flamingoes</i>
<i>mosquito</i>	<i>mosquitos</i>	<i>mosquitoes</i>
<i>motto</i>	<i>mottos</i>	<i>mottoes</i>
<i>tornado</i>	<i>tornados</i>	<i>tornadoes</i>
<i>volcano</i>	<i>volcanos</i>	<i>volcanoes</i>

15

The Noun

7.2. IRREGULAR PLURAL formed through mutation

There are nine nouns which form the plural by a change of the inside vowel:

woman/women,

foot/feet,

mouse/mice,

goose/geese,

tooth/teeth,

louse/lice,

titmouse/titmice, dormouse/dormice, man/men.

The plural of *mongoose*, however awkward it may sound, is *mongooses* since the word is not compounded with *goose*.

The compounds formed with *man* have no distinction in speech between plural and singular:

postman/postmen, *Englishman/Englishmen*. -

16

I

A Practical English Grammar

1.1.3. The IRREGULAR PLURAL formed by adding the inflection -en

There are four nouns which form the plural in -en or -ne: *brother/brethren*, *cow/kine*, *child/children*, *ox/oxen*.

t^	The plural form <i>brethren</i> has suffered a	change in
	meaning: 'fellow members of a religious	society' otherwise
	the plural is regular:	
	<i>brothers</i> .	
12?°	The noun <i>penny</i> also admits two plural	forms having a
	different meaning:	
	<i>pence</i> in British currency: <i>Here</i>	<i>is ten pence</i> .
	<i>pennies</i> for individual coins: <i>Here are ten pennies</i> .	

1.1.4. The IRREGULAR PLURAL formed by changing -f into -v

Nouns ending in -f form the plural by adding the inflection -s: *chief/chiefs*, *roof/roofs*, *belief/beliefs*, *cliff/cliffs*.

Sometimes, if the noun ends in -f or -fe, the plural is formed by changing -f or -fe into :

-ves

SG.	PL.	SG.	PL.
<i>knife</i> /	<i>knives</i> ,	<i>wife</i> /	<i>wives</i> ,
<i>life</i> /	<i>lives</i> ,	<i>wolf</i> /	<i>wolves</i> ,
<i>self</i> /	<i>selves</i> ,	<i>elf</i> /	<i>elves</i> ,
<i>calf</i> /	<i>calves</i> ,	<i>shelf</i> /	<i>shelves</i> ,
<i>loaf</i> /	<i>loaves</i> ,	<i>leaf</i> /	<i>leaves</i> ,
<i>thief</i> /	<i>thieves</i> ,	<i>sheaf</i> /	<i>sheaves</i> ,
<i>half</i> /	<i>halves</i>		

17

The Noun

A

The plural of the painting term *still life* is a regular one: *still lifes*.

Some nouns ending in -f or -fe have both the regular form in -s and the exceptional one in -ves:

SG.	PL.
<i>wharf</i> /	<i>wharves</i> and <i>wharfs</i>
<i>hoof</i> /	<i>hooves</i> and <i>hoofs</i>
<i>scarf</i> /	<i>scarves</i> and <i>scarfs</i>
<i>staff</i> /	<i>staves</i> and <i>staffs</i>
<i>beef</i> /	<i>beeves</i> and <i>beefs</i>
<i>handkerchief</i> /	<i>handkerchieves</i> and <i>chiefs</i>
<i>dwarf</i> /	<i>dwarves</i> and <i>dwarfs</i>

There are at least three nouns ending in -fe which form the plural by simply adding -s:

safe / *safes*

strife / strifes
fife / fifes

^

^

18

A Practical English Grammar

1.1.5. The *IRREGULAR PLURAL* formed by the zero plural (the same form in the singular and plural)

Some nouns have the same form for singular and plural either always or in certain contexts. Verbs and reference words used with such nouns are either singular or plural corresponding to the reality expressed by the nouns:

Living beings: *deer, sheep, swine, salmon, trout, cod, etc.* as well as the names of other animals, when used in a hunting context, referred to as **game**:

The fisherman caught two pike. or when the animal is thought of as **food**:

Would you like some more fish?

Collective numerals: *yoke* (of oxen), *brace* (of birds), *dozen*, *head* (of cattle) *score*, *gross*, *stone*.

Hundred, thousand, million, billion, dozen, score, hundredweight take -s when they do not follow a 'definite indication of number. After indefinite numerals both forms are found:

There were hundreds of people in the street;

She bought three score of eggs. In attributive usage, usually the form without -s is found:

a five pound note, a ten-minute conversation,

a six-mile walk, a sixty-acre farm.

Nouns ending in '-s': *barracks, gallows, headquarters, means, works* (factory) and its compounds like *gas-works, iron-works*.

Nouns ending in '-es': *series, species*, which although historically foreign are no longer felt as such.

Die in the expression *The die is cast* is no longer recognized as being connected with *dice*, which also belongs in this category:

one dice/ two dice

Others: *aircraft, counsel* (barrister), *shot* (projectile), **offspring** **Nationality names** (ending in a hissing sound): *Chinese, Japanese, Swiss*

19

The Noun

Some nationality and tribal names are sometimes used without -s :

Bedouin(s), Eskimo(s), Navaho(s)

20

I

A Practical English Grammar

g| 1.1.6. The *IRREGULAR PLURAL* as foreign plural

Foreign plurals. Many nouns taken from other languages have now³ become completely naturalised and form their plurals by adding -s or -es to the singular:

bonus / bonuses, chorus / choruses, area / areas.

However, some have kept their foreign plurals. The largest number of these foreign plurals are of Latin and Greek origin. Some have both forms.

LATIN:

um => a *datum/data, medium /media, stratum/strata,*

addendum/addenda, symposium/symposia,

bacterium/bacteria

but **museum/museums, asylum/asylums, stadium/stadiums**

LATIN:

us => i

LATIN:

a => ae

LATIN: x => ces

LATIN: others

Datum is much less common than its Latin plural *data* ('information, especially information organized for analysis') which in English is usually constructed as a plural: *These data are inconclusive* but often also as a singular, especially in scientific context *This data is inconclusive*.

cactus / cacti also **cactuses**, *focus / foci* also **focuses**, *radius / radii*, *terminus / termini*, *nucleus / nuclei* also **nucleuses**, *bacillus / bacilli*, *stimulus / stimuli* but **bonus / bonuses**, **genius / geniuses**, **virus / viruses**
alga / algae, *larva / larvae*, *formula / formulae* also

formulas, *antenna / antennae* also **antennas**,

vertebra / vertebrae also **vertebras**

but **arena / arenas**, **dilemma / dilemmas**, **diploma / diplomas**,

encyclopaedia / encyclopaedias, **era / eras**, **retina / retinas**,

villa / villas

index / indices also **indexes**, *appendix / appendices* (in books) also **appendixes** (anatomical),

matrix / matrices

genus / genera, *stamen / stamina*

21

The Noun

GREEK:

on => a

Words of Greek origin retain their declensional endings, but Anglicised plurals for some of them are now favoured:

.GREEK:

is => es *analysis / analyses*, *axis / axes*, *basis / bases*, *crisis / crises*,
diagnosis / diagnoses, *hypothesis / hypotheses*, *parenthesis / parentheses*, *thesis / theses*
phenomenon / phenomena, *criterion / criteria*

but

demon / demons, **neurone / neurones**, **proton / protons**,

ganglion / ganglions

Some foreign nouns are at half way stage with two plurals, the original plural and the English one. As a rule, the difference is not one of sense, but of style. The foreign plural is characteristic of formal usage, particularly in scientific and academic writing. In some cases the two plurals have different meanings:

index / indices (algebraical signs) and *indexes* (tables of contents);

genius / genii (spirits) and *geniuses* (men of genius).

There are also words borrowed from other languages that in certain circumstances retain their original endings in the plural:

HEBREW:

ITALIAN:

cherub / cherubim (cherubs), *seraph / seraphim* (seraphs)

bandit / banditti (bandits), *virtuoso / virtuosi* also **virtuosos**

Confetti (from Italian *confetto*, which is not used in English) takes a singular verb.

Graffiti (lacking a singular form) takes the plural.

FRENCH:

beau / beaux, *bureau / bureaux*

22

A Practical English Grammar

5:::S

1.1.7. The PLURAL of Compounds

A compound noun forms the plural by **adding -s to the principal word**:

step-son/step-sons,

fath er-in-law/fath ers-in-law.

In either case it is not the distinguishing word or phrase that receives the suffix -s but the noun qualified by it.

23

The Noun

PLURAL IN THE FIRST ELEMENT

When the **first part of the compound is described by what follows**, the first element is pluralized:

court-martial/courts-martial, man-of-war/men-of-war, mother-in-law /mothers-in-law.

PLURAL IN BOTH ELEMENTS

A few words made up of two noun forms pluralize both elements:

Knight-Templar/Knights-Templars,

Lord Lieutenant/Lords Lieutenants

Lord Chancellor/Lords Chancellors,

Lord Justice/Lords Justices, etc.

Here the two nouns are in apposition, the distinguishing noun being placed first to qualify or restrict the second. The second element is the only one that could claim the suffix -s. The first element is pluralized through attraction.

PLURAL IN FINAL ELEMENT

The final part is pluralized when **what precedes it describes the final element**:

fountain pen/fountain pens, goldsmith/goldsmiths,

workman/workmen, trade-union /trade-unions

Englishman /Englishmen, boy friend/ boy friends ,

footstep/footsteps,

attorn ey-gen eral/attorn ey-gen erals.

When the compounds are made of words **none of which may be regarded as the principal element**, the -s is added to the last word: *forget-me-not/forget-me-nots, merry-go-round/merry-go-rounds, gin-and-tonic/gin-and-tonics, grown-up/grown-ups, close-up/close-ups, take-off/take-offs.*

passer-by forms the plural in *passers-by*

castaway is a compound participle used as a noun, which therefore takes the -s at the end of the word: *castaways*

24

I

A Practical English Grammar

When words have been in use so long that they are now regarded as compounds e.g. **handful**, though originally 'a hand full' or 'enough to fill a hand', the plural is formed according to the rules of compound nouns, in this case *handfuls*: *handful/handfuls*. The same for *mouthful/mouthfuls*, *spoonful/spoonfuls*,

touchdown/touchdowns,

breakdown/breakdowns etc.

PLURAL OF COMPOUNDS WITH -MAN, -WOMAN

Compounds with *man-* and *woman-* when they indicate **gender** and have an attributive position, pluralize both elements:

man-servant/ men-servants,

woman-cook/women-cooks,

woman doctor/women doctors.

man-eater/man-eaters, woman hater/woman haters as *man-* /*woman-* here identify the main noun (*eater, hater*) and do not indicate sex.

Compounds with ***-man as the second element***, change ***-man*** into ***-men*** in spelling:

postman/postmen,

fireman/firemen,
gentleman/gentlemen.

However, the pronunciation is often the same with the singular.

German, Roman, Norman, Mussulman are not compounds with **-man**, so they form the plural by adding -s to the end of the word:

Germans, Romans, Normans, Mussulmans.

The combination '**title + name**' is to be found in the plural with the suffix attached either to the title (formally) or to the name (in colloquial speech):

the Misses Brown or the Miss Browns.

25

The Noun

^

'::,:ä

|||| ^

.....■^A|::!"_ä"||^:::~?

26

I

A Practical English Grammar

1.1.8. The PLURAL of Proper Nouns

Proper nouns usually take the singular and are invariable: *Henry, the Thames*

But some proper nouns may take a plural form:

When the proper noun is reclassified as a common noun:

There are Shakespears all over the world meaning

'authors like Shakespeare'

When they are family names and reference is made to the whole family. *The Wilsons are out to lunch* meaning 'the Wilson family'

Some geographical names are plural invariables: *the Netherlands, the Alps.*

If the proper nouns are used in the plural as mentioned above then the forming of the plural is done by adding -s to the singular:

Mary /Marys, Brown /Browns, etc. Certain proper nouns ending in a fricative add -es:

Burns/Burnses, Cox / Coxes, Dickens /Dickenses,

Proper names **with titles** form their plurals by pluralizing only the title or by pluralizing only the name.

Misses Brown or Miss Browns. Titles pluralize as follows:

Miss I Misses, Mr. I Messrs.,

Madam I Mesdames, Master I Masters. Mrs. has no plural, hence the name must show the pluralization. When a title precedes two or more names, the title only is pluralized:

Dr. Bright and Dr. Smith => Drs. Bright and Smith **Foreign proper names** usually form their plurals in the English way:

the Borgias, the Duponts, the Ariostos.

1.1.9/10/11. The PLURAL of Abbreviations,

Numbers and Letters of the Alphabet

ADDING OF 'S OR -S

Letters of the alphabet, numerical characters and other small symbols used as nouns form their plurals by adding -s: *Dot this i / dot your i's; one and too many /two and's too many cancel the 4 /cancel your 4's; in the 1980s*

27

The Noun

Many **abbreviations** are pluralized in the regular way by adding -s to

the singular: *bro.* (brother) *dr.* (doctor) *lb.* (pound) *ms.* (manuscript) *MP.* (member of parliament) **PhD** (doctor)
bro. (brothers) *drs.* (doctors) *lbs.* (pounds) *mss.* (manuscripts) *MP's* or *MPs.* (members) *PhD's* or *PhDs* (doctors)

DOUBLING THE INITIALS

The initials are doubled to signify the plural of certain **abbreviations**: /. (line)

//. (lines)

p. (page)

pp. (pages)

/ (following page)

ff. (following pages)

SINGULAR=PLURAL

A few **abbreviations** have the same form in the singular and plural: *ft.* (foot)

ft. (feet)

deg. (degree)

deg. (degrees)

fig. (figure)

fig. (figures)

Heb./Hebr. (Hebrew)

Heb./Hebr. (Hebrews)

1.1.12. Nouns with different meanings in the plural and the singular

There are nouns which have **one meaning in the singular and another in the plural**:

<i>advice</i>	(counsel)	<i>advices</i>	(information)
<i>air</i>	(atmosphere)	<i>airs</i>	(demeanour)
<i>compass</i>	(range or extent)	<i>compasses</i>	; (an instrument)
<i>copper</i>	(a metal)	<i>coppers</i>	(pennies)
<i>force</i>	(strength)	<i>forces</i>	(army)
<i>good</i>	(benefit)	<i>goods</i>	(movable property)
<i>return</i>	(coming back)	<i>returns</i>	(statistics)

There are nouns which have **two meanings in the plural against one in the singular**:

colour (tint)	<i>colours</i> (kinds of colour / flag of regiment)
<i>custom</i> (habit)	<i>customs</i> (habits / toll or tax)
<i>effect</i> (result)	<i>effects</i> (results / goods)

28

A Practical English Grammar

There are nouns which have **two meanings in the singular against one in the plural**:

abuse (wrong use / reproaches)	abuses (wrong uses)
foot (part of body / infantry)	feet
horse (cavalry / a quadruped)	horses
people (a nation / persons)	peoples
(parts of body)	
(quadrupeds)	
(nations)	

7.7. / J. Nouns with two plural forms

There are some nouns which have two forms in the plural; each form with a separate meaning of its own: *brother* - *brothers*

brethren *cherub* - *cherubim*

cherubs *cloth* - *cloths*

clothes *cow* - *cows*

kine *die* - *dies*

dice *staff* - *staves*

staves

(sons of the same mother) (members of the same society) (angels of a certain rank) (images or models of a cherub) (kinds of pieces of cloth) (articles of dress) (individual cows) (cattle)

(stamps for coining) (small cubes used in games) (departments in the army) (sticks or poles)

29

The Noun

1.1.14. SINGULAR INVARIABLES (have only a singular form) as uncountable nouns

Countable vs. Uncountable. Many material things and many phenomena, both natural and psychological are uncountable by their very nature.

Only countables may be used in the singular and plural. In the singular they must have either an article (*a, an, the*) or a determinative (*each, every, this, etc.*)

Both countables and uncountables may be used with *some* (*some* + countable = a few; *some* + uncountable = a certain amount) and with the definite article *the*.

The most common categories of uncountables are: **gases, fluids, food, natural phenomena, materials** (with particles too small to count), **metals, cereals, abstractions, fields of study, other intangibles.**

TRANSFORMING UNCOUNTABLES INTO COUNTABLES

Some names of raw or manufactured materials do not ordinarily admit of plurals: *bread, butter, coffee, cotton, flour, milk, hay, gold, silver;*

soap, chocolate, toast, sugar, beef, mutton, pork, etc.

because they are **uncountable**. They may become **countable** if a word is supplied in front of them.

There are also other categories of **uncountables**: gases, natural phenomena, cereals, abstractions (ideas, ideals, modes of behaviour, emotions, qualities, etc) which appear with certain expressions when **countable**:

news, furniture, equipment, advice, information, lightning, thunder, work, corn, luck, jewellery, luggage, music, smoke, grass, laughter.

The expression that will premodify the noun in order to make it countable is referred to as **a partitive**.

There are three types of partitives to express **quantity** of mass nouns:

1. measures: length: *a foot of water, a yard of cloth* area: *an acre of land, 50 sqm of room* volume: *a pint of beer, a gallon of petrol* weight: *an ounce of gold, a ton of coal*

30

A Practical English Grammar

2. **typical partitives** (restricted to specific words) *a suit of armour, a block of ice, a sip+drinks (of whisky), a dab+colour(of red), a word of +advice, information*

Typical partitives may be **containers**:

a tin+food (of soup),

a glass+drink (of milk),

a bowl+food (of rice)

A spoonful of..., a handful of..., bucketful of... may also be partitives.

3. **general partitives** (can be used with any uncountable noun, even if this has a typical partitive) *a piece of..., a bit of..., an item of...* (mainly with abstract nouns)

There are also general partitives that express **quality**: *a kind of..., a sort of...: a delicious sort of bread*

Partitives are used to refer to

one item: *a loaf of bread*

a part of a whole: *a slice of bread*

a collection of items: *a packet of biscuits*

Here is a list of uncountables together with their countable partitives: **FOOD and DRINK**:

a loaf/slice of bread,

a cube/block of ice

a hottle/glass/pint/sip of milk,

a piece of toast

a pound of pork/beef/mutton

a joint/ chunk/ roast/ piece of meat

a rasher of bacon

a bit/ bowl/ grain of rice

*a glass/pint/crate of beer
a packet/pound of butter,
a pound of flour;
a bar of chocolate
a lump/a pound of sugar;
a pinch of salt
a whiff of garlic
an ear of corn
a glass/splash of water
a sip/pot/cup of tea/coffee*

.11

The Noun

NATURAL PHENOMENA :

*a beam of light
a puff/wisp/column/ribbon of smoke
a clap/bolt/roll of thunder
a spell of warm/dry weather
a drop of rain a flash of lightning a breath of fresh air a gust of wind*

MATERIALS:

*a tuft /blade of grass
a strip/piece/acre of land
a stick/piece of chalk
a scrap/sheet/piece/pad of paper
a block of concrete
a pile of rubbish
a piece of luggage
a tube of toothpaste
an article of clothing
a piece/set/suite/article of furniture
a piece of equipment
a grain of sand
a stack of hay
a ball of string
a strand/lock of hair
a lump/piece of coal
a piece of jewellery
a bar of soap
a set of cutlery
a speck of dust
a stretch of road
an ounce of gold/silver*

ABSTRACT NOTIONS:

*a piece/an item of news a piece/word/bit of advice a piece/stroke/spell of work a burst/peal/roar of
laughter an attack of nerves a hint of trouble an attack of fever a course of treatment a state of
emergency an item of business
an ounce of energy
a piece/item of information
a stroke/piece of luck
a piece of music
a wink of sleep
a feat of endurance
a feat of passion
a term of imprisonment
a word of abuse
a piece of evidence*

When countability as to quantity or number is to be attached to an uncountable noun a countable word (a partitive) must be supplied in front of it.

32

A Practical English Grammar

^

NOUNS HAVING BOTH FORMS (COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE)

Some uncountable nouns exist in a countable version with a different meaning:

business change (coins) *company* (visitors)

glass

a business / businesses (stores or factories)

a change/changes (alterations)

a company / companies (1. business establishments,

2. military units) *a glass / glasses* (1. receptacles for drinking,

2. mirrors, 3. eye glasses)

33

The Noun

<i>iron</i> (metal)	<i>an iron / irons</i>	(household appliances for smoothing clothes)
<i>lamb</i> (meat)	<i>a lamb / lambs</i>	(animals)
<i>paper</i>	<i>a paper / papers</i>	(newspapers, written composition)
<i>room</i> (space)	<i>a room / rooms</i>	(partitioned areas)
<i>salt</i>	<i>a salt / salts</i>	(saline compounds)
<i>work</i>	<i>a work / works</i>	(pieces of literary/musical compositions)
<i>lace</i> (needlework)	<i>a lace / laces</i>	(strings for lacing shoes, etc)
<i>youth</i> (the quality)	<i>a youth / youths</i>	(individual young people)
<i>abuse</i> (insult)	<i>an abuse/abuses</i>	(misuse)
<i>interest</i> (finance)	<i>an interest / interests</i>	(hobby)
<i>beauty</i> (quality)	<i>a beauty / beauties</i>	(a beautiful woman)
<i>talk</i> {idle talk}	<i>a talk/talks</i>	conversation
<i>sound</i> (the sound of...)	<i>a sound/sounds</i>	noise
<i>stone</i> (material)	<i>a stone/stones</i>	individual pieces of material
<i>wood</i> (material)	<i>woods</i>	a little forest

For nouns referring to **MATERIALS** the uncountable version is used when reference is made to the material:

Glass breaks easily. (U) and the countable version when we refer to a thing made out of the material:

Would you like a glass of wine? (C)

For nouns denoting **FOOD** the countable version is used when we refer to single items :

He ate a whole chicken. (C)

I had a boiled egg for breakfast. (C) while the uncountable version is used when they refer to substances :

Would you like some chicken? (U)

There's egg on your tie. (U)

Some uncountables when described **with an adjective** become countable: *The North*

Sea produces oil. (U) / It produces a light oil. (C)

This region produces wine. (U) / It produces an excellent wine. (C)

Words for **DRINKS** are normally uncountable but in the context of ordering drinks they are treated as countables:

Is there some coffee?(U)/I'd like two coffees! (C)

34

A Practical English Grammar

Many uncountable nouns have a countable counterpart that is different lexically:

see a nice little pig (C)

chop trees in the wood (C)

suitcase (C)

shirt (C)

university(C)

meadow (C)

buy Danish pork (U)

import Canadian timber(U)

luggage(U)

cloth(U)

education (U)

grass (U)

^

II O^

1.1.75. SINGULAR INVARIABLES as proper nouns

Proper nouns usually take the singular and are invariable: *Henry, the Thames*

35

The Noun

g| 1.1.16. SINGULAR INVARIABLES as nouns ending in -s

The following classes take the singular although they have a plural form:

true plurals used as singulars: *news, gallows, whereabouts*, (see means)

some games : *billiards, darts, dominoes, checkers, draughts, fives, ninepins, bowls*

some diseases: *measles, mumps, rickets, shingles*.

These diseases may also be used with the plural.

The mumps are/is a dangerous disease for adults.

1.1.17. PLURAL INVARIABLES as nouns formed out of two parts

Summation plurals consist of two equal parts which are joined and always take the plural. In order to make them singular and countable 'a pair of...' will be used:

a pair of scissors, a

pair of trousers.

These are **instruments or tools**: *scissors, tongs, arms, shears,*

pliers, pincers, bellows, spectacles (but 'a spectacle case'), *glasses, scales, binoculars, tweezers,*

braces

articles of dress: *breeches, drawers, trousers* (but 'a trouser leg), *pantaloons, shorts, knickers,*

pants, pyjamas, clothes, flannels, suspenders (but 'a suspender belt'), *tights*

36

2?= Some of them	in combination	a singular	(as
	take	form.	
shown in brackets above):			
	<i>a spectacle case</i>		
(^p Many of these	nouns can take the	indefinite	when
		article	
premodified:	<i>a garden shears,</i>	<i>a curling-tongs</i>	

4mâ 1.1.18. PLURAL

INVARIABLE as proper nouns

S

Some **geographical names** appear always in the plural and take a plural verb:

<i>the Netherlands,</i>	<i>the Midlands</i> (but <i>the Midland region</i>)
<i>the Alps,</i>	<i>the Canaries</i> (<i>the Canary Islands</i>),
<i>the Bahamas,</i>	<i>the Highlands</i> (but <i>'a Highland terrier/</i> <i>fling/character</i>)
<i>the Himalayas,</i>	<i>the Rockies</i> (<i>the Rocky Mountains</i>)
<i>the Pyrenees</i>	<i>the East/West Indies</i>

|S 1.1.19. PLURAL INVARIABLES as nouns ending

in -s

Many of them have also a form

without -s
sometimes

with change in meaning

or merely in premodification.

PARTS OF THE BODY: *^bowels*

entrails *brain(s)*

giblets *gutt*

MISCELLANEOUS WORDS:

amends *annals*

the antipodes *arms (=weapons)*

ashes (but *'ash-tray*) *banns(of marriage)*

troops *clothes*

customs *contents*

credentials *cross-roads*

dregs *fireworks*

funds *goods*

heads or tails? *letters* (man of...)

holidays ("a holiday camp", to be on holiday)

looks *manners*

movables *nuptials*

oats (but *'oatmeal*') *odds*

outskirts *particulars*

premises *headquarters*

regards *remains*

spirits *soapsuds*

slums *spoils*

straits *surroundings*

tropics (The Tropic)f...)valuables

(

victuals *wages*

<i>earnings</i>	<i>winnings</i>
<i>sweepings</i>	<i>beginnings</i>
<i>doings</i>	<i>savings</i>
<i>filings</i>	<i>tidings</i>
<i>lodgings</i>	<i>going-ons</i>

TRUE SINGULARS USED AS PLURALS. By a true singular used as plural we mean that the final -s is part of the original singular noun and not a sign of the plural. Such nouns are liable to be considered a plural form on account of the final -s and all (except *summons*) are now always used as if they were plurals:

<i>riches</i>	<i>alms</i>	<i>eaves</i>
---------------	-------------	--------------

riches

f:|: ^

illS

asfcfcwi bnng happiness,

of our town are most beautiful in spring.

d FA«

38

iB^^

A Practical English Grammar

I I

1.1.20. PLURAL INVARIABLES as collective nouns

Some nouns, singular in form, are used only in a plural sense. These are nouns of multitude: *poultry*, *vermin*, *cattle*, *people*, *gentry*, *police*.

The poultry are doing well.

These cattle are mine.

These vermin do much harm.

These people have returned home, (see 1.1.24)

These gentry are expected today.

The police are following the thief.

1.1.21. SINGULAR or PLURAL CONCORD

ACCORDING TO MEANING for collective nouns

A collective noun is treated as singular if the rest of the sentence suggests that it is naming a singular unit -the SINGULAR stresses the non-personal collectivity of the group:

A good team needs a good captain.

The committee was discussing the proposal

and as plural if it suggests a collection of living things capable of acting separately-the PLURAL stresses the idea of personal individuality within a group:

The team were taking a shower.

The committee decided to reject the proposal by a vote of

five to two.

A collective noun may have a plural form as well and then it always takes the verb in the plural:

The two teams were on the field.

The committees of every school had to get together to take

a vote.

39

The Noun

SPECIFIC COLLECTIVE NOUNS

There are collective nouns that group living beings or things together. These have a restrictive usage: THINGS:

a bunch of grapes a bouquet of flowers a pack of cards a crate of beer a string of beads a flight of stairs a clump of trees a cluster of stars a fleet of taxis a fleet of ships a bundle of rags

ANIMALS:

a gaggle of geese a plague of locusts a pride of lions a colony of ants a swarm of bees a pack of wolves a pack of hounds a flock of birds a herd of deer/cattle a herd of elephants a school of fish

a panel of experts a troupe of dancers a staff of teachers a bevy of girls a company of actors a gang of thieves a mob of rioters a board of directors a tribe of Indians a crowd of people a crew of sailors a litter of puppies/kittens

|||||||i|^

 $||\ddot{\cdot}\ddot{\cdot}-$

| i; ;|*:111: 11; ■ 1î? i

.....
.....
..... J'

i' ■ 'i. '■, ■, ■, ■. 7>; haiie

41

42

ending in -(i)sh: *British, Irish, Spanish, Welsh, Danish* ending in -ch: *French, Dutch* ending in -ese:
Chinese, Japanese

The Chinese are a hard-working people.

1.1.24. SINGULAR or PLURAL CONCORD ACCORDING TO MEANING for some words

'MEANS'

In the following context the **PLURAL** is to be found:

The means he has are great, (meaning 'He is a man of means.')

When 'means' is used with the meaning of **a way of** then the concord will be SINGULAR. *Is there any means of communication?*

'PEOPLE'

When 'people' refers to **a group of persons** then the **PLURAL** will be always used: *The people were out in the streets.*

But when 'people' means **a nationality** then the noun becomes countable and may take both the singular and the plural according to its form.

A people with such a past is liable to start a war. (SG.) The English-speaking peoples are spread all over the world(PL.)

'YOUTH'

When 'youth' is used with the meaning of **'the whole group of young people'** then it will always take the **PLURAL**:

The youth of this nation are always rebelling.

43

The Noun

But the noun 'youth' can be used with the meaning of **'one young person'**. In this case the concord will be done accordingly:

Only one youth disagreed. (SG.)

The police caught several youths. (PL.)

'HEAD'

The noun 'head' may be used in several contexts with different meanings: When it means **'a part of the body'** then it is countable and will be used either in the singular or plural (only when it refers to more individuals) and the concord with the verb will be done accordingly:

His head had a big bump on the side. (SG.)

They shook their heads. (PL.)

When it is used as a **collective number** then although the form is singular it will take a plural concord:

Forty head of cattle were on the ranch. (SG.-form,

PL.-concord)

When used in the expression *Heads or tails?* referring to a coin the noun takes a plural concord.

The heads of this coin represent an emperor.

OTHER REMARKS CONCERNING THE NUMBER

There are survivals of the old inflected plural in *kind, sort, manner*: *These kind of books* (correct: *books of that kind*)

Some nouns, which take the plural form at ordinary times, use the singular instead of the plural to express a specific quantity or number:

a fortnight, twelve pound weight, forty head of cattle,

five fathom deep, a six penny piece, etc.

Occasionally, the plural form is used to intensify the meaning expressed by the singular, or to suggest great quantity or extent: *The sands of the desert.*

Parts of the body, articles of dress, and some abstract nouns (such as *mind, life, death, etc.*) are used in the plural if they refer to several people:

They shook their heads in disbelief.

44

A Practical English Grammar

silea

Abstract nouns which are used only in the singular taken in a general sense, acquire both numbers when they express concrete instances or special aspects of the notion they denote:

He sympathizes with their griefs and joys.

Sometimes, material nouns or abstract nouns are used in the plural with emphatic force:

The blue waters of the Mediterranean Sea.

A number of nouns which express both singular and plural may, *with a change in meaning*, be used only in the singular:

when the name of an animal is used to denote *flesh used as food*: *plates of goose*

when the names of trees are used to indicate the corresponding kind of *wood as material* or as *live plants*.

Material nouns which are used only in the singular express both numbers when they denote different sorts:

There are many different wines on the list.

;ii||i:K:"t:y::|lllllll

fi f

i Qff fff fmfmfm Wfff ffff/%" fittf'ff ffm\$W':;: ■-; ■

the noun *Aair* is used in the singular; *hairs* is used only with the meaning of a few separate *hairs*: *She has a few grey hairs.*

the noun *fruit* is used in the singular. The plural *fruits* denotes different kinds of fruit.

45

The Noun

1.2. THE CASE

DEFINITION:

The relation in which a noun stands to some other word, or the change of form (if any) by which this relation is indicated is called *the case*. Case is the distinction or mark of distinction which denotes the grammatical relation of a noun or a pronoun to other words in communication.

In Old English and in other highly inflected languages the function of a noun can usually be determined by its case forms. In Modern English, however, case markings for both nouns and pronouns have been greatly reduced, nouns having only two and pronouns having only three case forms.

The case will be discussed as follows:

1.2.1. The nominative case

1.2.2. The genitive case

1.2.3. The accusative case

1.2.4. The dative case

In place of the old case inflections certain prepositions are used in Modern English to render some of the meanings expressed in other languages by the genitive, dative, accusative and instrumental cases. The prepositions thus used are: **of, to, for, with** and **by**. Besides prepositions, the fixed word order of the English sentence is also an important means of denoting the various syntactical functions of a noun in the sentences; the subject regularly precedes the predicate-verb, whereas the direct object follows it. A change of word order brings about a corresponding change of the syntactical relation and gives the sentence another meaning.

1.2.1. THE NOMINATIVE CASE

FUNCTION:

The nominative case is sometimes called the subjective case, because its primary function is to name the subject of a finite verb, the subjective complement of a finite verb, the subjective complement of an infinitive that has no grammatical subject of its own or is used absolutely.

46

A Practical English Grammar

USAGE:

Subject of a sentence or clause: *John has gone.* **Predicative.** *He was elected chairman.* **Direct address:** *Mary, may I borrow your book?*

Explanatory modifier (apposition): *This is Mount Vernon, the home of George and Martha Washington.*

Nominative of pleonasm: *Father, mother, brother, sister - all are dead.* **Nominative absolute:** *The teacher being ill, we had no school today.* **Nominative of explanation:** *Heavens! Can this be true?*

1.2.2. THE POSSESSIVE CASE

DEFINITION:

The possessive case is the case of a noun used to indicate possession. Possession, in a grammatical sense, may include more than mere physical possession.

FORMATION:

The 'S Genitive:

The 'OF' Genitive:

1.2.2.1 the adding of *'s* (to the singular) and *'* (to the plural): *the boy's hat (SG.)*, *the boys' hats (PL.)*

1.2.2.2. the use of the preposition *'of* to express the genitive : *the director of the museum*

The Double Genitive: 1.2.2.3 expressing possession both through *'s* and *-of*

a work of Milton's

1.2.2.1. THE S GENITIVE (the inflected genitive)

FORMATION:

In the possessive case SINGULAR *'s* is added to the noun; phonetically this ending is like the plural suffix.

In the PLURAL, in the case of nouns whose plurals are formed with the suffix *-(e)s'*, there is no addition phonetically in the genitive plural. In writing, the genitive is marked by the addition of an apostrophe:

ladies' clothes.

Other nouns form the genitive plural by adding the same suffix as the genitive singular:

men's clothes, children's books.

47

The Noun

In certain cases the phonetic addition is omitted in the genitive singular for reasons of euphemy; thus almost always in the case of names ending in *-es* pronounced *-i(:)z*:

Cervantes's works.

The genitive singular without a suffix of names ending in *-s* or *-z*, formerly a common form, has been kept in a number of established expressions: *St. Agnes' Eve*, *St. Giles' Hospital*, *Guy Fawkes's Day*

The genitive suffix is omitted after the word in *-s* or *-z* in the phrase: *for... sake : for goodness sake, for conscience sake*

The GROUP GENITIVE

The genitive suffix is often added to a substantival phrase: *The Duke of York's eldest son*, *The University of Minnesota's President.*

In formal English the group genitive occurs mainly in established phrases such as the above; in colloquial speech, however, it is used much more freely:

one of the girls in my class's grandmother

the man we met yesterday's wife

If **joint possession** is intended, the apostrophe is placed on the last element of the series:

Beaumont and Fletcher's plays,

Charles and Louise's baby. **Individual possession** requires an apostrophe with each element of the series:

America's and England's problems.

When one group of words is used as one idea, the sign of the possessive is added to the last element of the expression: *The Queen of England's throne.*

Nouns in apposition have the group genitive when the complement of the genitive is stated:

at Smith, the bookseller's office,

but if the complement is omitted, the suffix may also be attached to the first element: *at*

Smith's, the bookseller

or to both: *at Smith's, the bookseller's.*

For the possessive of such expressions as: **anybody else, nobody else, no one else, who else, anyone else** we use an *'s*:

I'll take anybody else's word for it.

48

A Practical English Grammar

.....I

i

I^

GENITIVE of Proper Nouns

Some proper names use the apostrophe and some do not. The form established should be followed in every case. The names of magazines usually retain the apostrophe: *Reader's Digest*

The LOCAL GENITIVE

The genitive of proper names, designations of relationships and tradesmen's designations are used substantially as indications of locality; in these cases the complement is not expressed elsewhere in the content:

St. Paul's was damaged during the war. It denotes:

Institutions of various kinds (restaurants, churches, theatres, sports grounds, hospitals, etc.):

Let's have dinner at Torelli's.

A home: *Were you at uncle John's?*

She left her husband and went to her father's.

A shop: *His wife left the dressmaker's to go and play bridge.*

49

The Noun

ELLIPTIC GENITIVE

Sometimes the noun following the genitive is not expressed but it is explicit or implicit in the context. This noun will be omitted for the sake of avoiding repetition.

My bicycle is better than John's. His memory is like an elephant's.

MEANING OF THE S GENITIVE:

The genitive may be used to express the following meanings: **The Possessive Genitive** refers to the act of **having, possessing something**:

my son's wife = *my son has a wife* **The Subjective Genitive** refers to the act of **having done something**:

the boy's application = *the boy applied*

his parents' consent = *the parents consented* **The Genitive of Origin** denotes the **creator** of something:

the girl's story

the general's letter

The Objective Genitive denotes the fact that the noun in the genitive is the object: *the boy's*

release = *somebody released the boy*

the secretary's promotion = *somebody promoted her*

The Descriptive Genitive denotes the fact that what is in the genitive describes the noun:

a women's college = *a college for women*

a summer's day = *a day in the summer*

With nouns denoting inanimate things both the subjective and the objective genitive are rendered by the of-phrase. The subjective genitive is often replaced by the construction with 'by': *the conquest of the Constantinople by Turks.*

The objective genitive is not common: *The members of the Air Force were charged with Beaumont's murder.* This is usually expressed by an **of-phrase**: *the murder of Beaumont*

50

A Practical English Grammar

USAGE OF THE 'S GENITIVE:

The inflected genitive is mostly used with **ANIMATE nouns**. The following noun classes usually take the inflected genitive, but the -of genitive is also possible in most cases: Proper names:

Washington's statue

Personal nouns: *the boy's new shirt*

Collective nouns: *the Administration's policy*

Some animals: *the horse's neck, the dog's bark*

Sometimes the genitive is used with **names denoting LIFELESS things or ABSTRACT notions** (mainly in poetry). The -of genitive is also an alternative for these classes of nouns:

Geographical names denoting continents, countries, universities, institutions: *Europe's future*
China's development or the nouns **town, city, country, river, ocean, world:**

the river's brink,

the ocean's foam

Expressions of time, space, size, distance, weight, quantity:

Did you read yesterday's newspaper? It was a two miles' walk to the lighthouse. He got his week's pay late.

states, cities,

Present-day English favours the expression without a genitive:

// was a two mile walk to the lighthouse.

It was a two day trip.

Names of seasons, months, days, sometimes:

a winter's day

However, these nouns are generally used without any inflection: *autumn weather, Monday morning*

Nouns of interest to human activity, such as vessels, heavenly bodies and others:

the mind's general development the body's needs the ship's surgeon duty's call

51

The Noun

Some expressions: (these have an alternative with -of)

edge: *the water's edge*

end: *at his journey's end*

surface: *the water's surface*

for...sake: *for charity's sake* Some expressions: (these do not have an alternative with -of)

length: *at arm's length*

reach: *within arm's reach*

throw: *at a stone's throw*

worth: *their money's worth*

;[^]

Some idiomatic expressions:

The possessive case is used in a few set expressions which are the survival of the old time when the genitive was freely used with all nouns in

English:

to stir up a hornets' nest

to one's heart's content

to my mind's eye

to a hair's breadth

to get smg's money's worth

at arm's length

an old wife's tale

to do a hand's turn

to be worth a tinker's curse

to use as a cat's paw

a nine days' wonder

to cast sheep's eyes

at one's wit's end

at one's fingers' ends/tips

out of harm's way
for old acquaintance's sake
on a razor's edge
at a stone's throw
to take the lion's share
a bird's eye view
Hobson 's choice
in the wind's eye

52

A Practical English Grammar

.....JiBIIIMliffi

■'■■■■■'""™' |||||ili;. £; S|||||||;: ::,i": ™|:;|i:s's:Sii|||^ ^|i|||^|^|;;-i:..||||p
 |||||ii|||||ii|||||ii^

7.222 THE PREPOSITIONAL GENITIVE

FORMATION:

It is formed by means of a noun which is preceded by the preposition 'of. It is generally used with neuter nouns: *the cover of the book*.

USAGE:

It is mainly used with inanimate nouns but as we have noted in 1.2.3. many such nouns may be used with the Saxon genitive as well.

In the following cases the 'of-phrase is preferred to the possessive case:

In titles and formal speech or written text, mainly for balance: *the Poetical Works of Robert Browning*
the Collected Works of Walter Scott They toiled for the welfare of the people.

If a genitive governs another genitive, the former is expressed by the 'of-phrase, the latter by the possessive case:

the car of my brother's wife /

The use of the possessive in both nouns is rarely found:

my cousin's wife's first husband, whereas a string of 'of-phrases is common:

*the meeting of the sub-committee of the Non-intervention
 Committee.*

53

The Noun

In cases where the genitive singular and plural are identical in sound, the

genitive plural is generally avoided in speech: *the passenger's luggage, the luggage of the passengers.*

With substantivized adjectives, only the 'of-phrase is possible: *the revolt of the poor*.

When the governing noun is modified by a long phrase or clause the 'of-phrase is used:

the beauty of the girl in the house opposite.

Where the possessive concept is more abstract, expressions with the 'of-phrase are common in addition to the possessive expressions: *He heard his brother's footsteps outside.*

The of-phrase cannot be used with classifying genitives, i.e. genitives which are completely adjectival:

She is a lady's maid

not *She is the maid of a lady.*

1.2.2.3. THE DOUBLE GENITIVE

FORMATION:

The double genitive is formed out of the inflected genitive (the 's genitive) and the periphrastic genitive (the -of genitive).

several pupils of mine USAGE:

The double genitive is used either with a proper name or a common noun designating one particular person:

a nephew of King Leopold's

any old colleague of my son's

The substantival member before *of* is either an indefinite plural form or a noun with the indefinite article, a numeral or an indefinite interrogative or demonstrative pronoun:

lyrics of Donne's
two friends of Jack's
what friends of my father's
that wife of your father's

54

A Practical English Grammar

A noun with the definite article can be followed by the double genitive only when determined by a restrictive relative clause:

The friend of my father's who is going abroad.

With the help of the double genitive it is possible to give the possessive (and subjective) genitive an association of the indefinite:

a first cousin of Victoria's and Albert's.

The double genitive is important because it enables us to make a difference in meaning between:

a portrait of Rembrandt (one portraying him) or

a portrait of Rembrandt's (one painted by/ belonging to him)

a criticism of Shaw (opinion about Shaw)

a criticism of Shaw's (opinions by Shaw).

^^

7.25. THE DATIVE

DEFINITION:

The dative is the case of the indirect object and it answers to the questions: **to whom?**, **for whom?**, **of what?** When it is used without the preposition it is placed before the direct object; if it is placed after the direct object, the dative is preceded by the preposition **to**. The former use is most frequent:

I gave John book. I gave a book to John.

1.2.4. THE ACCUSATIVE

DEFINITION:

The accusative is the case of the direct objects and the modifiers.

55

The Noun

S

;|SiP" U;,::

i.5.

GENDER

Modern English is not an inflected language and therefore it has no grammatical gender in the strict sense of the word. Modern English makes very few distinctions and when they are made the connection between the biological category sex and the grammatical category **gender** is very close.

FORMATION:

The difference in gender between nouns connoting masculine and feminine may either be done through

1.3.1. separate or distinct words: *son/daughter, lord/lady, etc.*

1.3.2. derivation: *lion/lioness*

1.3.3. compounding: *boy-friend/girl-friend*

56

A Practical English Grammar

The following will also be discussed:

1.3.4. the common denominator

1.3.5. the gender of nouns denoting people

1.3.6. the gender of nouns denoting animals

1.3.7. the gender of nouns denoting things

1.3.1. The GENDER DISTINCTION through morphologically unmarked words

In many cases the gender distinction is done through words that are distinct:

uncle/aunt

boy/girl bachelor/spinster
brother/sister king/queen monk/nun

1.3.2. The GENDER DISTINCTION through derivation

Gender distinction may be obtained through suffixation of the masculine or of the feminine in order to obtain a noun of the other gender.

Most commonly the **feminine is obtained from the masculine** with or without change in the spelling of the stem of the word **by adding the suffix -ess**. This suffix is not productive anymore.

In a number of cases the suffix is added to the masculine form without any alteration of the stem: *god/goddess, prince/princess, host/hostess, etc.* In a number of cases the sound of the stem is abbreviated:

adventurer/adventuress, actor/actress, waiter/waitress

In many cases the sound of the stem is so altered that the feminine can hardly be described as a derivative of the masculine:

duke/duchess, master/mistress, emperor/empress, negro/negress, marquis/marchioness, etc. Feminine designators with **other suffixes** are few:

chauffeur/chauffeuse, czar/czarina,
hero/heroine, aviator/aviatrix

Certain nouns, mostly proper, **borrowed** directly from Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, Italian, etc. retain their original gender inflections with or without Anglicized spelling:

Augustus/Augustine, Carl/Caroline, don/donna, Joseph/Josephine, Harry/Harriet, etc.

A few nouns of Old English **append a masculine suffix to a feminine** base:

bridegroom/bride, widower/widow, etc.

57

The Noun

GENDER DISTINCTION through compounding

The sex distinction can also be indicated by compounding an element of known gender with another element.

For people this element may be either man-/woman-, he-/she-, male-/female-etc:

boyfriend/girlfriend, landlord/landlady,
boy cousin/girl cousin, manservant/maidservant.

For animals specific elements will be used as shown below:

cock sparrow/hen sparrow, peacock/peahen, torn cat/tabby cat, he-bear/she-bear,
he-wolf/she-wolf, billy goat/nanny goat, etc.

A Practical English Grammar

1.3.4. The COMMON DENOMINATOR

In addition to the masculine and feminine denotation, there is in some cases a special common gender denotation:

father/mother - parent, cock/hen -fowl,
king/queen - monarch, stallion/mare - horse,
boy/girl - child, boar/sow-pig,
ram/ewe - sheep. In other cases such denotation is lacking:

master/mistress, actor/actress,

brother/sister, etc. In others yet again only a common denotation is found:

cousin, teacher, student, etc. The masculine form often has the additional function of common gender form:

fox/vixen -fox, lion/lioness - lion,
author/authoress - author, etc.

The feminine used as common gender is found in the case of certain designation of animals where

the female is dominant:

drake/duck - duck, gander/goose - goose.

1.3.5. The GENDER of nouns denoting PEOPLE

As has been discussed up to now gender of people is either shown through distinct words or through words derived or compounded one from the other.

But there is still a great number of words that have a dual gender: *artist, cook, criminal, doctor, enemy, fool, guest, librarian, neighbour, student, professor, teacher etc.*

In order to clarify the situation a **gender marker** should be used:

woman-neighbour, male-student.

Many nouns, especially those designating **professions** have a fixed gender, due to the fact that some professions were done usually by women or man: *engineer (male), driver (male),*

nurse(female), secretary (female.)

These nouns, when they refer to the gender one expects will not need a gender marker, but if they refer to the opposite gender then for clarity such a marker will be needed: *a female engineer, a male nurse.*

59

The Noun

Nowadays many such nouns are losing their specific gender, as more and more positions in society are open to both sexes, and are taking on a dual gender.

The distinction can be done by the use of the feminine or masculine **pronoun** also:

Our teacher is late. She is always late.

If we are referring to a noun that denotes a general concept where gender is not known, or it refers to both genders then the pronoun accompanying it will have to have both gender forms:

If a teacher chooses to punish a child, he or she should let

the child know what he or she has done wrong. Collective nouns take the pronouns It or they:

The family is in the house. They are preparing dinner.

The army is on the field. It is preparing to attack.

The NOUN 'BABY' is very interesting with respect to gender, as it may be of neuter gender. A mother is not likely to refer to her baby as *it*, she will refer to the baby as *he/she* but somebody who is emotionally unrelated to the child or is ignorant of or indifferent to its sex will probably use /£

The baby is crying. Do something with it.

The baby is crying. Please, pick him up. (if it is a boy)

The NOUN 'MAN' is a special case as regards gender.

The SINGULAR is used as the common gender form, of the human being as a species: *Man is mortal.*

The PLURAL as the common gender form of human beings in the sense of mankind: *All men must die.*

but apart from these **man** and **woman** except for compounds, are respectively masculine and feminine, so that both words must be used to express common gender: *When a man or woman of ordinary appearance comes into*

our presence, we say 'How do you do' and turn away, but compounds with -man and -woman as the final element differ greatly as to gender. Some compounds with man used to be common gender:

Her duties as chairman...

(but also chairwoman, chairperson),

Her father made a fisherman of her.

Others are masculine only, so that the corresponding form with **-woman** must be used where the feminine gender is in question.

A Practical English Grammar

fi

p£^

^

1.3.6. The GENDER of nouns denoting ANIMALS

All nouns denoting animals may be considered **neuter**. Nouns denoting **birds, fish, insects** and **reptiles** are generally considered as neuter. In this case the pronoun used is '*it*'.

In spoken language there is a tendency to associate names of animals with the **feminine or masculine gender**:

When the noun indicates the sex of the animal-either by a distinct word or by a marker, it is generally spoken of as **he** or **she**.

The baby animal is often referred to as **it**. The noun denoting the baby of different animal species may either be a distinct word or a word derived with -y, or a compound formed with the element **baby-**, or it will simply have the adjective **little** premodifying the common gender noun.

masc.	fern.	baby	common gender
<i>lion</i>	<i>lioness</i>	<i>cub</i>	<i>lion</i>
<i>buck</i>	<i>doe</i>	<i>little deer</i>	<i>deer</i>
<i>bull</i>	<i>cow</i>	<i>calf</i>	<i>cattle</i>
<i>cock</i>	<i>hen</i>	<i>chicken</i>	<i>fowl</i>
<i>dog</i>	<i>bitch</i>	<i>puppy</i>	<i>dog</i>
<i>gander</i>	<i>goose</i>	<i>little goose</i>	<i>goose</i>
<i>stallion</i>	<i>mare</i>	<i>colt</i>	<i>horse</i>

61

The Noun

<i>tiger</i>	<i>tigress</i>	<i>cub</i>	<i>tiger</i>
<i>drake</i>	<i>duck</i>	<i>duckling</i>	<i>duck</i>
<i>tom-cat</i>	<i>tabby-cat</i>	<i>kitten</i>	<i>cat</i>
<i>bull-elephant</i>	<i>cow-elephant</i>	<i>baby-elephant</i>	<i>elephant</i>
<i>he-bear</i>	<i>she-bear</i>	<i>bear cub</i>	<i>bear</i>
<i>fox</i>	<i>vixen</i>	<i>cub</i>	<i>fox</i>
<i>ram</i>	<i>ewe</i>	<i>lamb</i>	<i>sheep</i>
<i>boar</i>	<i>sow</i>	<i>piggy</i>	<i>Pig</i>
<i>he-goat</i>	<i>she-goat</i>	<i>kid goat</i>	<i>goat</i>

When the sex of the animal is not indicated by the noun, nouns denoting larger animals and stronger animals are generally associated with the **masculine** gender, nouns denoting the smaller and weaker animals with the **feminine** gender:

The elephant lifted his mighty trunk.

In fairy tales and fables the gender of the nouns denoting animals depends on the general characteristics ascribed to the animals.

Many animals have only a common gender noun as they do not require a fine gender distinction, this may be due to the fact that the sex is not known:

spider, snake, ant, or that the difference needs not be indicated.

Many animals will take the feminine or masculine pronoun if their sex is known, otherwise the neuter is used.

62

A Practical English Grammar

1.3.7. The GENDER of nouns denoting THINGS and ABSTRACT NOTIONS

Nouns denoting things or abstract notions will normally take the neuter, but they may be made masculine or feminine- through the help of the pronoun- depending on the affection or lack of affection expressed:

What a lovely ship! What is she called?

Some nouns have acquired a gender through their qualities that make them closer to feminine or masculine gender.

FEMININE IS USED WITH THE FOLLOWING NOUNS:

moon, earth

the Arts and Sciences, Fame, Victory, Liberty, Religion, Philosophy,

Adversity, Prosperity, Fortune, Morning

names of vessels (*ship, boat, steamer, etc.*) **names of other vehicles (carriage, coach, car)**

gentler forces of nature and objects, whatever implies fertility or claims attachment: *Church, Nature,*

the Mothercountry, Universities, Cities, spring

the gentler feelings: *Hope, Justice, Mercy, Charity, Faith, Modesty* the inferior passions: *Jealousy,*

Pride, Revenge

names of countries. These are usually referred to as FEMININE especially when the country is not considered a geographical territory, in which case it will be treated as neuter. When the team of a country is referred to in sports the country's name will be used as a collective noun.

This is Spain. It is one of the largest countries of Europe.

England is proud of her poets.

Germany have improved their chances at winning the Cup.

MASCULINE IS USED WITH THE FOLLOWING NOUNS:

sun

Time, Day, Sleep, Death

striking objects in nature and stronger forces (*winds, rivers, mountains, oceans, storms, thunder, summer, autumn, winter*)

violent passions and actions: *love, fear, anger, despair, war, murder*

63

PK

.

NOISIA3V

A Practical English Grammar

^

^

\$^^

?i;-S

^

65

The Noun

^

&

66

A Practical English Grammar

::':

S

•■;;' "':t^S

31 h $t!tMiM^{\wedge}M^{\wedge}MWt\pounds WMSW^{\wedge}$

1111

 $\cdot^{\wedge} l,$

I'S|*32Sl:s::||

li;;<;:l:^:^';-;-:-' f5':i

SSs;;\;^î;^1Ă';-.:'' ; ■■■-■.■■

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{M}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} \right)^2 \right) dx dy dz dt.$$
 $\wedge$

```
:?::;|ip|:
```

42. W ■■■
■; ■; ■ T'v v. : ; ■'^Wj&Ml ■ 'r'M W:. ""!>>^<i0}i -^:"ill
.....x[:|||:;];;|||:]";s_/_v;/ ■
1|.S^""; ^..ife^...4if>fe^;!\$!^i:sr^^Cs.:^::j?^f^:^!ikr";--^is^-^siEitis^^^^?^^?--^!'^-^J:~;i■;...''^

58. "■■-• ,,,•-, ' VT

S^j;..."/V_{...}:-\ ' ':-;.. ■■

68

A Practical English Grammar

2. THE ADJECTIVE

The adjective will be discussed from the following points of view:

- 2.1. Classification of adjectives
- 2.2. Adjective building
- 2.3. Usage of adjectives
- 2.4. Modification of/by adjectives
- 2.5. Adjectives and other word-classes
- 2.6. Degrees of comparison

2.1. CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives may be divided in the following categories:

Proper Adjectives which restrict the application of a noun in such persons or things as are included within the scope of the proper name :

a Portuguese sailor, the English language, the Indian plains

Proper adjectives like proper nouns may be used in a descriptive sense as:

French leave,

British pluck (pluck like that of a Briton)

Proper adjectives are written with capital letters.

Descriptive Adjectives indicating a quality or state restricting the application

of a noun to such a person or thing as possesses the quality or state denoted by the adjective: *a brave boy, a sick lion, a large field*.

Quantitative Adjectives which restrict the application of a noun to such things as are of quantity or degree denoted by the adjective: *much, little, no, none, some, any, enough, sufficient, all, whole, half, etc.*

69

The Adjective

'No' is always an adjective, **'none'** is always a pronoun.

Adjectives of quantity are always followed by a singular noun; this noun must always be a noun of material or an abstract noun.

Numerical Adjectives

may be **definite** (cardinals, ordinals and multiplicative) and **indefinite**:

all, some, enough, no, many, few, etc.

A definite numeral can be made indefinite by placing the word '**some**' or '**about**' before it: **Some twenty men.**

Demonstrative Adjectives may also be **definite**:

this, that, such, the same, the other, these, those and **indefinite**:

a, an, one, any, a certain, certain, such, some, another, any, other.

Distributive Adjectives which restrict the application of a noun by showing that the persons or things denoted by the noun are taken singly or in separate lots: *each, every, either, neither.*

According to their **MEANING** adjectives are divided into:

Qualitative Adjectives which denote qualities of size, shape, colour which an object may possess in various degrees. *They have degrees of comparison. They have corresponding adverbs derived by means of the suffix -ly or homonymous inform with the adjective: nice/nicely, hard/hard.*

Relative Adjectives

which have no degrees of comparison. A few relative adjectives are formed from nouns by means of the **suffix -en**: *wooden, woollen.* *Adjectivized nouns are also freely used with the meaning of relative adjectives: a summer day.*

70

A Practical English Grammar

2.2.ADJECTIVE BUILDING

Adjectives can be formed from other parts of speech by:

2.2.1. derivation, with suffixes and prefixes

2.2.2. composition and conversion

2.2.1. DERIVATION

With Suffixes. Here are the most common suffixes used to form adjectives:

-able (able to): *navigable, returnable*; -al (to do with): *legal, official*; -ant: *defiant, ignorant, rampant*;

-ate: *delicate, desperate*; -ent: *affluent, confident, silent*; -ful: *resentful, regretful*; -ible: *credible*,

inaudible; -ic: *dogmatic, heroic*;

tip In some cases -ic alternates	with -ical , with a difference in meaning :
<i>a classic performance</i> (great, memorable)	<i>classical languages</i> (Latin, Greek)
<i>a comic masterpiece</i> (of comedy)	<i>a comical behaviour</i> (funny, less usual)
<i>an economic miracle</i> (in economy)	<i>an economical car</i> (money-saving)
<i>an electric light</i> (powered by electricity)	<i>an electrical fault</i> (of electricity)
<i>a historic building</i> (with a history)	<i>historical research</i> (pertaining to history)
<i>his 'politic behaviour</i> (tactful, unusual)	<i>po 'litical parties</i> (concerned with politics)

-ish (rather): *oldish, biggish*;

-ish (having the bad qualities of): *childish, amateurish*;

-ish (showing nationality): *English, Danish*;

-ive: *active, effective*;

71

The Adjective

-less: *penniless, boundless, useless*;

-like: *childlike, godlike*;

-ly: (having the qualities of) *fatherly, friendly, deadly*;

-ous: *fabulous, obvious*;

-worthy: *praiseworthy, trustworthy;*
-some: *quarrelsome, troublesome;*
-y: *sandy, stony;*
-en: *golden, silken;*
-ed: *detailed.*

PRONUNCIATION:

The noun suffix **-ity** can be attached to **-al, -ic, -ive, -ous**, but its addition entails certain phonetical changes in the stress pattern: *'neutral* => *neu 'traliy* *electric* => *elec'tricity* *'curios* => *curi'osity*
'active => *ac'tivity*

SPELLING:

Most long verbs **ending in -ate** drop **-ate** before adding **-able**: *navigate/navigable*,
appreciate/appreciable

Adjectives **ending in -y** are mostly formed from uncountable nouns. If the noun ends in **-e**, the **e** is dropped before **-y**:

stone/stony

If it ends in a single consonant preceded by a single short vowel, the consonant is doubled before **-y**

The same spelling changes occur when the **ending -ish** is added: *big/ biggish*

ios

72

I.....B.....I

1.....11..... ::

The Adjective

11§!F^

:!!S

.....^|||||l|||||:-,;:, S: ::

BylSliK

Ill IB

nea>

il;|ES^.....i::ilillil

"y*, ...:

A Practical English Grammar

^

3

V

appropriate adjectives

.....i|||pp|||p:p:-':

S

PP|||lllllllllllll

■^■^lll^PlilililPMisil

With Prefixes. There are no prefixes that are used for adjectives only. For example mis- (bad, badly, wrong) may be used to form the adjective *misguided*, the adverb *mistakenly*, the noun *misfit*, the verb *mislead*, etc.

The most common prefixes used to derive adjectives are: a- (lacking in): *amoral*; dis- (negative) : *disconsolate*, *dishonest*; hyper-: *hypersensitive*, *hyperactive*; in- (negative): *inaccurate*, *inaccessible*;

The prefix in-

before b, m, and p becomes im-: *impracticable*, *impossible*;

before l it becomes il-: *illegible*, *illogical*;

before r it becomes ir-: *irrelevant*, *irresistible*.

mis- (wrongly): *mistrustful*, *misinformed*;

over- : *overconfident*;

pre (before): *pre-war*, *preschool*;

post-: *post-election*;

pseudo (false, imitation): *pseudo-intellectual*;

sub-: *substandard*;

super-: *superfluous*, *supercilious*;

un- (negative): *unprofessional*, *unprintable*;

under- (not enough): *underdone*, *underdeveloped*.

If

1v;;;:

71

The Adjective

:

222 COMPOSITION

Compound adjectives may be formed from: adjective + present participle:

good looking, *pleasant-sounding*, *nasty-looking*; adjective + past participle.

broad-shouldered, *long-legged*, *good-natured*, *fair-haired*,

bad-tempered, *blue-eyed*, *left-handed*, *kind-hearted*,

light-footed, *quick-fingered*; adverb + past participle.

well-dressed, *badly-behaved*, *carefully-worded*,

ready-made, *ill-mannered*, *wrongly-addressed*,

well-known; noun + present participle:

heart-breaking, *soul-destroying*, *back-breaking*; noun + past participle:

hand-made, *tongue-tied*, *machine-made*, *brick-built*,

tailor-made, *home-made*, *worm-eaten*; numeral + noun.

second-hand, *first-year*, *twentieth-century*.

[illegible]

Adjectives may be used as:

2.3.1. Attributes when they qualify the noun directly by premodification so as to make a kind of compound noun: *a noble character*

2.3.2. Predicatives when they qualify the noun indirectly through the verb or predicate going before: *His character is noble. I consider him noble.*

The following types of adjectives may only be used attributively: **Words with Strong Emotive Value:**
you poor man, my dear lady, that wretched woman

Emphasizers have a heightening effect:

Amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm. Some may be used predicatively:

The following intensifying adjectives may be used predicatively sometimes with a difference in meaning, having homonyms. Notice that in the cases when the adjectives are used predicatively there exists also an attributive usage for the meaning conveyed, but for the meaning conveyed

*certain: The victory was certain (a certain victory) = the victory was assured as opposed to a **certain***
person = a particular person. *pure: The water is pure, (pure water) <^> pure nonsense real: The*
flowers are real (real flowers) <=> a real idiot complete: The disaster was complete, (a complete
disaster) <=>
a complete fool total: The destruction is total, (total destruction) <=> total
nonsense

Restrictive Adjectives restrict the reference of the noun. These do not have a predicative counterpart:

Some Adjectives Related to Adverbials. These do not have a predicative counterpart that may convey the same meaning.

my former friend = *formerly my friend* *an old friend* = *a friend of old* *the present king* — *king at present* *an occasional visitor* = *occasionally a visitor* *the late president* = *till lately the president* *the*

former reason = stated formerly

Most of them when following the verb 'to be' will change their meaning although there are cases when used with another noun that the meaning will be retained: *He is an old friend of mine. (I've known him for a long time.)*

He is very old. (=old in years) The old man sat on the bench. (=old in years)

Premodifying Agentive Nouns:

a hard worker = someone who works hard a big eater = someone who eats a lot a good thief = someone who is good at stealing an excellent pianist = someone who plays the piano excellently

81

The Adjective

Denominal Adjectives are adjectives derived from nouns. Out of this group some are restricted to attributive position.

a criminal lawyer = specializing in criminal law an atomic scientist = specializing in atomic science

a woollen dress = made out of wool

E

i^nfaîM-^

2.3.2. ADJECTIVES used PREDICATIVELY

The adjectives that are restricted to predicative position are most like verbs or adverbs. They tend to refer to a (possibly temporal) condition rather than to characterize. For a verification whether an adjective may be used predicatively or not one should place it inside the construction : *He seems...*

Adjectives Referring to Health:

He is ill/well/unwell.

He feels faint.

but *He is sick*, and also 'a sick man'

82

A Practical English Grammar

Adjectives that take Complementation. These are postmodified by a prepositional phrase:

able to

answerable to aware that, of fond of

happy that, to, about (The list will be continued in 2.4.2)

afraid of averse to, from conscious that, of glad that, to, about loath to

Adjectives with the Prefix A-:

alive, awake, asleep, afraid, ablaze, afloat, aghast, alert, alike, alone, ashamed, aware

The synonyms in pre-position are

live or living (alive), waking or wakeful (awake), stray (astray)

Alert and *aloof* are freely used attributively.

Some of the other 'a-' adjectives can occasionally function attributively, though normally only when they are modified: *the half-asleep children, the fully awake patient, a somewhat afraid soldier, a very ashamed girl*. Most of them can be easily modified by: *very, very much, very well*.

2.4. MODIFICATION of/by ADJECTIVES

Adjectives may be

2.4.1. premodified or

2.4.2. postmodified

Adjectives may themselves function as

2.4.3. premodifiers (one adjective)

2.4.4. premodifiers (more than one adjective-order of adjectives)

2.4.5. postmodifiers

83

The Adjective

2.4.1. PREMODIFICATION OF Adjectives

The Adverb may premodify the adjective:

That was a very funny film.

He is Quite right.

There was a somewhat uneasy silence.

Intensifying adverbs:

so large

pretty good

quite wrong

unbelievably fat amazingly calm

Some intensifiers are restricted to a small set of lexical items:

deeply anxious

highly intelligent

strikingly handsome

sharply critical

'Kind of, 'sort of are used as downtoners premodifying various parts of speech among which also the adjective: *He is kind of clever.*

'Viewpoint' Adverbs

politically expedient

artistically justifiable

technically possible

economically weak

Other Adverbs:

openly hostile

easily justifiable

readily available

A.

Adverbs may not premodify adjectives of nationality functioning as nouns, these may be premodified only by adjectives:

The clever Swiss have preferred neutrality over the years.

Other classes of adjectives functioning as nouns may be premodified by adverbs:

The extremely old need a great deal of attention.

Adjectives may premodify adjectives when the premodified adjective functions as a noun:

The rich will help only the humble poor.

The industrious Dutch are admired by the world.

He speaks excellent English.

He is fascinated by the mysterious unknown. 84

A Practical English Grammar

2.4.2. POSTMODIFICATION OF Adjectives

The Adverb 'Enough' postmodifies adjectives: *His salary wasn't high enough. He is not a good enough writer.*

Prepositional Phrases may postmodify adjectives when these act as nouns: *The young in spirit enjoy life. The Irish in America retain links with Ireland.*

or when the adjective take complementation with compulsory prepositions.

The most widely used adjectives or participles, having the role of adjective, with obligatory prepositions are:

about: *angry (also with)*

anxious (also for)

careful

certain

crazy

earnest

mad (also after, on,

for) particular

solicitous

sorry

sure (also to)

glad (also of)

happy

annoyed (also at)

pleased (also at)

worried, etc.

at: *amazed*

astonished

bad

charmed (also with)

clever

delighted

dextrous

disappointed

displeased

excited

frightened

good

slow

incensed

indignant

irritated

offended

pleased

<i>quick</i>	<i>surprised</i>	<i>skilful</i> (also in)
<i>vexed</i>	<i>hopeless</i>	<i>amused</i>
<i>disgusted</i>	<i>puzzled</i>	<i>staggered, etc.</i>
by: <i>affected</i>	<i>appalled</i>	<i>impressed</i>
<i>disgusted</i> (also with,	at), <i>etc</i>	
For: <i>adequate</i>	<i>anxious</i>	<i>apt</i>
<i>beneficial</i>	<i>concerned</i> (also with)	<i>mad</i>
<i>convenient</i>	<i>dying</i> (coll.)	<i>eager</i> (also to)
<i>essential</i>	<i>hungry</i>	<i>inadequate</i>
<i>unfit</i>	<i>fit</i>	<i>inclined</i> (also to)
<i>prepared</i>	<i>sorry</i>	<i>sufficient, etc.</i>
85		
The Adjective		
from <i>alien</i> (also to)	<i>different</i>	<i>immune</i>
:		
<i>opposite</i>	<i>suffering, etc.</i>	
in: <i>deficient</i>	<i>diffident</i>	<i>engaged</i> (also to)
<i>immersed</i>	<i>proficient</i>	<i>skilful</i> (also at)
<i>fortunate</i>	<i>lucky</i>	<i>persistent</i>
<i>experienced</i>	<i>interested</i>	<i>justified</i>
<i>mistaken</i>	<i>unsuccessful</i>	<i>outstanding, etc.</i>
of: <i>afraid</i>	<i>accused</i>	<i>ashamed</i>
<i>sure</i>	<i>capable</i>	<i>sick</i>
<i>fond</i>	<i>conscious</i>	<i>convinced</i>
<i>envious</i>	<i>guilty</i>	<i>ignorant</i>
<i>independent</i>	<i>innocent</i>	<i>jealous</i>
<i>proud</i>	<i>short</i>	<i>aware</i>
<i>tired</i> (also with)	<i>typical</i>	<i>weary</i>
<i>worthy</i>	<i>scared</i>	<i>convinced, etc.</i>
on: <i>bent</i>	<i>dependent</i>	<i>intent</i>
<i>keen</i>	<i>resolvent</i>	<i>sweet</i>
<i>reliant</i>	<i>based</i>	<i>set, etc.</i>
to: <i>able</i>	<i>accustomed</i>	<i>adequate</i>
<i>addicted</i>	<i>adverse</i>	<i>agreeable</i>
<i>alien</i>	<i>ascribed</i>	<i>assigned</i>
<i>attentive</i>	<i>averse</i>	<i>beneficial</i>
<i>blind</i>	<i>close</i>	<i>convenient</i>
<i>cruel</i>	<i>eager</i> (also about)	<i>faithful</i>
<i>hostile</i>	<i>immortal</i>	<i>kind</i>
<i>parallel</i>	<i>related</i>	<i>rude</i>
<i>subject</i>	<i>superior</i>	<i>used</i>
<i>inconceivable</i>	<i>inclined</i>	<i>indifferent</i>
<i>inferior</i>	<i>answerable</i>	<i>opposed, etc.</i>
with: <i>busy</i>	<i>charmed</i> (also at)	<i>comparable</i>
<i>comfortable</i>	<i>concerned</i>	<i>connected</i>
<i>consistent</i>	<i>contented</i>	<i>conversant</i>
<i>delirious</i>	<i>disgusted</i> (also by)	<i>dissatisfied</i>
<i>familiar</i>	<i>furious</i>	<i>enchanted</i>
<i>exited</i>	<i>exhausted</i>	<i>impatient</i>
<i>incensed</i>	<i>identical</i>	<i>indignant</i> (also at),

infatuated *obsessed* *occupied*
overcome (also by) *tired* (also of) *vexed* (also at), etc

86

A Practical English Grammar

il;iK^
 'l:l;
 ^

Zi:Si

Relative Clauses may postmodify adjectives: *The old who resist change. The Polish, who are very rebellious, resisted.*

Finite Clauses with 'that' postmodifying adjectives may have an indicative verb, a subjunctive verb or a construction with 'should' and the subject may be a personal one or 'it':

With a Personal Subject:

I am sure that we'll be late.

I am insistent that he be ready.

I am amazed that he should get the job.

87

1 The Adjective

The following adjectives or participles are used in that-clauses with a

personal subject:

<i>afraid</i>	<i>angry</i>	<i>aware</i>
<i>certain</i>	<i>confident</i>	<i>conscious</i>
<i>glad</i>	<i>grateful</i>	<i>happy</i>
<i>proud</i>	<i>sad</i>	<i>sure</i>
<i>thankful</i>	<i>alarmed</i>	<i>amazed</i>
<i>amused</i>	<i>astonished</i>	<i>depressed</i>
<i>disappointed</i>	<i>disturbed</i>	<i>frightened</i>
<i>pleased</i>	<i>shocked</i>	<i>upset, etc.</i>

With 'It' Subject:

It is true that she never came.

It is expedient that he arrive tomorrow.

It is awkward that he should be late.

The following adjectives are used in that-clauses with an

indicative verb and

an 'it' subject:

<i>apparent</i>	<i>certain</i>	<i>evident</i>
<i>implicit</i>	<i>likely</i>	<i>obvious</i>
<i>plain</i>	<i>possible</i>	<i>probable</i>
<i>true</i>	<i>well-known, etc.</i>	

The following adjectives are used in that-clauses with

a subjunctive verb

and an 'it' subject:

<i>appropriate</i>	<i>advisable</i>	<i>compulsory</i>
<i>crucial</i>	<i>desirable</i>	<i>essential</i>
<i>fitting</i>	<i>inadvisable</i>	<i>imperative</i>
<i>important</i>	<i>necessary</i>	<i>obligatory</i>

preferable

The following adjectives

should':

appropriate

disastrous

fitting

odd

admirable

understandable

disappointing

proper

and participles are used in that-clauses with

awkward

dreadful

fortunate

proper

incomprehensible

alarming

surprising

vital, etc.

curious

extraordinary

important

sad

regrettable

annoying

embarrassing

88

•

A Practical English Grammar

That-clauses cannot be preceded by prepositions. Therefore adjectives which are constructed with obligatory prepositions before noun phrases drop the before that-clauses:

/ am sure of his innocence.

I am sure that he is innocent.

To-Infinitive Clause may also postmodify adjectives: *You are foolish to spend so much. He is hard to convince. She was quick/prompt/slow to react. I was bored / angry / furious/ concerned/ overwhelmed/ satisfied, etc. to hear about it. I am hesitant/reluctant/willing Anduced to agree with you.*

2.4.3. PREMODIFICATION BY Adjectives

Nouns are very often premodified by adjectives:

/ visited his delightful cottage. Adjectives may qualify two or more nouns:

We have here only clever girls and boys. The adjective is repeated to stress the idea expressed by it:

Our University has new libraries and new laboratories.

Adjectives when used as nouns will be premodified by adjectives:

The rich will help the humble poor. Only those adjectives can premodify that have an attributive usage.

2.4.4. PREMODIFICATION BY more than one adjective (ORDER of Adjectives)

Generally two adjectives used in front of a noun are not connected by the conjunction '**and**'. '**AND**' is used:

When the adjectives are antonymous:

They sell new and old cars, When they complete each other:

a red and white ball, When we want to stress each adjective:

a long and boring lecture, When the two adjectives form a common sense:

it is a vain and fruitless attempt

89

The Adjective

If the adjectives are not connected by '**and**' they are separated by a **comma**: *it is a vain, fruitless attempt.*

ORDER OF ADJECTIVES

Articles, possessives, demonstratives, indefinite adjectives precede qualifying adjectives. The pronominal adjectives may be followed by a noun in the genitive and then by a numeric adjective.

First and **last** may precede the numeric adjective. A general descriptive adjective precedes an adjective of colour. An adjective of nationality is next to the noun unless there is another noun used as an adjective. A noun used as an adjective is next to the noun it modifies.

90

The order of premodifiers of nouns:

1. DETERMINER/PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVE +

2. NOUN IN GENITIVE +
3. 'FIRST/LAST' +
4. NUMERIC ADJECTIVE +
5. GENERAL DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVE (quality, opinion) + 6. 'LITTLE' (may also appear after the participle) +
7. ADJECTIVE OF SIZE +
8. ADJECTIVE OF AGE +
9. ADJECTIVE OF SHAPE +
10. ADJECTIVE OF COLOUR +
11. PAST PARTICIPLE +
12. ADJECTIVE OF NATIONALITY +
13. ADJECTIVE OF PROVANCE OR STYLE +
14. NOUN USED AS ADJECTIVE (to form compound):

Several very good Romanian T. V. programmes for teaching foreign languages are beginning this month; This new grey woollen coat doesn't fit me. His brother's first two international car-race victories were won this year.

The adjective of nationality is interchangeable with the past participle.

A Practical English Grammar

|||||-'
'■ ■ UM>A; .2MMXZiMC' - '^M'""-'.CS, -.SMS, ■:■ ■ %IWS
^

|||

|||^^

91

The Adjective

2.4.5. POSTMODIFICATION BY Adjectives

Nouns can be postmodified by adjectives:

The house ablaze is next door to mine.

Pronouns especially **indefinite pronouns** ending in '-body', '-one', '-thing',

'-where' can only be postmodified:

Anyone intelligent can do it. I want to try on something larger. but the adjectives come BEFORE

personal pronouns: *poor you*

The adjectives that postmodify can generally be regarded as reduced relative clauses:

The men (who were) present were his supporters. Adjectives that can occur only attributively are excluded from this class.

POSTPOSITIONING is OBLIGATORY for:

A Few Adjectives that have a different sense when they occur attributively or predicatively. The most common are:

elect: the president elect

proper: the City of London proper

1

^^^

^^^B^^^BB

A Practical English Grammar

In Several Compounds the adjective is postposed:

court martial *attorney general*
body politic *notary public*

When accompanied by a phrase expressing measurement it is also postponed: *a house ten stories high*
a river two hundred miles long

When there are two or more coordinate adjectives:

he was a big man, square-shouldered and virile

When the adjective is followed by a prepositional phrase: *he is a man worthy of respect, he is a man greedy for money*

When they are preceded by 'the' and follow a proper name: *Charles-the -Great*

Adjectives ending in '-ible' can be post-positive if they have a verbal association, or if they follow a noun with a superlative or 'only' or a similar adjunct attached:

the only person visible

The **A-Adjectives** prefer postpositioning:

The boats afloat were not seen by the men.

'Absent', 'present', 'concerned', 'involved' are words that prefer postpositioning:

The people involved were not found.

POSTPOSITIONING is POSSIBLE

If there is **complementation of the adjective:**

The boys easiest to teach were in my class.

but the adjective of an adjective phrase may often be preposed leaving its complementation in postposition:

The easiest boys to teach were in my class.

They have a larger house than yours.

If we have the combination **'too', 'so', 'as' plus an adjective** with its complementary phrase, both orders can be found with only a slight difference:

too large an apartment for two people

an apartment too large for two people.

93

The Adjective

2.5. Adjectives and Other Word-Classes

There are cases when adjectives overlap with other word classes. Sometimes the adjective may substitute other classes as **the noun** : *the rich* or other classes will be substitutes to the adjective as are:

SUBSTITUTES OF ADJECTIVES:

Words that restrict a noun in the same way as an adjective would restrict it are substitutes for an adjective: **Participle** (a verbal adjective): *a fallen tree*

/4dverb with some participle understanding: *the then (reigning) king,*

the down (going) trains

Noun or Gerund used as adjective: *a river fish, a bathing place* **Noun** in the genitive case:
my son's teacher

Verb in the infinitive mood: *a chair to sit on, water to drink*

Preposition with its object: *a bird in the hand* **Pronouns** used as adjectives: *this house*

Verb: *the would be hero failed dismally in trying to be heroic*

We use the sequence 'attributive plus noun' to designate several relationships. Some, but not **all**, of these relationships allow us to make up corresponding attributive nominal sentences. To tell whether an attributive is or is not an adjective in the context 'attributive plus noun', one can try to make the corresponding attributive nominal sentence. If the derived sentence retains the sense of the original sequence, the attributive is an adjective; in the examples: *refined version, modernized version, old friend, pertinent excerpt, Lattimore's book, refined, modernized, old, pertinent* and *Lattimore's* are adjectives. If the derived sentence turns out to have a meaning different from the phrase in the original, the attributive word is not an adjective. Perhaps it is an attributive noun. If it is, we can preserve the sense of the original phrase by supplying an appropriate preposition; then we can make the attributive

nominal sentence and its predicate will be a prepositional phrase attributive to the subject:

religious wars = the wars are about religion

Certain Prepositions, Adverbs and Verbs are used as adjectives: **about, through, after, inside, up, away, above, down, off, outside, hitherto, then, inner, mock, sham, be, etc. :**

an about turn, an inside trip, a would-be doctor, an upper room, the then president, a through road, in after years, the up and up, the away game, an underneath movement. 94

A Practical English Grammar

2.5.1. Adjectives and NOUNS

Some words can be both adjectives and nouns and the relationship between them is that of conversion:

a criminal attack (adj)/The criminal pleaded guilty, (noun)

Nouns can be substitutes of adjectives, can function as adjectives: *the city council, a stone wall*

If preceded by the definite article adjectives may be used substantially, thus having two meanings, when used as

2.5.1.1. the whole group or

2.5.1.2. when used as a concept.

2.5.1.1. Adjectives used as Nouns referring to a WHOLE GROUP

If reference is made to *people (implying the whole class)*, the meaning is plural and they take a plural verb:

The rich are often selfish.

Adjectives of Quality can be used in this way, but one must distinguish

between the form of adjectives used as nouns (these do not inflect for number or for the genitive case) and that of adjectives that have converted into nouns (these have all the qualities of nouns: inflect for number and the genitive and can take not only the definite article but also the indefinite article):

The king greeted his nobles. or that have been obtained through ellipsis:

The young students found the course hard, the old did not.

95

The Adjective

If we want to refer to **an individual from the class** then some nouns must be added: **man, woman...:**

The rich man accumulates wealth.

If also we want to refer to **a specific group of such type**, not to the group in a general sense then nouns must be added:

The rich men were at the casino, (a specific group of rich people)

If we refer to **the generic group** we may replace adjectives functioning as nouns with :

the poor => Poor people are always struggling, (generic) but if reference is made to **a specific group** then

The poor people on our block were thrown out. (specific)

Adjectives of Nationality may also function as nouns, but there are restrictions as to the adjectives that can function as nouns unmodified in form:

Words ending in -(i)sh :

British, Cornish, Danish, English, Irish, Spanish, Turkish **Words ending in -ch:**

French, Dutch **Words ending in -ese :**

Chinese, Japanese, Maltese, Portuguese

Swiss not entering in the above categories. These are used when we wish to refer to the **people as a whole:**

The French and the English ought to be allies. They have **generic reference and take the plural** and are always written with **capital letters.**

When we want to refer to **a group of the nation** (troops or tourists) we may also use this form:

The French invaded England in 1066.

The Chinese are staying in the hotel opposite. When we want to refer to **an individual of the nation** we have to add a noun:

The Frenchman is waiting for the train.

The Irishwoman loves to talk.

Where nationality words have no double form (like *English, Englishman*), '**the**'+**plural**. can be both generic and specific: *The Finns are industrious*, (generic) *The Finns that I know are industrious*, (specific)

A Practical **English** Grammar

Names of Languages are used as full nouns. They can take possessive pronouns and a restricted range of adjectives.

He doesn't know much English.

Russian is a difficult language.

He speaks excellent English.

My Spanish is very poor.

I can't understand his difficult German.

Here is a list of Nationality Words:

Name of Country Adjective

<i>Specific Reference</i>	<i>Generic Reference</i>	<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>	<i>plural</i>
China	Chinese	a Chinese	Chinese	the Chinese
Japan	Japanese	a Japanese	Japanese	the Japanese
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese	Portuguese	the Portuguese
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss	Swiss	the Swiss
Vietnam	Vietnamese	a Vietnamese	Vietnamese	the Vietnamese the Israelis
Israel	Israeli	an Israeli	Israelis	
Pakistan	Pakistani	a Pakistani	Pakistanis	the Pakistanis
Africa	African	an African	Africans	the Africans
America	American	an American	Americans	the Americans
Arabia	Arabic	an Arab	Arabs	the Arabs
Asia	Asian	an Asian	Asians	the Asians
Australia	Australian	an Australian	Australians	the Australians
Belgium	Belgian	a Belgian	Belgians	the Belgians
Brazil	Brazilian	a Brazilian	Brazilians	the Brazilians
Europe	European	a European	Europeans	the Europeans
Germany	German	a German	Germans	the Germans
Greece	Greek	a Greek	Greeks	the Greeks
Hungary	Hungarian	a Hungarian	Hungarians	the Hungarians
Italy	Italian	an Italian	Italians	• the Italians
Norway	Norwegian	a Norwegian	Norwegians	the Norwegians
Romania	Romanian	a Romanian	Romanians	the Romanians
Russia	Russian	a Russian	Russians	the Russians

The Adjective

Denmark	Danish	a Dane	Danes	the Danes/
Finland	Finnish	a Finn	Finns	the Danish the Finns / the Finnish
Poland	Polish	a Pole	Poles	the Poles / the Polish
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard	Spaniards	the Spaniards/ the Spanish
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede	Swedes	the Swedes/

				the Swedish
Britain	British	a Briton	Britons	Britons /
England	English	an Englishman	Englishmen	the British Englishmen/
France	French	a Frenchman	Frenchmen	the English Frenchmen/
Holland / The Netherlands	Dutch	a Dutchman	Dutchmen	the French Dutchmen /
Ireland	Irish	an Irishman	Irishmen	the Dutch Irishmen /
	Scotch	a Scotchman	Scotchmen	the Irish Scotchmen/
Scotland	Scots	a Scotsman	Scotsmen	the Scotch Scotsmen
	Scottish	a Scot	Scots	the Scots
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman	Welshmen	Welshmen /
				the Welsh

Grecian refers chiefly to ancient Greece: *a Grecian urn*

Arabic is used in *Arabic numerals* and *the Arabic language*. He *speaks Arabic*, **but** *Arabian brown*, *an Arabian camel*

Scots and *Scottish* is preferred to *Scotch*, when denoting nationality not type: *Scottish universities*, *Scottish Highlands*, *a Scottish accent* but *Scotch whiskey*, *Scotch terrier*, *Scotch pancakes*

A Practical English Grammar

2.5.1.2. Adjectives used as Nouns Referring to CONCEPTS

Adjectives of quality:

The supernatural is often depicted in *Shakespeare's plays*.

Superlatives of adjectives can be used as nouns referring to concepts:

the very best, *the unknown*

These can be replaced by **that which is the very best**, or **the very best thing** in which case it takes a singular form of the verb;

The latest is that he is going to run for elections.

The very best is yet to come.

He ventured into *the unknown*.

He admires *the mystical*.

The play took us from *the extremely sublime* to *the extremely ridiculous*.

There are qualifying adjectives that may be used as head of a noun-phrase both referring to a group, having a generic meaning or referring to a thing having a singular meaning:

The beautiful (people) always stand out in a crowd, **(generic)**

The beautiful is always rendered in poetry.

(singular)

2.5.2. Adjectives and ADVERBS

There are words that can function both as adjectives and adverbs: *a high mountain /birds fly high , a deep water /to swim deep in the water.*

If these words add *-ly* they are used only as adverbs sometimes with a change in meaning:

deeply hurt, highly placed or with no change at all:

He spoke loud and clear, (adj.)

He spoke loudly and clearly, (adv.)

Sometimes adjectives and their corresponding adverbial form are interchangeable, sometimes not:

After 'to smell', 'to feel' sometimes variation is possible:

The flowers smell beautiful/good/sweet, (adj.)

The flowers smell beautifully/well/sweetly, (adv., not so common) but there are also cases when there is a change in meaning:

He felt bad. (unhealthy or guilty)

He felt badly, (unhappy) The use of the adverb sometimes shows intensity of feeling:

// smells strongly of garlic.

He felt strongly about it. as opposed to the physical sense rendered by:

He felt strong.

After 'to taste', 'to look', 'to sound' it seems much less common to use the adverb:

The food tastes good There is change in meaning in:

He looks good. (He has a good appearance)

He looks well. (It looks as if he were healthy.) With such verbs as **'be', 'become', 'feel', 'look', 'smell', 'sound', 'taste', 'seem',** etc. an adjective should be used when **the subject of the verb** is being described; an adverb should be used when **the manner of the action** of the verb is being described:

He felt good. / He felt cautiously on the wall for the switch.

He tasted the coffee cautiously. / The coffee tasted good.

An adverb cannot be substituted when: **No corresponding adverb** exists:

He always talks big.

They are running fast.

They are working late.

The adjective takes complementation not accepted by the adverb:

Anxious for a quick decision, the chairman called for a vote.

i ■ffal silu S iii lill!iill:-l:lill^l3;-y||i||lll|
i ||l| i I
:| ||
f

His lung is diseased.

103

The Adjective

There are forms that **have a changed meaning when used as participles or as adjectives:**

She is (very) calculating. But her husband is frank, -adjective

She is calculating. Don't disturb her. -participle

They were relieved to find her at home. -adj.

They were relieved by the next group of sentries. -p.

Adjectives as past or present participles are often used:

amazed/amazing, annoyed/annoying,

bored/boring, exited/exciting

interested/interesting pleased/pleasing, etc.

Similar pairs are also: *delighted/delightful impressed/impressive*

upset/upsetting USAGE:

These adjectives are used in the following way: the '-ed' endings to describe people:

John was interested in the story. the '-ing' endings to describe things, events:

The story was interesting. The '-ing' form can also be used for people but there is a change in meaning:

Gloria was interesting to be with. (=this was the effect she had on others)

Gloria was interested. (= this was the effect someone or something had on her)

.....lfSliOB

104

A Practical English Grammar

2.6. DEGREES OF COMPARISON

By virtue of their inherent properties objects may possess qualities in a higher or lower degree, which means that the same quality may be described as having an intensity when characterising an object and a different intensity when characterising another object. The same object may also possess different degrees of the same quality, but on different occasions. This is a premise for comparing an object with itself (at different moments).

The intensity of a quality, relevant for two objects, may be compared on condition that the two objects belong to the same class. When the *common* quality is lacking, the possibility of comparing two objects is non-existent as a relevant relation between the two objects cannot exist. However, a specification should be brought into discussion: it is not the quality which is compared but the two objects possessing the same quality.

MEANING OF THE COMPARATIVE

The **comparative** is used to indicate:

- * that in the comparison between two possessors of a quality, more of this quality is found in one object than in the other
- * that the same person or object possesses more of one quality than of another,
- * that the same person or object possesses more of a quality in certain circumstances than in others, and
- * it is also used to express contrast, *the upper lip /the lower lip*.

MEANING OF THE SUPERLATIVE

The **superlative** is used to indicate:

- * that in a comparison between a group of possessors of a quality, more of this quality is to be found in one or more of these than in the rest of the group, and
- * that one and the same person or object possesses more of a quality in some circumstances than otherwise.

The following concepts that make up the degrees of comparison will be analyzed: 2.6.1.

Comparative of superiority and the superlative

2.6.2. Comparative of inferiority and the negative superlative

- 2.6.3. Correlatives
- 2.6.4. Comparative of equality
- 2.6.5. The absolute superlative
- 2.6.6. Substitutes for superlatives
- 2.6.7. The degrees of comparison of compound adjectives
- 2.6.8. Irregular forms
- 2.6.9. Intensifying the degrees of comparison

105

The Adjective

2.6.1. The COMPARATIVE of SUPERIORITY and the SUPERLATIVE FORMATION

The degrees of comparison are either formed by adding **-er** /-est to the root or by placing **more/most** in front of the adjective. Some adjectives may use both manners of formation.

FORMATION BY ADDING -ER/-EST

The following are formed in this manner.

Monosyllabic adjectives (except **right, wrong, real, just**): *hot, nice*

All disyllabic adjectives ending in -y: *happy*

Disyllabic adjectives having the stress on the last syllable

SPELLING:

Adjectives ending in -e in the positive, acquire only an additional **-r** and **-st**:

fine -finer -finest; nice -nicer -nicest

Single final consonants are doubled (except **h, v, and ks**) after singly written, stressed vowels:

hot - hotter - hottest; big - bigger - biggest

Final -y of adjectives is changed to **-i** when following a consonant, but remains when preceded by a vowel:

happy - happier - happiest -l is doubled after an unstressed vowel in

cruel - crueller - cruellest; in combination with **-ful** it varies:

cheerful - cheerfuller - cheerfullest;

The **doubling** of the **-l** is not found in **A.E.**

In B.E. **-y** is kept in **shy, sly, spry** and **wry**, but in **A.E.** it is generally changed.

FORMATION BY MEANS OF MORE/MOST

Most disyllabic adjectives with the stress on the first syllable: *simple*

Adjectives ending in -ic, -ish, -ive, -less, -ous: *careless, active*

Adjectives ending in two consonants

Adjectives of more than two syllables: *beautiful*

Adjectives like afraid, alike, etc. (that are used only predicatively)

106

A Practical English Grammar

'More' and 'most' have other uses in which they are not equivalent to the comparison inflections:

'More': *He is more than happy about it.*

(=He is happy about it to a degree that is not

adequately expressed by the word happy.)

He is more good than bad.

(= It is more accurate to say that he is good than that

he is bad.)

The uninflected form cannot be substituted in this function: 'He is better than bad' is not correct.

'Most': *She is most unhappy.* (= She is extremely unhappy.) *She is most beautiful.* (=She is extremely beautiful.) In this case *most* will not be used to express superlative but an absolute superlative

(although in **A.E.** it might express it.) In **BE.** in order to obtain a superlative one has to use the definite article: *She is the most beautiful woman.*

· · · · ·

· · · · · -'WfS-if IPI

· · · · · ||P fif, · · · · ·

^^^

ffi; : l; ' '
 lfi:v ' ' " '
 if if ;■ i ■ llll11
 lllif f
 ^
 :: :■ "l'
 llllffi

107

The Adjective

ADJECTIVES THAT MAY USE BOTH FORMATION PATTERNS:

There are some adjectives that in the comparative and superlative degrees may add *either* **-er/-est** or **more/most**:

Monosyllabic adjectives like

free, calm, sound, vague, frank, etc. **Disyllabic adjectives** ending in -y, ly like *angry, likely, healthy, friendly, happy, etc.* **Disyllabic adjectives** ending in -er, -le, -ow, -some like *bitter, humble, noble, narrow, handsome, etc.* **Disyllabic adjectives** with the stress on the first syllable: *pleasant, quiet, common, etc.* **Adjectives formed of three syllables** of which one is a negative prefix: *unhappy, insincere, unpleasant, impolite, etc.* **The adjectives** *crooked* and *wicked*.

^3

108

A Practical English Grammar

^

2 6.2 77£? *COMPARATIVE of INFERIORITY and the NEGATIVE SUPERLATIVE*

Monosyllabic adjectives form the comparative of inferiority using **not** so/as.....as.

The form **not** so/as.....as is *never* used in interrogative-negative sentences.

The comparative of inferiority of other adjectives and the negative superlative are expressed by using **less** (comparative) and **the least** (superlative) before the adjective:

less difficult than, the least intelligent, etc.

Adjectives that use **-er** and **-est** in the comparative of superiority and in the superlative are *almost never* used with **less** and **the least**. In order to express the **comparative of inferiority** of these adjectives **not**

so/as.....as is used :

good - not so good

In order to express the idea of **negative superlative** with these adjectives, the superlative of the *antonym* of the adjective is used:

este cel mai puţin bun - it is the worst

109

OII

^ ^ ^ ^ ^ S ^ ^ ^ ^ ^

^^

^

^^

A Practical English Grammar

^&&::^
^
/ \
flipide):|iii|:;j;;B||
mtt/. (surprising)

The Adjective

'MORE' and 'LESS/FEW'

'More' and 'less' are **used in** comparing quantities of mass nouns like: *tea, soap, time, etc.*

'More' and 'fewer' are used in comparing greater or smaller numbers of *countable* nouns like *books, dogs, etc.*

.....\$,:!:.7;i:;?

112

A Practical English Grammar

'More', 'less' and 'fewer' can be modified by intensifiers as follows: *much more, many more, a little more, a few more, much less, many fewer.*

	:	~	miSM
	::	^	
	::	.	
	::	>	
	"-;	.	
ii I	1		
u	1		
:			
1 1	li fiii	If : illiili	ni R ii
1 1	i	; .	m
1 II		:	
II		:	
		:	
		:	
		:	

M^
^^

26.5. CORRELATIVES

The basis of comparison may be made explicit by constructions introduced by *than* (correlative to *more/less*):

John is more/less stupid than Bob. or by *as* (correlative to *as*):

John is as stupid as Bob.

The comparative without *than* may be used :

With a noun or 'one': *I want a better job. I want a better one.*

In a predicative construction: *He is better now.*

After a noun or pronoun: *They have made the house bigger.*

After the following comparatives that are used only attributively to express

contrast: *inner, outer, upper, former, latter, nether*:
*The little boy was running when, suddenly, he fell down
and hurt his upper lip.*

113

The Adjective

Latin comparatives end in '-or' (not '-er') and are followed by 'to' (not 'than'):

superior to (greater than), **inferior to** (less than),
anterior to/prior to (earlier than), **posterior to** (later than), **senior to** (older than), **junior to** (younger than)

2.6.4. The COMPARATIVE OF EQUALITY

It is expressed by using **as + adjective + as**. **as big as**

Similes are expressions of the likeness said to exist between two different objects or events. The words denoting the two objects are linked by means of the conjunctions **as** or **like**. Similes have become with time set expressions:

She is as fresh as a daisy.

Look at him! He is savage and shy like a tiger. Here is a list of similes:

as hot as an oven

as cool as a cucumber

as tough as leather

as busy as a bee

as silly as a goose

as fit as a sow for saddle

as blind as a bat

as fit as a fiddle

as sweet as honey

as dead as a doornail

as pretty as a picture

as deaf as a doorpost

as clean as a new pin

as clear as crystal

as dark as midnight

as smart as a whip

as easy as falling off a log

as strong as an ox

as nervous as a cat

as good as gold

as ugly as sin

as high as the sky

as thin as paper

as slippery as an eel as silent as the grave as firm as a rock as drunk as a lord as hungry as a wolf as

happy as a cricket as black as pitch as fresh as a daisy as like as two peas as old as the hills as proud

as a peacock as cross as two sticks as stubborn as a mule as sly as a fox as clean as a whistle as flat

as a pancake as white as snow as thick as pea soup as free as a bird as smooth as silk as deep as the

ocean as cold as ice as sharp as a razor

114

A Practical English Grammar

as keen as mustard as sour as vinegar as brave as a lion

to swim like a fish to run like the wind to shout like a madman to tremble like a leaf

as fat as a barrel

as regular as clockwork

as heavy as lead

to climb like a monkey

to drink like a fish

to come into a room like whirlwind

to stretch oneself like a kitten

2.6.5. The ABSOLUTE SUPERLATIVE

The absolute superlative may be built by means of

The adverb 'very' placed in front of the adjective:

very good, very narrow, very interesting.

Other adverbs that may be used to form the absolute superlative are *extremely, quite, exceedingly,*

awfully, mighty, terribly,

tremendously, highly, greatly

The prefixes *ultra-, super- and over* may also be employed in the formation of absolute superlative:

oversensitive, ultramodern, overconfident

ffi

SIS

I|S

The Adjective

2.6.6. SUBSTITUTES for SUPERLATIVES

The Comparative. In case we intend to express the maximum degree of intensity of a quality in relation with the total number of objects of the same kind and not its singleness, a comparative at the formal level may render a superlative at the content level. In this case the complement of the comparative must suggest the idea of universality or it should be used in negative constructions which subsume a totality of objects or processes of the same kind.

The indefinite pronoun 'any' and its compounds may be implied as the second member in the formal relationship of a comparative:

You are more to me than anything in the world. **Negative constructions** implied in a formal comparative offer, on a stylistic level, innumerable possibilities of intensifying the superlative value of the quality:

There is no more impressive writer on either side of the Atlantic.

Omitting or replacing one of the two members. There are cases when one of the two members of the relationship is omitted or replaced, the content being established by the whole combination:

There is nothing, nothing like the beauty of home life. A **noun in the nominative case singular, repeated in the genitive plural** expresses the relationship specific to the superlative:

Princess, thou who art like a garden of myrrh, thou who art the dove of all doves.

Similes. A common way of expressing the idea of absolute superlative is the comparison in which the second member of the relationship to which the quality is related is a concrete image which has the force of making the representation very vivid. This member should possess the ideal quality in the speaker's mind. They may be fixed expressions in the language (*similes*) or may be made up by the speaker:

as black as coal

as busy as a bee

as strong as a bull

as white as a sheet.

The comparison of ordinary people with mythological heroes characterized by unusual qualities point out the high degree of the quality possessed by such ordinary people:

Her mother is perfectly unbearable. Never met such a Gorgon....

116

A Practical English Grammar

Repetition often determines the emphasis of the quality expressed by an adjective. The same idea can be accomplished by an agglomeration of several determinants with synonymic meaning:

Well, my own dear, sweet, refined girl.

Indeterminate Numbers. The superlative of quantity can be expressed by indeterminate numbers:

White and grey and black rabbits. Millions of them.

Collective nouns suggest the superlative of the adjectives **much** and **many** because their meaning implies the idea of great **plurality**: *There is a whole heap of things.*

The antonym of the adjective often suggests the superlative: *He ain 't very small. He ain 't small at all.*

The use of adjectives which do not have degrees of comparison but imply the highest quality is another means of expressing the idea of superlative: *gigantic, huge, excellent, matchless, perfect.*

A **metaphor** may have a superlative character: *In any case she is a monster.*

An exclamatory sentence suggests that at the expression level we have a superlative. Such a sentence expresses the emotional mood of the speaker. The quality may be expressed or it may be implied:

How clever you are!

What an uproar!

'So' followed by an adjective may express a superlative:

The stars are so beautiful.

'So' may precede the adjective in the clause to which a result clause is subordinated:

His authority was so great that his word was taken on any subject.

'Such' used adverbially has the same effect on the adjective: *I have such good news to tell you.*

117

The Adjective

2.6.7. The Degrees of Comparison of COMPOUND ADJECTIVES

The compound adjectives form their degrees of comparison in the following way: We compare the first element when it presents its proper meaning:

intelligent-looking, more intelligent-looking,

low-priced, the lowest-priced By using **more** and **most** when the elements form a sense unit:

ill-advised, more ill-advised

Adjectives whose first element has no degrees of comparison, add **more** and **most**: *heart-broken, more heart-broken, the most heart-broken*

2.6.8. IRREGULAR FORMS

The following adjectives have an irregular comparison:

good, better, the best

far, farther/further, the farthest/furthest

many/much, more, the most

old, older/elder, the oldest/eldest

hind, hinder, the hindmost/hindermost

evil/bad, worse, the worst, little, less/lesser, the least, near, nearer, the nearest/next, late, later/latter, the latest/last, fore, former, the foremost/first

The following words used in the positive degree function as adverbs: *beneath, in, out, up.*

In the comparative and superlative degrees they are used as adjectives. *nether - nethermost,*

inner - innermost,

outer - outermost, utter-utmost/uttermost,

upper - upmost/uppermost

KEEP IN MIND the following forms:

east/eastern - more eastern - eastmost

north/northern - more northern - northmost/northernmost

south/southern - more southern - southmost/southernmost

west/western - more western - westmost/westernmost

118

A Practical English Grammar

'**FARTHER**/'**FARTHEST**' or '**FURTHER**/'**FURTHEST**' '**Farther**', '**farthest**', '**further**', '**furthest**' are used to express distance: *Go to a farther hairdresser's.*

The one I told you about is at the further end of the street. '**Further**' and '**furthest**' also refer to **time, quantity, and degree.**

A further discussion followed the meeting.

The shop is closed until further notice.

There is nothing further to say. **'Further'** and **'furthest'** tend to replace **'farther'** and **'farthest'**.
'OLDER'/'OLDEST' or 'ELDER'/'ELDEST'

'Older' and **'oldest'** refer to **age**.

'Elder' and **'eldest'** imply **seniority rather than age**. They are chiefly used for comparison within a family:

my eldest son. When used predicatively **'older'** and **'oldest'** are required :

My brother is older than I (but my elder brother).

'LA TER VIA TEST'/'LA TTER'/'THE LAST'

'Later' (more recent) and **'latest'** (the most recent) refer to **time**:

Later news says they have already sorted out their problems;

His latest novel enjoys a bigger and bigger success. **'Latter'** (as opposed to **'former'**) means **the second of the two**.

"Do you prefer Shelley or Byron ?" "The latter." **'The last'** (as opposed to **'last'**) shows **order in a series**:

Have you read Shakespeare's last play?

'NEAR'/'NEAREST'/'THE NEXT' 'Nearer' and **'nearest'** refer to **space**.

Go to the nearest butcher's and buy some mutton for me. **'The next'** means the one that immediately follows, it refers to **time or a sequence**.

My neighbour next door is a conductor.

'FORMER'/'THE FIRST'/'FOREMOST' **'Former'** does not always express a comparison: *a former colleague of mine.* It may suggest **the first of two** as opposed to **the latter**:

"Do you prefer Shelley or Byron ?" "The former."

119

The Adjective

'Foremost' refers to rank, quality, importance, while 'The first' shows sequence in a series:

One can't tell who is foremost in the list of great novelists;

Yours was the first composition I corrected.

'LESS'/'LESSER'

'Less' refers to quantity, whereas 'lesser' refers to quality.

This year I have less time for trips than I had last year;

It is wise to choose the lesser evil; This is a lesser whisky.

120

I

A Practical English Grammar

I; I ill

Ifiiii|:3

.....llll|il?i:i::^il;s:^:"S:|s:I"i

26.9. INTENSIFYING the Degrees of Comparison

Comparatives are also intensified by means of:

Repetition: *It grew darker and darker.*

Irregular adjectives and adjectives that form the degree of comparison by adding **-er** repeat the whole form:

better and better, slower and slower.

The adjectives that form the comparative of superiority with the adverb **more**, repeat only the adverb: *more and more interesting, more and more exciting*

Words and phrases like **'far'**, **'still'**, **'ever'**, **'much'**, **'a great deal'**, etc.: *My new flat is far larger than the old one.*

Parallel increase in the quality is expressed by **the + comparative of superiority of adjective + Subject + Predicate**:

*The more he reads, the more interesting the book seems.
The harder he studies, the better he knows.*

121

The Adjective

There is a mistaken tendency to use only '**the more**' at the beginning of the sentences. **It** is true that '**the more**' is most often used but by no means the only form employed. The **comparative of superiority of the adjective** must be placed at the beginning of the sentence.

Superlatives are emphasized by placing: '**by far**' before the superlative:

He is by far the best friend I've had. the adjective '**possible**' after the noun modified by a superlative:
It is the best solution possible under the circumstances.

.....:f;i;liP:??llliil

S3;P3S

rv*iiiiii

122

tz\

lll '|iii:,i;OliliPll^'^^

MOISIAm

qsttSug

tiilililililil^

f

B:.....:k:;lllllS:.....:llll

--'.S

A Practical English Grammar

j-PT? ■ipgp^ppi;,,, Pf: ;i?.-;,, ;|f jp > ■Hi?;^^.; ■ :P^Pli|l !|||;|sliilli■:i|;;b:;lP llllt.....: ■■:~:~'"■ M,

■111111111111 llg:™:-;s:|:llS:^;S;;

:S|^^^

;SK&;;£PS^

;PpPP'M

|^ll'Sitlfe

PIP:-^

125

9ZI

siiiiiiiiiiiiisii

1©

A Practical English Grammar

ll|S;H

.....

....

^

127

The Adjective

.....iiiiiiil

:^'^^

128

3. THE ARTICLE

3.1. The indefinite article is used when we refer to something in general, something we are not familiar with, something that we encounter for the first time, while

3.2. The definite article is used when we refer to things we know, when we individualize or particularize.

We crossed [a] bridge. The bridge was very narrow. The story he told was not so funny.

3.3. The zero article is used in some cases.

3.4. Nouns that have an unstable relation to the category of article, using the articles according to specific contexts, will also be analyzed.

3.1. THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

FORM:

The indefinite article has the form *a* or *an*. The form **a** is used before words beginning with a consonant:

a book, a house. The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel:

an apple, an orange.

3.1.1. USAGE

The indefinite article is used only **with singular countable nouns**

expressing the idea of indefinite. The indefinite article is indispensable with concrete nouns in the singular:

We went out without a coat.

For the plural the usual equivalent in the numerical sense is 'some' or 'any', but only when there is an idea of limited quantity:

I saw a horse in the field -SG.

I saw some horses in the field -PL.

I didn't see any horses. -PL. To express the idea of indefinite sometimes the plural has no article.

Cats are nice creatures.

129

The Article

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE IS USED:

To introduce a new notion; as soon as the identity of the person or thing has been established we shift to the definite article:

A boy and a girl were arguing in front of me. The girl wanted to go to the cinema, but the boy didn't.

To convey the meaning of:

'one', 'any', 'it doesn't matter which', 'a certain' (referring to a person known only by name)

Mary has a black dress;

*A Mr. Brown called to see you when you were out; **'the same'** (in proverbs and certain fixed expressions):*

We are of an age;

Birds of a feather flock together.

With a singular countable noun that names an example of a class of things: *It is said an elephant never forgets.*

E^

130

A Practical English Grammar

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE IS USED:

Instead of the numeral:

As the indefinite article may be considered the unemphatic form of the numeral **'one'**, it is frequently used in this sense.

The numerical force of the indefinite article becomes quite prominent: **In certain expressions of**

measurement:

a hundred, a thousand, a minute, a mile, a couple, a score After 'not':

not a word, not a trace, not a thought, etc. In some set phrases.

one at a time, at a draught, etc. With a distributive force:

once a month, twice a week, 40 miles an hour, 10DM a kilo The numeral 'one' is used:

When we want to emphasize the idea of singleness

one book, not two or three or... , one evening (in stories)

i

.....lPli

131

The Article

iiI\$;-: . lIPt8yi:Sl;;S

1:II1 : :&

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE IS USED:

Before singular predicative and appositive **nouns denoting a profession, trade, nationality, sex, office, class, political party, religion, etc.** The predicative comes after verbs such as 'be', 'become', 'make', 'appoint', 'elect', 'choose', 'think', 'call', 'name', 'fancy', 'imagine':

She is a singer;

I'm sure you know John Dowdson, a professor at Leeds.

After the verbs 'to elect, to appoint, to name' the zero article is used if a noun denoting a **title** or **an office** that can be held by one person at a time follows these verbs:

He was appointed president of the company.

After the verb 'to turn' the zero article is used:

She started out as a teacher but turned singer.

In front of 'few' and 'little' with a change in meaning. 'Few' and 'little' have the meaning of **hardly any(thing)**, 'not many', 'not much'. When preceded by the indefinite article they get a positive meaning:

Few drivers are interested in the beauties of the rural landscape, but I know a few.

Little is known about UFOs.

I have a little money left.

132

A Practical English Grammar

^

THE INDEFINITE ARTICIE IS USED:

In a number of set phrases. Here are some *all of a sudden to keep an eye on something to take a dim view of something to be in a temper to take an interest in to take a dislike to to be in a position to to have a fancy for to have an opportunity to to have a pain at a discount on an average to put in a word for to be afar cry from something* of them:

as a rule

to have a close call

to be in a hurry

it's a shame

to take (a) pride in

to make a fool of oneself

to have a mind to

to have a chance to

to have a headache

to have a cold

at a premium
to stand a chance
to give someone a hand
to make a point of

133

The Article

^^

^^

5.7.2 POSITION

POSTPOSITIONING:

The indefinite article is placed **AFTER**

An adjective (immediately before the noun in the singular) if that adjective is preceded by '**so**', '**as**', '**too**', '**however**', '**how**':

It was too good a chance to be missed.

Attributive phrases like: '**any worse**', '**no less**', '**too much of**': *It was no less a person than the **Prime Minister**.*

PREPOSITIONING:

The indefinite article comes **BEFORE**

The combination adjective plus noun after '**such**' and exclamatory '**what**': *What a dusty road this is!*

134

A Practical English Grammar

PREPOSITIONING or POSTPOSITIONING:

If the adjective modifying a noun is preceded by '**quite**' or '**rather**', the indefinite article may be placed between '**quite**' or '**rather**' and the adjective or before the whole phrase:

// is rather a good idea, isn't it?

He is a rather hard man.

EIIIIS^

-3

S3

135

The Article

iii

siii

t^^EIM^^^HI^BIS

iPS

IIIS;?--:§S

3.2. THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

FORM:

The definite article '**the**' is the weakened form of the Old English demonstrative pronoun which in Old English besides the function of a demonstrative, had also the function of the article. The demonstrative force of the definite article is still felt in such expressions as:

nothing of the kind, at the time, under the circumstances, for the purpose.

3.2.1. USAGE:

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE IS USED:

Before a noun which has been introduced earlier:

John bought a cat. The cat was black.

136

A Practical English Grammar

Before a noun which in the mind of the speaker and the hearer is marked as a definite object (when there is no need to state the obvious):

John came home from work. He read the paper, then he got up from the chair and turned on the radio.

There is no need to state that he bought a paper and that there were a chair and a radio in his sitting-room.

Before a noun thought of as distinct from all other objects of a class or group of objects of a certain description:

One can't see the moon because of clouds. In this case "the moon" is thought of as being only one. A sort of ellipsis occurs with this use from: 'the moon of the Earth'. Other such nouns are:

the Sun, the Earth, the air, the Bible, the Lord.

A.

But we may say:

A fresh air surrounded us.

A beautiful moon could be seen that night.

The definite article is an **individualising** or **limiting** article. The use of 'the' causes a lot of difficulty. In the majority of cases the meaning of the sentence is the deciding factor. A word which may not take the article in one sentence:

He is fond of music,

may very well need the article in a different content: *The music of Chopin is immortal.*

There are however, words and phrases where the article is invariably present or almost invariably absent.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE IS USED:

Before singular and plural nouns whether countable or uncountable. **Before countables** when it singles out or identifies specific or particular things:

Please give me the book(s); **Before uncountables** when it limits, restricts a particular portion/part:

Please give me the butter.

Before 'one', 'other' or 'rest' to particularize:

Leave the new ones here, but bring the rest with you.

In the expressions *to translate from, translations from*:

Over half the translations in France are from the English.

137

The Article

MEANS OF MAKING A NOUN DEFINITE other than using only the definite article:

By adding a qualifying word, phrase, or clause, so that the speaker might further identify the person(s) or thing(s)

Please give me the book (that is) on the table.

Superlative adjectives also make a noun definite:

Jane was by far the best player of all.

Ordinal numbers, too, make the noun definite:

The first thing he must do is to mend the lock.

Some things are automatically particularized because of their obvious position or identification:

Mother is in the kitchen (from an area of a house);

Has the postman come yet? (the particular postman that brings our mail).

'Next' and 'last' normally particularize:

We'll discuss these problems at the next meeting.

'The' is omitted when 'next' or 'last' refer to a period of time immediately before or after the present:

They arrived last week and they will go back next week.

Referring to a noun before or even merely thinking about it may make a noun become definite:

There is a book on the table. The book belongs to Mary.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE MUST BE USED before:

Names of unique objects or notions.

the Sun, the Moon, the universe, the Lord, the Milky Way, the French Revolution, the Renaissance, the Ice Age, etc.

This principle is also applied to names of **buildings, monuments or places** associated with the idea of uniqueness:

the Acropolis, the Sphinx, the Taj Mahal,

138

A Practical English Grammar

Names of ships, trains, planes.

the Orient Express, The Comet, the Queen Mary, etc.

Names of newspapers, theatres, museums, concert halls, cinemas, clubs, hotels, etc..

the Odeon, the British Museum, the Ritz Hotel, the Times

Some geographical names:

oceans, seas, rivers, canals, deserts, and forests.

The Danube, the Black Sea, the Atlantic Ocean, the Suez

canal, the Sahara, the Black Forest, etc. mountain ranges, groups of islands, straits.

the Pyrenees, the Hebrides, the Bering Straits, the Alps, the

Himalayas, the Bahamas, etc.

also *The Matterhorn, The Jungfrau* **lakes, bays** that include 'of in the combination:

The Lake of Constance **names of countries that are in the plural:**

The Netherlands **some names of countries and cities:**

The Sudan, The Congo, The Argentine (Republic),

The Hague

names of unions of smaller entities or that have an identifying phrase with 'of:

The Republic of Indonesia, The United States of America

There are unique notions that take the definite article that have been formed through:

Premodification:

the White House, the National Gallery,

the English Channel Postmodification:

the House of Commons,

the Cambridge College of Arts Ellipsis:

the Tate (Gallery), The (River) Thames,

the Hilton (Hotel)

Ordinal numbers.

the third man, the twentieth century, the tenth floor, etc

139

The Article

Phrases concerning musical instruments.

to play the clarinet, to play the piano, to play the harp, etc.

Superlatives used attributively or as nouns.

Maria was by far the best player of all. This is the best I can do.

In front of superlatives used predicatively the article may be omitted: *Flowers smell strongest at night.*

Days are shortest in winter.

Singular nouns to make a generalization about a species:

The rose originally came to us from China.

Adjectives used as nouns:

The strong should protect the old.

TM 3.3. THE ZERO ARTICLE

There are cases when no article is required or when it is obligatory that no article should be used.

3.3.1. USAGE

THE ARTICLE IS NOT USED:

If the noun denotes a title or an office that can be held by one person at a time.

Michael

Thomson was chairman of the Republican County Committee;

Mr. Bradbury, director of the theatre, takes an optimistic view of the prospects.

After the nouns 'rank' and 'title':

He gained the rank of colonel.

After the verb to 'turn' meaning *to become*:

Mrs. Haines used to be a teacher till she turned writer.

When the noun denotes a relationship and stress is laid on the social position:

She was daughter of the late John Maggan.

140

A Practical English Grammar

When the speaker emphasizes the characteristic features of the object, denoted by the predicative noun, which acquires adjectival characters and is usually followed by '**enough**':

He isn't fool enough to believe that sort of thing.

With predicative nouns in clauses of concession (with **as** and **though**),

followed by inverted word-order:

Child though he was, he had travelled a lot.

With the words 'providence', 'fate' and other similar words:

He becomes an instrument of fate, to struggle against that which has been futile.

With the words 'man' and 'woman', taken in a general sense: *Man created an environment of his own.*

With names of relations, 'father', 'mother', 'aunt', 'uncle', and other words such as '**cook**', '**counsel**', '**prisoner**', often taken as proper names: *Where is Mother?*

With names of institutions such as '**Congress**', '**Convocation**', '**Parliament**':

Americans make their pilgrimage to the Library of

Congress;

Parliament was enabled to become a legislature.

With collective nouns such as '**humaaity**', '**mankind**', '**posterity**', '**society**': *Water was worshipped from the beginning of mankind's history.*

Before nouns in enumerations and when contrast is expressed: *Cars were nose to tail on the Bath road.*

In prepositional phraseological combinations:

connected with the parts of the body having the same abstract adverbial meaning marked by the absence of the article, such as:

by hand, at hand, on foot, from head to foot,

from top to toe **used adverbially:**

by chance, by mistake, at home, at present, at first sight,

for ages, etc.

141

The Article

so-called repetition groups when a noun is repeated and connected by a preposition:

hand in hand, day by day, arm in arm, from cover to

cover, from corner to corner, face to face

parallel structure:

from dawn to dusk, from beginning to end, from right to left, from west to north, husband and wife

In the nominative absolute constructions used as adverbial modifiers of attending circumstances:

And, cigar in mouth, old Jolyan said: "Play me some

Chopin".

∫.yy^
yy ^y^:

yZ y^ ^y

...

^

iiB

142

A Practical English Grammar

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE IS NOT USED:

Before the following kinds of nouns **used in a general sense or containing the idea of some indefinite quantity of something**, preceded or not by an adjective: **Concrete nouns in the plural:**

Cats dislike getting their feet wet.

We were told that lions live in prides.

Abstract nouns in the singular:

He is interested in Chinese art.

Mary wants to study English literature.

Water consists of hydrogen and oxygen.

Uncountables, both concrete and abstract:

Advice is not always welcomed.

They told us there still was hope; Birds are fond of fruit. To use the article with these nouns one must supply a partitive: *A piece of advice is not always welcomed. The piece of advice he gave me was not welcomed.*

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE IS USED with the above mentioned nouns when they are modified by: **A defining relative clause:**

The lions that you see at this Zoo have been brought from Africa.

The advice you gave me about how to mend my car proved excellent.

The people who live next door keep a donkey. **A following prepositional phrase:**

The English literature of the nineteenth century is fascinating.

A public speaker cultivates the art of pleasing his audience.

Or when **the context** makes it clear exactly what is referred to: *The dinner was excellent, but Isobel noticed that*

her son ate very little, (i.e. the dinner they had just finished)

143

The Article

li

iiiiiiis

ARTICLE IS NOT USED WITH: Names of persons.

When they stand alone:

I know George Brown very well. I met Tom at the library.

If modified by a descriptive adjective like 'old', 'little', 'young', 'dear', 'poor', 'honest' with which they form close units:

Poor, old John always says the wrong thing. If the proper name is preceded by a title:

Professor Russell will lecture on the history of Mexico. 144

A Practical English Grammar

Names of universities and colleges.

Oxford University, Trinity College but *The University of London*

Phrases concerning games;

to play tennis, to play football

Names of languages and other subject matters.

English, German, French, Romanian, mathematics, physics, etc.

If the name of the language is followed by the word **language** the definite article is used:

The English language

Names of festivals:

3.4.8. Names of materials

3.4.10. Proper names

3.4.12. Abbreviations are characterized by their unstable relation to the category of countability.

1H 3.4.1. Nouns used in APPOSITION

There was one flower, an orchid, that grew alone;

The chief ornament of this street is the Scott monument commemorating the life and work of Sir Walter Scott, the first great historical novelist of the English language.

Some prepositional phraseological combinations used adverbially have the definite or the indefinite article:

149

Here are some expressions:

to suffer from the cold

in the plural

it's a shame

out of doors

to keep in bed

to give the creeps

on board

at an altitude

as a result

it's out of the question

on the other hand

$$1^*_{-[\mathcal{L}^\wedge}$$

.....vşlil

1

1 ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^

:S

S lllll

5.4. J. NAMES of PARTS of the DAY

AS NOUNS:

The following nouns: *rfaj, night, morning, evening, noon, dusk, midnight, dawn, afternoon, sunrise, sunset, daytime, nightfall* are used

With the definite article when particularized by the situation or by the context: *The weather was very cold on the day of his arrival*

With the indefinite article when they have a descriptive attribute:

It was a fine warm evening and we decided to walk home.

With no article if they are modified by: **early, late, broad, high:**

// was early morning the names of the days (Monday, Tuesday, etc.):

/ went to Aunt Milly's house on Friday evening. the words 'tomorrow' or 'yesterday':

She was here yesterday afternoon.

151

The Article

IN PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES:

The above words may be found in prepositional phrases **With the definite article:**

in the morning, in the evening, in the daytime, in the afternoon, in the night, all through the day, all through the night, during the day, to admire the sunrise

With no article after words like:

at, by, about, after, past, before, towards, till, until:

at night, till noon, around midnight,

morning, day and dawn plus the verb **to break** or the expression **to be at hand:**

Day was breaking when we set out.

evening, night and dusk plus the verbs **to fall, to gather, to set in** or the expression **to be at hand:**

Night was falling fast so we set up the tent and got ready for the night.

With no article in phrases like

all day long, all night (through), day after day, night after night, from morning till night, (to work) day and night, day in, day out

152

A Practical English Grammar

3.4.4. NAMES of MONTHS, DAYS, SEASONS

The following nouns *summer, autumn, winter, spring, Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, January, February, March, etc.* are used:

With the definite article when a particular day, month or season is specified. The noun is made definite by the situation or the context or by the addition of a limiting attribute:

The winter was very fine that year and we were very happy. **With the indefinite article**

when these nouns have a descriptive attribute:

We had a relatively short summer. **when no particular reference is made:**

We left on a Sunday. **With no article**

when they are used in a general sense: *Summer is a beautiful season.* **when modified by 'early' or 'late' :**

It was early spring. **in of-phrases:**

the dust of summer, the colours of autumn.

However, after prepositions there is a fluctuation in the use of the article in front of the names of seasons: *in spring, in the spring.*

.....llls:::;:-:!"

lllll

153

The Article

3.4.5. Names of the PRINCIPAL MEALS

The following nouns **breakfast, lunch, tea, dinner, and supper** are used as either countables or uncountables depending on the meaning to be expressed:

Mrs Creeps always serves lunch at one o'clock. Walter wanted a special lunch. They are used with:

The definite article:

if it is a clear case of back reference:

The supper was very different from the one of the evening before. **if there is a limiting attribute:**

He was eating the lunch his mother had given him. **The indefinite article:**

when these nouns are modified by descriptive attributes:

It was a long and late dinner. **when they denote a portion:**

He wheedled a few francs out of me for a dinner and a bed. **Both articles** may be found when they denote: *dinner-party, tea-party.* **No article:**

after 'to have', 'before', 'at', 'after', 'to stay for'

to have lunch, before dinner, to stay for dinner

^

154

A Practical English Grammar

J.4.6. Nouns used to indicate MEANS OF TRANSPORT

These nouns are used:

With the definite or indefinite article when they are not preceded by 'by':

to be on the plane, sit on the bicycle, to be on the bus, to

sleep in the car, to take the/a train

With the zero article when preceded by 'by' indicating strictly that the object is used for the purpose of transportation:

to travel by car, to leave by boat, to come by train

After **to travel, to come, to leave** one might encounter the article but then the preposition will be changed:

I travelled with a car that broke down every twenty minutes.

3.4.7. Nouns denoting ILLNESSES

The indefinite article is sometimes used:

to have a cough, a headache, a sore throat

155

The Article

but there are cases when the indefinite article may be either used or omitted: *to catch (a) cold, to have (a) toothache, to have (an)*

earache, to have (a) stomach-ache, to have (a) backache

The definite article is used with: *the plague*

No article is used:

With the plurals:

measles, mumps, shingles **With: (high) blood pressure, flu, gout, hepatitis:**

to have influenza, to have rheumatism

Measles, mumps and flu may be used with the definite article: *to have the flu*

3.4.8. Names of MATERIALS

Names of materials are used:

With the definite article when they are narrowed in their meaning. The narrowing of meaning is shown by the context or the whole situation. Some other times a limiting attribute is used to show that the meaning of the noun is narrowed:

They waded into the shallow water at the edge of the

lake. or a prepositional postmodification by an *of*-phrase occurs:

N

He likes the music of France.

With no article when they are used in a general sense, as uncountables. In this case they have either no attribute whatsoever or have a descriptive attribute: *Jan spread butter on thick slices of fresh bread.*

With both the indefinite and the definite

when they denote different sorts. In such a case they become countable nouns:

It is a very good cheese.

when a noun denoting a material serves to denote an object made of that material, it turns into a countable noun and may, accordingly, be used with the definite or indefinite article:

The water spilt from the glass.

156

A Practical English Grammar

3.4.9. Certain COUNTABLE NOUNS

Certain countable nouns, in their phraseological use, such as:

school, hospital, college, prison, jail, camp, church, court, exchange, harbour, home, sea, market, port, hall, bed, table, town etc. are used:

With the definite article or the indefinite article when these nouns are used in their original concrete meaning and indicate a particular institution, a concrete building or object, they are used with the definite or indefinite article: *He was headmaster of the school where I studied.*

With no article when they are treated as abstract nouns and denote the state or activities associated with these places or the aim they serve:

He went to school (=to learn);

He went to church (=to pray).

The words '**university**' and '**institute**' always take the article.

tWXSSltf f ff fisllff ZpvMMZÎ' "':.;mZ-r--:f ;f V-:f f f .■'-■:' W&'!■:.&\$

157

The Article

iiIfiS?!@

11li; :11Oll1l

5.4.7ft PROPER NOUNS

Proper names use: The definite article:

When the proper name denotes the whole family:

The Whites live next door to the Robinsons. When the title stands alone or has an identifying phrase:

The President of France, The Secretary of State,

the professor In such a context:

The John Smith you were talking about is not the one I

know. I know another John Smith. When the proper noun substitutes an object, individualizing it:

The Rembrandt we saw on exhibit was bought by John.

The indefinite article :

When the proper noun is reclassified as a common noun:

A Shakespeare is born once every 200 years. When the proper name substitutes an object made by, or belonging to the person:

There was a Rembrandt on exhibit.

The zero article is used:

see 3.3.1. Other proper nouns use the definite, indefinite or zero article as is shown in

3.1.1,3.2.1,3.3.1. 158

A Practical English Grammar

3.4.11. NATIONALITY WORDS

Words that are used to express nationality may take: **The indefinite article** if the idea of indefinite is expressed in the singular: *A Chinese came through the door.*

The definite article:

when the idea of definite is expressed:

The Chinese I know are nice people.

The classes of pronouns are:

- 4.1. Personal pronouns
- 4.2. Possessive pronouns
- 4.3. 'Self-pronouns
- 4.4. Reciprocal pronouns
- 4.5. Demonstrative pronouns
- 4.6. Interrogative pronouns
- 4.7. Relative pronouns
- 4.8. Indefinite pronouns

MAIN FEATURES:

The features that will be enumerated are not generally valid for all classes of pronouns but they hold true for specific classes. Some pronouns have: **Different forms for the subjective and objective functions:**

I/me, who/whom; **Gender distinctions** (masculine/feminine/neuter):

he / she / it **Distinct forms for persons or non-persons:**

everybody /everything

Most pronouns are:

Mutually exclusive as qualifiers.

that book, your book, that book of yours. This does not apply to **every** and **both**.

'Outline words', i.e., they lack the factual content which must be deduced from the context or the situation:

He took Mary's spectacles and examined them carefully. Many of them act sometimes as: **Pronouns:**

This is exactly what I wanted. Adjectives: *This book is exactly **what** I need for **the** seminar.*

163

The Pronoun

4.1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

FORM:

The personal pronouns have distinction of person, number, gender and case. They differentiate between:

first person (the person speaking), which has a singular and a plural form: *I/we*

the second person (the person addressed) having the same form for singular and plural: *you*

the third person (the person or thing mentioned), where in the singular the gender distinction is made:

he/she and also the distinction between personal and non-personal:

he, she /it. The plural of the third person is the same for masculine, feminine and neutral:

they.

The personal pronouns will be discussed from the following points of view:

4.1.1. The use

of the gender forms

4.1.2. The use of the case forms

4.1.3. The use of some personal pronouns

4.1.4. The position of the personal pronouns in the sentence.

4.1.1. The USE of the GENDER FORMS

The lack of common gender pronouns in the third person singular creates a difficulty. In colloquial speech and informal written English 'they' is used:

Everyone if they were honest would say the same, in very correct language **'he** or **'she** is used:

If a person had not got the money, then he or she just could not pay.

If the situation makes it clear that only one gender is in question, naturally only one pronoun is used.

In literary English the masculine pronoun is still used even when the statement applies to both sexes.

In the case of nouns denoting a person of either sex (**'friend'**, **'person'**, **'student'**, *etc.*) the use of pronouns acts as above. For **'baby'**, **'child'**, when we do not know the sex, 'it' is a solution: *What a cute little baby it is!*

164

A Practical English Grammar

4.1.2. The USE of the CASE FORMS

Personal pronouns have two case forms: **the subjective:**

1st person: /-sg., we-pl.

2nd person: **you-** sg. and pl.

3rd person: *he/she/it*-sg., *they*-pl. **the objective:**

1st person: *me*-sg., *us*-pl.

2nd person: *you*- sg. and pl.

3rd person: *him/her/it*-sg., *them*-pl.

The genitive of the personal pronouns is expressed through the possessive pronouns, (see 4.2)

The dative is expressed through a construction of the type preposition + pronoun.

Subjective personal pronouns function as subject and sometimes subject complement.

Objective personal pronouns function as object, prepositional complement and sometimes as subject complement.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE MAY SUPPLANT THE SUBJECTIVE CASE When not immediately followed by the verb:

They understood each other all right, Tom and her. **In exclamations without a verb:**

"Come along!" "Who, me?" **After 'as', 'but', and 'than':**

Peter was three years older than Jack and I/me.

Why aren't other people as good as he/him?

In this case consciously correct is the nominative as **'than'** and **'as'** can be either analyzed as prepositions requiring thus the objective case or as conjunctions with ellipted predicates requiring the subjective case forms, but in colloquial speech the objective case is most frequently used.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE MAY NOT SUPPLANT THE SUBJECTIVE CASE" after 'as', 'but', and 'than' When no ellipsis of the predicate occurs:

He is as intelligent as she is.

He loves you more than I do.

165

The Pronoun

When the personal pronoun is supported by a 'self-form:

They were no more likely to make such an error than he himself.

When the 'self-form takes the place of the personal pronoun:

No one could do this better than herself.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE FORMS ARE USED:

After the prepositions 'but', 'except' and 'like' and also other prepositions:

Nobody else knew about it but me.

They are all clever except him.

People like us.

There are many cases -mostly in colloquial usage- when *you and I* is used instead of *you and me* simply because *you and I* is felt to be a unit, which can remain unchanged.

Let you and I do it!

He says she saw you and I last night. In formal language a subject complement is in the nominative:

It is I, but informally the objective form is used:

It is me.

If the pronoun has a relative clause attached to it, the attraction of this generally determines the form of the pronoun:

It is I who gave her the book.

It is them he puts the blame on.

W^3WMA333W3M3Mi333SM

H

166

I

A Practical English Grammar

^.....l;|::|:1f::'::::W;;r'?l;::f'::

THE PREPOSITIONAL DATIVE

The verbs 'write', 'sing' and 'play' are followed by the prepositional dative when there is no direct object expressed:

Read to us; I wrote to her. If the direct object is expressed the preposition is omitted:

I wrote her a letter yesterday.

He is reading her the news.

Verbs like 'describe', 'mention', 'propose', 'introduce', 'listen', 'prescribe', 'announce', 'suggest', 'prove', etc. are always followed by the prepositional dative:

Will you listen to me for a moment?!

^

167

The Pronoun

4.1.3. The USE of some PERSONAL PRONOUNS

THE PRONOUN *I* vs. *MYSELF*

The pronoun **myself** is preferred to the pronoun *I* in the following cases: **After a copulative verb:**

The students you ask about are Mary and myself. **After 'but', 'than', and 'as':**

All were there but myself. **In absolute constructions:**

The party went on, he and myself being in the rear. **In a succession of direct objects.**

He asked Tom, Mary, myself and a few others where he

could find a better deal. **After 'and' and 'like':**

A good friend like myself.

Other self-forms may also replace the corresponding personal pronouns in some of the cases mentioned above.

THE PRONOUN *WE*

The pronoun 'we' is used when referring to: **The speaker plus others:**

We (the children) had taken so little care of our clothes that...

168

A Practical English Grammar

The speaker and everyone else:

We live to learn. **The speaker used by rulers, 'the royal we':**

We, the Queen of England, decree..... **The person addressed,** with a patronizing tone to the children and the sick:

Can't we open our mouth a little wider?

How are we this morning?

'We' as the 'modest authorial voice' is nowadays not used anymore in the UK:

We wrote this paper in order to prove that. It should either be replaced with 'I':

I wrote this paper to prove that. or such constructions should be avoided:

The aim of this paper is to prove that... 'We' should be used when the author means 'both myself and my readers', implying a joint enterprise from their parts:

We have observed in chapter three... or 'myself and the others in my profession/situation'

After the experiment we (the scientists involved in this project) concluded that...

THE PRONOUN *US*

'Us' has almost obligatory contraction to 's in *let's*:

Let's go! but not when *let* has the meaning of 'to permit':

Please let us go without you! We promise we will behave.

t^ THE PRONOUN *YOU*

'You' is used:

For the second persons singular and plural. We can make the number clear by additions:

You sir; You are all welcome; You kids. **For the person(s) addressed plus others** (even the speaker may be included):

You can never tell.

169

The Pronoun

With the imperative 'You' is not normally included:

Go home! but it may be used for emphasis:

You stay in! You there, get up!

THE PRONOUN 'IT'

'It' may be used: **To refer to singular nouns designating a thing:**

A chair (it) is what I want. **When referring to collective nouns.** Both 'it' or 'they' is used:

The team (it) is on the field.

The team (they) are taking showers. **To refer to 'baby' or 'child'** when the sex is not known.

How old is it?

To refer to the content of (part of) a preceding clause or sentence. In content this 'it' approximates 'that' which is more emphatic or 'thing', or 'so', 'matter':

"You are late." "It is not my fault."

Is it really true?

With certain verbs: 'find out', 'forget', 'know', 'manage', 'mind', 'refuse', 'remember', 'show', 'tell', 'try', 'understand', etc. In this case 'it' refers to some fact already mentioned:

It all happened a long time ago.

He was dying and he knew it. Without an object they refer more vaguely to the fact mentioned:

Forget it.

As **an anticipatory factor** to refer to the content of (part of) a following clause or sentence:

It was unbelievable: they actually welcomed me.

It might be of interest if you set down a few of my thoughts.

It is a pity to make a fool of yourself.

The anticipatory 'it' occurs in statements concerning **time, distance, weather, weight**, etc.:

It rains. It is chilly. It is Sunday. It is late. It was June.

It is a long way to our farm.

As subject of impersonal verbs when it plays the role of an indefinite pronoun : // appears. *It is said. It is easy.*

170

Grammar As an emphatic factor to give information as to identity:

As

y^{ad} behind him, I saw it was his brother.

*IVe * " f « " « " ^ .predicative in the fe « V? // is I/me; It was Tom that discovered the missing key*

SUBJECT _ M

£

""

or

*f ■ **, "lc " f " « • * > » *; It's no use skulking.*

^2 - _ object rt to i

are „suaUy

I

:?;.....sK^~;;s\$;i:S;i:s^~^~

.....'imM&WM

mimmmmmmmmmmm

iii.....Ill.....'mmmmxmm:mmmmm^mm

*iiillliillll.....^*

171

The Pronoun

The pronouns 'it', 'you', 'we', '**they**' may also function as indefinite pronouns:

We do not have good results in our work when we are tired.

They say he is a good painter.

You can never tell if a man is good or bad before

you know him very well. 'It' may be used as subject for impersonal verbs:

It happens that I know him.

It seems that there will be another delay.

It is said that he is in town.

^

THE ADVERB 'THERE'AND THE PRONOUN 'IT'

The adverb 'there' has an introductory function in the constructions with 'be' *there is/are, there was/were, there will be*

III

A Practical English Grammar

The meaning conveyed by these expressions is '**there exists**': *There is a picture on the wall There will be more than two thousand people present.*

The pronoun 'it' introduces expressions of **time, distance, weight.** *It is seven o'clock.*

^^

...^

i;^

.....i\$illl

173

The Pronoun

IIIIII

iIIIIII

Siii^S

P^^

PA

SiiSS'

11

iiii

174

A Practical English Grammar

.....iiiiIIMIPii^

¥. i. 4. 7%e *POSITION of the PERSONAL PRONOUNS*

Personal pronouns do not always occupy the same position as the nouns. The personal pronouns may have the following **FUNCTIONS** in the sentence:

Subject: A personal pronoun as subject **cannot be separated from its verb** by long sentence elements.

Direct and Indirect Object: If pronouns function as direct and indirect objects, the direct object precedes the indirect object:

*/ gave **it** to him.*

The indirect object of the verbs '**arrange**', '**begin**', '**propose**', etc. is usually placed after the direct object:

Who arranged things for you?

If in a sentence either the direct object or the indirect object is expressed by a pronoun and the other by a noun, the pronoun comes first:

*I gave **him** the book. I gave**it** to Thomas.* If they are both expressed by pronouns, the direct object comes first:

*/ gave **it** to him.*

However, if the indirect object indicates the beneficiary and is preceded by '**for**', it goes after the direct object: ***Open the door for me, please! Leave that matter for me! Deliver it for me!***

175

The Pronoun

view:

4.2. *POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS*

The possessive pronoun will be analyzed from the following points of

4.2.1. The possessive pronoun vs. the possessive adjective

4.2.2. The use of the possessive pronoun

4.2.3. The use of the possessive adjective

4.2.1. *The POSSESSIVE PRONOUN vs. the POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE*

FORM:

Here are the forms of the possessive pronouns together with their corresponding possessive adjectives:

Possessive adjectives:

1st person: *my* -sg., *our*-pl.

2nd person: *your* sg. and pi. 3rd person: *his/her/its*-sg.,

Possessive pronouns:

1st person: *mine*-sg.

ours-pl.

2nd person: *yours*- sg. and pi. 3rd person: *his/hers/its* -sg.

theirs-pl.

their-pl.

The possessive pronoun 'its' is very rarely used, but it could be used in such sentences where ellipsis occurs as:

ii-^'lllilfil?

<i>m</i>	f				? : N : : : :
<i>m</i>					
<i>A</i>	isSt,iii5fl::	'immm		isg\$	lia;iii;:fsiffff*ffff*:ffff*ffffSf\$ff::
<i>ft</i>		w,		iii	\$fff::ss

:: : g i		11		P	i i; f; :
f		1		:.....pi.....if!!p	şiSissifŞitişi
		11		!i;i	Hf-i:Ş:
		11			

	;	\$	5	i	
		111			
		1	.ip		
			lipii		« : :Şi! : :isj!; : f
			i		Şi;f
11	fS		nil	ilşPMSJiiălişi	
1		HI	1-	fill	si : :
'	colilii?	>i;iii:	1		

<i>m</i>					
<i>m</i>					
<i>M</i>		111			i
<i>S</i>		P			!:: l f l :
sill					
11	: 3 l-:		i	11	
1	j,^ :;:				liyfi.....pili::; :; :il P:
	:\$:\$:\$::s"":		1		: : :
	: : S:				
till	: ra:\$:::lg\$		ill		
			lip	i	: Si
ill:	f f l		fill	i	..: "" " "" "" "" "" 1...-ii- :P\$; : P: il

USE of the POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE

THE POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE IS USED:

In front of nouns and 'one', having an attributive function:

This is your book.

If the subject of the verb requiring a gerund is different from the subject of the gerund. In this case in formal English we use *a possessive adjective* to make the subject of the gerund clear:

/ don't like his borrowing money. In less formal English we use the object form of the personal pronoun instead:

/ don't like him borrowing money.

If the subject of the verb requiring a gerund is identical with the subject of the gerund, the second one is omitted, thus no possessive is required:

/ don't mind going there alone.

^

^

.....i|-:ii:l;ll:;;|ss|i>^{ss};;:l

^^^k^^ss

180

A Practical English Grammar

iiiiiiiii]iiipii!is

Make one sentence of

a possessive, i

:s#@:*^t?

!p^

sillPifflll

TÎTi? POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE vs. THE DEFINITE ARTICLE The possessive adjective is used in English where often the definite article would be used in some other languages: **With parts of the human body:** *She has hurt her hand.*

181

The Pronoun

With personal articles of clothing:

/ took off my shoes. With other objects of personal use {car, etc.};

I parked my car in the parking place behind the building.

The definite article is used instead of the possessive adjective: **In certain idioms:**

/ have a cold in the head.

lll

Si

ill!

lll iii

l^yf;?^

4.3. "SELF" PRONOUNS

FORM:

The self-pronouns are formed by adding '-self (sg.)'/'-selves' (pi) to the possessive adjectives of the first and second persons:

1st person: *myself*-sg., *ourselves*-p\.

2nd person: *yourself*- sg., *yourselves* -pi. and to the objective case form of the personal pronouns of the third person:

3rd person: *himself*/*herself*/*itself*-sg., *themselves*-p\.

182

A Practical English Grammar

eating

lllj2^

USAGE:

The 'self pronoun is used in the following ways: 4.3.1. **The reflexive use** : The self-pronoun is used to show that the subject and the object of the verb are the same person or thing:

He is washing himself.

4.3.2. **The emphasizing use**: The self-pronouns are used to intensify or emphasize:

He didn't send anybody else. He himself went.

Reflexive pronouns in reflexive use can also have an emphatic stress when a contrast is stated or implied:

She thinks only about herself, never of other people.

4.3.1. The REFLEXIVE USE of the "SELF" PRONOUNS

FUNCTIONS:

The reflexive pronoun can be: **A direct object**:

He shaves himself every morning. **An indirect object**:

You have given yourself a great deal of work.

Part of the predicate of the verb 'to be', in which case it always has the strong stress:

Ah, that's better. You are yourself again.

183

The Pronoun

THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUN IS USED:

With obligatory reflexive verbs such as 'absent oneself from', 'avail oneself of', 'betake oneself, 'pride oneself on':

I pride myself on always having a tidy garden.

He availed himself of the opportunity to speak to her.

With optionally reflexive verbs i.e. verbs where the reflexive pronoun may be left out with little or no change in meaning: 'adjust (oneself)', 'dress (oneself)', 'prove (oneself to be competent)'

/ hope the children will behave (themselves).

I hope you will enjoy yourself at the party.

The verbs **acquit**, **enjoy**, **behave** and **apply**, can be used non-reflexively.

I enjoyed the concert very much.

With "non-reflexive verbs" where the reflexive pronouns are used to indicate that the action expressed by the verb passes from the subject back again to the subject and not to any other person or thing:

/ am shaving myself.

as opposed to */ am shaving grandfather.*

In a reciprocal sense:

They were busy arguing among themselves (= with each other).

THE 'SELF' PRONOUN vs. THE PERSONAL PRONOUN

Either **the self pronoun or the personal pronoun** is used:

After 'as', 'like', 'but', 'except' and other elements of coordination: *For somebody like me/myself this is a big surprise. My brother and I/myself went sailing yesterday.*

The 'self pronouns are used instead of the personal pronouns: **With non-reflexive verbs** as shown above. **For added clearness of meaning:**

She suspected that they recognized her sister but not herself.

For added politeness: Sometimes the *self-form* is felt to be more polite:

My wife and myself were invited to the party.

184

A Practical English Grammar

As **prepositional complements**

where there is a close connection between the verb and the prepositional phrase:

Mary could stand for hours looking at herself in the mirror.

He thinks too much of himself. when the reference is emotionally to a person's self:

He winced inside himself.

She was beside herself with rage.

The personal pronouns are used instead of the 'self pronouns: As **prepositional complements** if there is no doubt about the identity of the person denoted by the pronoun:

We have the whole day before us.

He looked about him. if there is a spacial relationship:

She had her boy-friend beside her.

They placed their papers in front of them.

When the pronouns function as prepositional complements there are cases when there is variation in use between the self pronouns and the personal pronouns:

She has built a wall of books around her(self).

She was holding her yellow robe around her (self)

as he came in.

He closed the door gently behind him(self).

185

The Pronoun

..

..

y 4.3.2. 7%e EMPHASIZING USE of the "SELF" PRONOUNS

The emphasizing pronoun is always strongly stressed and it is used **for the sake of emphasis**; generally to point out a contrast such as: ***You yourself told me the story.***

186

A Practical English Grammar

POSITION:

Reflexive pronouns in emphatic use occur in apposition and have greater positional mobility. The emphasizing pronoun can go:

After the word it modifies:

I myself wouldn't go.

At the end of the sentence in short sentences, in spoken English: *I saw him do it myself.*

In this sentence the person denoted by the subject and the person denoted by the object are identical.

The emphasizing pronoun could be omitted without destroying the sense of the sentence.

At the beginning of the sentence with even greater emphasis: *Myself, I wouldn't kiss her.*

MEANING:

Sometimes emphasizing pronouns are used to convey specific meaning apart from having an emphasizing function. The following meanings may be conveyed: '**Alone**' or '**without help**', in which case they are generally preceded by 'by':

The little girl travelled from London to New York by

herself. '**All + by + self pronoun**' intensifies the meaning of '**without help**':

Don't you feel lonely living here all by yourself? The meaning '**without help**' can be suggested without '**by**':

You can't do all the work yourself in a garden as big as

this. '**Even/not even**':

Shakespeare himself never wrote a better line than that. '**No less...**'

It was a portrait that Reynolds himself (= no less a painter than Reynolds) might have painted

189

The Pronoun

Replace the words or ph pronouns:

v expres

4.4. RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS

The e for the sake of emp^{0^1} pronoun has *tyf0* forms:

You your ^{^e} re^er to tw0 persons:

other.

186

A Practical English Grammar

'One another' used when referring to more than two persons, but nowadays it is often used for two persons, too:

The students of this group help one another.

USAGE:

The reciprocal pronouns are used to indicate co-reference between subject and nominal object:

We could hardly see each other in the fog. When used with a preposition this is placed before the reciprocal pronouns:

The two sisters played with each other.

Itit

^^

189

The Pronoun

4.5. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS:

FORM:

The demonstrative pronouns and adjectives are:

4.5.1. **this-these, that-those**

4.5.2. **the former-the latter**

4.5.3. **the same**

4.5.4. **such**

4.5.5. **so**

4.5.6. **one**

Except the demonstrative pronouns 'so' and 'one(s)', all the other demonstratives may be used both as adjectives or pronouns.

'That' and 'one' may function also as other parts of speech.

4.5.1. The DEMONSTRATIVES 'THIS'- 'THESE', 'THAT'- 'THOSE'

THESE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS (and adjectives) ARE USED:

To take the place of a noun:

Is this (seat) taken ?

To suggest the idea of position with regard to the speaker, 'this', 'these'

being nearer in space and time, 'that', 'those' being more distant:

There is a seat here, near me, and there is that in the fourth row.

Which will you have, this or that? That is what I thought last year, this is what I think now.

Having a discourse reference:

This/that is what I mean...

Having a determinative reference. Only 'that/those' can be used in this way:

That

which upsets me most is his manner.

Those who are lazy will never pass.

'That which' is very formal and 'that who' is incorrect. To express this other constructions are used:

Anyone who...
Anybody who...
The person who...
190

A Practical English Grammar

With an emotive value in informal English. Only the demonstrative **'this'** may be used in this way, implying familiarity of the type 'we both know':

Don't mention this wretched business again!

You now this fellow Johnson...

It gives you this great feeling...

^
^

THESE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS (and adjectives) ARE USED: In many idiomatic phrases:

that's the boy/girl (= bravo!) *that's a good boy/girl* (=fii drăguț(ă)) *and that's that* (= și cu asta gata) *this many a day* (= de multă vreme) *that is (to say)*(= adică, mai bine zis), *with this and that* (= cu una, cu alta) *this, that and the other* (= ba una, ba alta) *Ann this, Ann that* (= Ana în sus, Ana în jos), *that's enough* (=e de-ajuns) In the idiomatic expressions:

that's the time of the day

that's another pair of shoes

that beats all

that's a horse of another colour

I know this much

let's put this and that together

that's what men are

that's all there is to it

that's the limit

that bangs the bush

with that she shut the door

this is something like music

that will do

that's it

but for that (~ if it hadn 't been for *that*)*that's right*

191

The Pronoun

yea

'7ZL4 J' M4F.BE

A demonstrative adjective or pronoun:

That is my son. **A relative pronoun:**

This is the painter that the papers wrote about. **A conjunction:**

He said that he would pay me a visit on Friday. **An adverb:**

The water was that deep.

4.5.2. The DEMONSTRATIVES

'THE FORMER'- 'THE LATTER'

'The former' (= that /those) and **'the latter'** (= this/these) can also be regarded as demonstrative pronouns:

Work and play are both good for the health: the former (=the work) gives us energy and the latter (-the play) gives us rest.

'The former' and **'the latter'** are used when **two objects or things** are implied and **'the first'** and **'the last'** are used when we mean **more than two persons or things**.

192

A Practical English Grammar

-
:J:iiiişS::::-:/^^|il:III

4.5.3. The DEMONSTRATIVE 'THE SAME'

'THE SAME' IS USED:

As a **demonstrative pronoun** having an anaphoric reference:

I did the same. As a **demonstrative adjective**:

The same boy came in. In idiomatic expressions:

same here (—si eu/mie)

it's all the same to me (=mi-e egal)

all the same (=cu toate acestea)

4.5.4. The DEMONSTRATIVE 'SUCH'

'SUCH' CAN BE USED: As a demonstrative pronoun:

Such is life. As a **demonstrative adjective**, intensifying:

I have had such a busy morning. In idiomatic expressions:

on such and such a day/month/year (= în cutare zi/lună/an).

193

The Pronoun

'SUCH' IS USED:

To convey the meaning 'for example':

They export a lot of fruit, such as oranges, lemons, etc. With the verb 'to be' having sometimes a depreciatory implication:

He gave me his help, such as it was (= but it wasn't of much use).

4.5.5. The DEMONSTRATIVE 'SO'

'SO' IS USED:

To stand for an affirmative statement especially after certain verbs: *say, think, hope, believe, suppose, expect, hear, tell, imagine, fear, be afraid.* "Is he very ill?" "I'm afraid so."

To stand for a negative statement:

I don't think / believe / suppose so.

With the verb 'to do' to refer to a preceding verb:

I told him to come and see me the next day and he did so.

To represent an adjective or a noun with the verb 'to be, to remain, to seem, to make':

He has been very helpful to me in the past and I hope he will be so (= helpful) *in the future.*

To convey the meaning 'also'. In such sentences it is followed by the inverted form of the verb:

My husband likes French and so do I.

In idiomatic expressions:

Miss so and so (= domnişoara cutare) *so, so* (== aşa şi-aşa),

4.5.6. The DEMONSTRATIVE 'ONE'

'ONE' CAN FUNCTION AS:

A pronoun. (This holds true for all numerals.) In this case the plural form is 'some': *One cannot do the work of twenty.*

A demonstrative pronoun or adjective:

Our little ones.

A noun: *Write 102 with one one.*

A numeral: *I remember only one day of the holiday we spent together.*

194

A Practical English Grammar

An indefinite pronoun or adjective:

One day you won't answer such questions. **An impersonal 'one':**

One can't believe that.

A prop-word. In some constructions adjectives cannot stand alone and need the prop-word 'one' to

support them. This word refers to some previous noun:
Brown's old car is a good one; it's much better than our new one.

'ONE'S USED:

With something of its meaning as a numeral when contrasted with **'other'** or **'another'**:

There are two choices open to you. You must take either the one or the other (pronoun).

One evening we went to the theatre, another evening we went dancing (adjective).

To express some vague time having lost its numerical meaning:

He always hopes that one day he will win the prize.
(adjective)

One of these days I'll go and see him (pronoun).

To stand for 'people' or 'any person in my position'. In this case it can be a subject or an object; it has the possessive form **one's** and the reflexive **oneself**. It is followed by a third person singular verb: *One can only do one's best.*

To convey the meaning 'only', 'single'. With this meaning **one** is always an adjective:

The one man who could have saved the situation was dead.

In idiomatic expressions:

He can go or he can stay; it's all one to me (= it makes no difference);

He was a man that was liked by one and all (=everybody).

When there is some idea of comparison or selection. In this case the pronoun **one/ones** is often placed after the demonstratives **this, that, these, those**, but this is not essential except when the demonstrative is followed by an adjective:

That wardrobe is too big. I'll buy this smaller one.

195

The Pronoun

1111BSS

;;;;g

IS

iRil

î:IIPI||ffî:i;§^^

^

llil

196

A Practical English Grammar

::El;^

^:.*JSJ^^

S 4.6. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

FORM:

These pronouns are **who (whom, whose), which, what**. The interrogative pronouns are invariable for gender and number.

The interrogative adjectives corresponding to the interrogative pronouns are **whose, what, which**.

Like all adjectives they are invariable. They can be used **for** persons or for things. They can be part of

the subject or the object and be followed by a singular verb or a plural one:

Whose car is that?

What places did you see?

Which eye was injured?

USAGE:

The interrogative pronouns are used: **To introduce:**

A direct question:

What happened after that? **An indirect question:**

He asked me what had happened after that.

4.6.1. To convey different meanings according to the noun they substitute. 4.6.2. With prepositions.

197

The Pronoun

In idiomatic expressions. Here are some idiomatic expressions with '**who**', '**which**', '**what**' (not necessarily as interrogatives) :

What about a cigarette? (= Would you like? Shall we have?)

Oh, there's Mr. What's-his-name.

It's a what-do-you-call-it.

What with high prices.....

It was so dark I couldn't tell who was who.

The two twins are so alike I can't tell which is which.

You must tell me who's who.

You'll find his name in Who's Who.

He's a clever fellow; he knows what's what.

(= what is good, useful etc. from what is not).

What is the English for... ?

What about you... ?

He bought apples, tea, coffee, cakes and what not.

Who on earth... ?

4.6.1. The MEANINGS conveyed by the INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

THE PRONOUNS 'WHO/WHOM/WHOSE'

'WHO' is used:

Only for persons. It may be singular or plural and may be used to stand for a masculine or feminine form:

"Who spilt the ink?" "Henry /Mary did " '**Who**' is the nominative form; '**Whom**' is the objective form:

"■Who(m) did you see?" "I saw George."

Whom is the literary form and is preferred in writing. In conversation it is generally replaced by **who** unless it immediately follows a preposition.

'Whose' is the possessive form: *Whose are these gloves?*

198

A Practical English Grammar

THE PRONOUN 'WHAT'

'WHAT' is used:

For things. It may be singular and plural, subject or object, and it has no possessive form:

What is this?

For an activity, in which case the answer will be usually a verb in the **-ing** form:

"What are you doing?" "I'm cleaning the car.", but other forms of the verb may also be used:

"What have you done?" "I've knocked the vase off the table."

To ask for a person's profession, nationality:

What is that man talking to your father?

In the construction "What.....like?":

"What is he like?" "He's tall, dark and handsome."
 or "What's he like as a pianist?" "Oh, he's not very good."
 or "What's his work like?" "It's quite good."

THE PRONOUN 'WHICH'

WHICH is used:

For things and persons, singular and plural, subject or object. It has no possessive case.

THE PRONOUN 'WHO' vs. 'WHAT'

There are cases when the distinction is imperative to be made: **Between 'who' (for persons) and 'what' (for things):**

Who broke that window?

and *What broke that window?*

What are these strange things? **Between 'who' inquiring for identity and 'what' inquiring for profession:**

What is that man talking to your father? He is a salesman.

Who is that man talking to your father? He is Mr. Smith.

199

The Pronoun

THE PRONOUN 'WHAT' vs. 'WHICH'

What is used when we make a selection **from a more or less unlimited number**: *"What are you taking for your examination?" "I'm taking English, French and German."*

Which is used to present a choice **from a limited number**.

Which will you have: tea or coffee? The choice with **which** is usually made more explicit by **which of**: *Which of you boys can't do this exercise?*

The distinction should also be made in the following case:

Which girls do you like best? (=the speaker wants an answer based on a limited number of known girls) *What girls do you like best?* (the meaning conveyed is 'what kind of

KP" THE PRONOUN 'WHO' vs. 'WHICH'

There is a different implication in each of the following sentences:

Who would like to come for a football game? (= the speaker is prepared to take all who wish to come) and *Which of you would like to come for a football game?* (= he is only prepared to take a certain number).

Ever is added to **what**, **who** or **which** usually to express more emphatically a feeling of surprise, anger, indignation, etc.:

Whoever can be calling at this time of night?

Whatever made you trust him with all that money?

ESMSi[^]XiM

200

A Practical English Grammar

--imtk

, 'v atreadv bev

or io

4.6.2. INTERROGATORS used WITH PREPOSITIONS

POSITION OF THE PREPOSITION-

normally[^]cef mterro8atlVes <<used -* prepositions, the prepos.ion is At **the end** of the question in speech:

What is this product made of? **Before the pronoun** in written language:

By whom is that book written?

201

The Pronoun

The preposition is placed:

Before the pronoun when we express **surprise or misunderstanding** in an interrogative response. In this case we question the whole idea and we stress the interrogative pronoun which comes after the preposition:

"Send that book by post?" "By what?"

After the pronoun when there is no surprise or misunderstanding and we want **further clarification**.

In this case a falling intonation is used:

"Send that parcel" "Who to?" Whom is never heard!

Λ

IIIPIIIE

i^ S

iS

202

Mmme^{mv}wmm

ii llii

1

11!.....ggf.....I.....«.....I.....

ii.....^f.....§.....1.....1.....1

ii^f§.....1.....1.....1

il:;.....11:11111

iiiiilliSilfP^WS

ill^iil?^i|:sSiili:|!"i^i'ii!!fil:|

The Pronoun

TM 4.7. *RELATIVE PRONOUNS*

FORM:

The relative pronouns are '**who**' (nominative), '**whom**' (objective), '**whose**' (possessive), '**which**', '**that**', '**what**' and occasionally 'as' and '**but**'. They have the same forms singular and plural, masculine and feminine.

The choice of a relative pronoun will be determined according to the relative clause in which it

appears :

4.7.1. A defining relative clause

4.7.2. A non-defining relative clause The following topics will also be discussed:

4.7.3. Replacing relative clauses with the infinitive 4 7 4 The use of the relative pronouns

4.7. / . DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

DEFINITION:

Defining relative clauses are necessary ideas expressed in the sentence. If left out the sentence does not make complete sense. All these clauses define the antecedent and give it its definite connotation:

The student who answered the question was John.

This is the house that Jack built.

THE USE OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS IN DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

Here are practical suggestions as to how relative pronouns might be used in defining relative sentences. Note that the actual usage might somewhat differ according to personal choice.

<i>function</i>	<i>people</i>
subject	who, that
object	(that)
prepositional object	(that) ... preposition
whose	
possessive	
<i>things</i>	
that	
(that)	
(that) ... preposition	
of which, whose	

When the relative pronoun in a defining relative clause is in the *objective case*, it is often omitted, especially in spoken English: *The man (that) you spoke to was my brother.* Clauses in which the relative pronoun is omitted are called **contact clauses**.

204

A Practical English Grammar

4.7.2. NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

DEFINITION:

Non-defining relative clauses could be omitted and the rest of the sentence would still make perfect sense. They do not define (or identify) the antecedent. What they do is to give additional information about the antecedent which has already been sufficiently defined (identified). Commas must be put around a non-defining relative clause:

*Bernard Shaw, who wrote *St. Joan*, died in 1950.*

Here are practical suggestions as to how relative pronouns might be used in non-defining relative sentences.

<i>function</i>	
subject	
object	
prepositional object	
possessive	
<i>people</i>	
who	
whom	
preposition + whom	
whom ... preposition	
whose	
<i>things</i>	
which	
which	
preposition + which which ... preposition of which, whose	

The relative pronoun in non-defining relative sentences is **never** omitted.

4.7.3. Replacing *RELATIVE CLAUSES* with *THE INFINITIVE*

An infinitive can sometimes replace a relative clause:

After 'the first', 'the second', 'the last', 'the only':

The only man to help her was her brother. He was the first man to set foot on the Moon.

When there is some idea of purpose or permission:

This is a place to build a country house on.

After superlatives, sometimes:

This is the best course to be found at the library.

205

The Pronoun

4.7.4. 77*e £/££ o/tfze *RELATIVE PRONOUNS*

'THAT' AS A PRONOUN

'That' is invariable and is used **for persons and things**. **'That'** can be used only in **defining relative clauses**.

'THAT' + PREPOSITION

'That' cannot be preceded by a preposition; when a preposition is required, it is placed at the end of the clause it belongs to:

Here is the car that I talked to you about.

'THAT' is used:

After an adjective in the superlative and after most indefinite pronouns:

Yesterday was one of the coldest days that I have ever know.

He is the most brilliant man that I have ever met.

After the opening 'It is', 'It was', and their corresponding interrogative forms:

// is the teacher that is important, not the kind of school he teaches in.

When the antecedent is both a person and a thing:

He talked brilliantly of the men and the books that interested him.

After the word 'same':

She wore the same dress that she wore at Mary's wedding. but the usual relative pronoun after **'same'** is **'as'**:

I shall be surprised if he does this in the same way as I do.

206

A Practical English Grammar

'WHAT' AS A PRONOUN

'WHAT' is used:

When the antecedent is not expressed. It is a relative pronoun and an antecedent in one word:

Tell me what you want to know. **When the antecedent is in a sentence which follows 'that':**

He is an interesting speaker, and, what is more important, is that he knows his subject thoroughly.

KF° *WHAT' vs. 'WHICH'*

The relative pronoun **'what'** means **"the thing(s) that"**:

What he says is quite true. **'What'** cannot be used in a connective relative clause:

He said your painting was nicer than Andy's which (not what) is perfectly true.

tW *'WHO' vs. 'WHICH'*

WHO/WHOSE/WHOM is used:

Of persons: *The man who spoke was my brother.*

Of animals when the name of the animal is given (this is not obligatory)

Our dog Jock, who had been lost for two days, was found and brought home by a policeman. With collective nouns if the noun is regarded as plural: The team, who are just getting their tickets, will meet on the platform at 3.20.

'WHICH' is used:

Of things and animals: *The dog which was lost has been found.*

With collective nouns denoting persons if the noun is regarded singular: *The team, which played well, has left the stadium.*

When the antecedent is a whole sentence:

He invited us to dinner, which was very kind of him.

AGREEMENT with THE VERB

'What', 'which' and 'who', used interrogatively, are followed by the SINGULAR or the PLURAL of the verb according to the speaker's intentions: *What is your name?/ What are your reasons?*

Which of the books is/are yours?/Who was/were with him?

207

The Pronoun

'THAT'vs. WHO', 'WHICH'

'That' is preferred to **'who(m)'** and **'which':**

After 'all', 'much', 'little', 'everything', 'none', 'no' (and its compounds), 'any' : *All that glitters is not gold.*

After superlatives:

Tom's composition is the most interesting one that I have ever read.

'AS' AS A PRONOUN

'AS' is used as:

A relative pronoun after the demonstrative pronouns **'the same'** and **'such'**. It is used both for persons and things: **After 'such':**

/ never heard such stories as he tells. After 'same', also 'that' may be used:

/ shall be surprised if he does this in the same way as I do. A conjunction: / did as you said.

An adverb: */ am as hungry as a wolf.*

!^

^^^

Ss-!';::;|:g

^^

208

1111....'Bămsm!&^w^xmWi

S^Klll^^ffiSiS^P

^^^

iilll.....w:mmmmmm::

JBuiureiQ qsijgua p»poEid v

The Pronoun

^.....;:illir\s:ssl|

iiiiii^^

/ r- , i ' .v horse, ...

ills

210

A Practical English Grammar

Which, what, and whose function both as relative pronouns and relative adjectives.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS WITH 'EVER'

The compound relative pronouns and adjectives (with ever) have a more **indefinite character** than the simple forms:

/ must admit: whatever he says is true.

CORRELATIVE PRONOUNS:

'He who', 'she who' and 'the one', 'that (which)' are correlative pronouns that are not used in colloquial speech. Their plural is **'those who'**, sometimes **'such who', 'such as'**. Agreement is made in person and number, not in case.

211

The Pronoun

4& INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

This is a group containing the pronouns:

4.8.1. **'each' and 'every' (-body, -thing, -one)**

4.8.2. **'all'**

4.8.3. **'either' and 'neither'**

4.8.4. **'both'**

4.8.5. **'none' and 'no' (-body, -thing, -one)**

4.8.6. **'some' (-body, -thing, -one)**

4.8.7. **'any' (-body, -thing, -one)**

4.8.8. **'much', 'less', '(a) few', '(a) little'**

4.8.9. **'another' and 'other'**

4.8.10. **'enough' and 'several'**

4.8.11. **'one' and 'a certain'.**

Some personal pronouns may also function as indefinite pronouns, (see 4.1.3.): **'it', 'you', 'we', 'they'**.

Another important aspect is that of

4.8.12. agreement of the indefinite pronouns.

4.8.1. 'EACH' vs. 'EVERY' (-BODY, -THING, -ONE)

'Each' and 'every' both mean **'all'**; they imply a number of persons or things considered individually.

'Each' and 'every' also express totality and are usually called **distributives**.

212

A Practical English Grammar

'Each', 'every', 'everyone', 'everybody', 'everything' take a verb in the **SINGULAR**. However, there is a tendency in spoken English to make back reference to **'everybody'** and **'everyone'** with a **PLURAL** form:

Everybody knew that they have to finish the task.

'EACH' can be used for **two or more persons or things** as a **pronoun** or a determinative **adjective**:

Each (man) must do his best.

'Each other' is found in colloquial speech as a subject, and the verb is then commonly in the **SINGULAR**:

We know what each other wants.

'EVERY' can be used only when the total number **exceeds two** but it is **not** normally used **for very small numbers**:

Every man must do his best. 'Every' can be used with plural expressions:

every two weeks

'Every' can be only an **adjective**; its **pronominal** forms are **'everyone', 'everybody', 'everything'** and are used in the same way.

DIFFERENCE IN MEANING:

There are some differences in meaning and usage between **'each'** and **'every'** as adjectives. The feeling of distribution is stronger in **'each'** than in **'every'**. **'Every'** tends to gather the separate items into a whole; **'each'** focuses attention on them individually and so tends to disperse the unity:

/ visited him every day while he was in hospital.

I visited him each day while he was in hospital. 'Each' entails reference to something in the context:

There were two boys and I gave an apple to each. 'Everybody' is not context-bound:

/ walked into the room and gave an apple to everybody. 'Each' cannot replace 'every' in the following

expressions:

every other day

every now and then

every two days

The cheaper paper is every bit as good as the dearer one.

He is every inch a gentleman.

You have every right to be angry.

There is every reason to think he is speaking the truth.

213

The Pronoun

USAGE:

'All' can be used as pronoun or as adjective in the singular or plural.

In the SINGULAR:

As a pronoun with the meaning **'everything'**:

All is not gold that glitters.

All is well. As an adjective with the meaning **'the whole of'**.

All the money is spent.

In the PLURAL:

As an adjective

All the pupils were present at the awarding of the prizes. As a pronoun:

All were present at the awarding of the prizes.

The construction **'all' + PLURAL verb** is similar to **'every' + SINGULAR verb**. **'All'** in this case has the meaning of **'every'**:

That's the sort of job that all boys like doing.

That's the sort of job that every boy likes doing.

POSITION:

When the subject is a noun, **'all'** can precede it or follow it: *All the students agreed that the concert was good. The students all wanted to go on that trip.*

214

A Practical English Grammar

4.8.3. **'EITHER'** vs. **'NEITHER'**

MEANING: **'Either'** means **one or the other of two**.

"Which one of the two pens do you want?" "Either will do." **'Either'** can occasionally mean **one and the other of two**.

There are two-storied houses on either side of the street. **'Neither'** means **not this and not the other**.

It is a rejection of both of two: *Neither of my friends has come yet.*

FUNCTIONS:

Both **'either'** and **'neither'** can be:

Distributive adjectives or distributive pronouns. Both are SINGULAR in number. *Neither statement is true.*

I don't want either of them, though either is nice. **Adverbs and conjunctions:**

/ will certainly not go there and neither will my brother.

He won't go swimming this afternoon and his sister will not, either.

Where these pronouns are followed by **'of + plural noun or pronoun'** the verb may be found in the

plural, but this usage seems to be obsolescent, and the singular is normal:

Has (have) either of them told you?

POSITION:

'**Either**' is placed at the end of the sentence:

John doesn't % either.

'**Neither**' is placed at the beginning of the sentence and is followed by the inverted form of the verb.

Neither does John.

Neither takes a positive verb. **Either** takes a negative verb.

CORRELATIVE FORMS:

'**Either**' and '**neither**' may appear in the correlatives: '**either...or**':

They will either have to mail it or fax it. 'neither...nor':

Neither John nor Mary went.

215

The Pronoun

^

'BOTH' can be used:

As an pronoun or as an adjective, indicating **totality**, but it is applied only to **two persons or objects**.

216

A Practical English Grammar

It is used only before plural nouns and takes a PLURAL verb:

I don't know which book is better. I shall read both

(pronoun);

Both his legs were broken in the accident, (adjective) **Adverbially**, the pattern '**both ... and**' means

'not only ... but also'.

Both students failed.

She is both intelligent and kind-hearted.

^ ^

'NO'(-BODY, -THING, -ONE)

'**NO**' is used:

As an attributive adjective:

He is no fool. He has no money. **With the negative concept belonging to the whole sentence:**

You need have no fear. **With an adverbial function** as the negative of a comparative:

for a generation, but no longer.

'**NONE**' is used: **Substantially**, of persons.

None are here. **As an attributive adjective** instead of 'no' before a vowel.

217

The Pronoun

With an adverbial function before '**the**' + **comparative** and before '**so**' and '**too**' + **adjective** or **adverb**:

It's none too soon. **To approximate 'nothing in the nature of** which has a partitive association:

Here is none of the humour, naturalness and charm that

irradiates Mil's famous group. It has PLURAL associations, it acts as the plural of '**nobody**' and '**no one**':

None are so deaf as those who will not hear. The SINGULAR is used in rare cases:

There was none she could tell her sorrow to. In standard speech '**none**' in this usage has otherwise been replaced by '**nobody**', '**no one**' (with the verb in the SINGULAR, of course).

Followed by **'of' + noun** or **pronoun** the number of the verb is as follows: The SINGULAR

When **'none'** refers to uncountable nouns:

We hoped the money would arrive soon, but none was forthcoming.

Where the number of the reality is obscure: *None of their pistols was loaded.* The SINGULAR or PLURAL

When **'none'** refers to a noun or pronoun with a countable content:

None of them are of any use to me (=they are not of any use to me)

None of them is the man I want (= I want one man, but....).

'NOBODY' and **'NO ONE'** are used:

As **independent substantival pronouns**.

Compounds with **'-one'** where there is a **concept of limited group**:

Since no one had an answer to this, silence fell over the

luncheon table. Compounds with **'-body'** when there is **no concept of limitation**:

Nobody has time for everything. They have SINGULAR associations and as subjects take a singular verb.

'NOTHING' is an **independent substantival pronoun**: *Nothing ever happens.*

Followed by **'of' + noun** it has an uncountable association:

There is no atmosphere in the book, nothing of the light that... .

218

A Practical English Grammar

4.8.6. **SOME'(-BODY, -THING, -ONE)**

'SOME' is used:

Substantially of persons and takes a PLURAL verb:

Some boys were late. **With uncountables.** In this case it refers to a part of the whole:

"Coffee?" "I can do with some."

Attributively with countables in the SINGULAR connoting an unspecified member of the class:

I hope to go there some day or another.

In questions when the question is an **invitation, a request** or when the expected answer is "Yes "

'some' is used:

Will you have some more tea?

'SOMEBODY' and **'SOMEONE'** are used: As **independent substantival pronouns**.

Compounds with **'one'** where there is a **concept of limited group**:

Someone will show up for the meeting. Compounds with **'body'** when there is **no concept of limitation**:

Somebody might go. They have **SINGULAR** associations and as subjects take a singular verb:

Somebody is knocking at my door.

'SOMETHING' **'Something'** is an independent substantival pronoun:

They could do something for the immediate relief of the

destitute. **'Something'** can have an adverbial function in phrases expressing companion:

He is something like his father.

'SOMEWHAT'

'Somewhat' was formerly used substantially instead of present-day

'something'. This survives only before 'of':

He is somewhat of a wizard with his hands.

4.8.7. **'ANY' (-BODY, -THING, -ONE)**

'ANY' is used:

Substantially of persons and takes a PLURAL verb:

Any who claim a compact introduction ...

219

The Pronoun

As an **attributive adjective**:

He would take into account any advice from the Council. **Adverbially** before an adjective with or without a definite article and before 'too': *// is not any different from what we expected.*

I am not any too eager to do this. After 'hardly', 'barely', 'scarcely':

/ have hardly any time to write the composition, but I'll

write it on Monday. In questions as the perfect counterpart of 'some' in statements:

Hasn't he got any friends?

but when the question is **an invitation, a request** or when the expected answer is **"Yes" 'some'** is used:

Will you have some more tea? In negative sentences:

He hasn't any enemies, yet. (= He has no enemies yet). In expressions of doubt:

/ don't think he has any chance to succeed. To mean "no particular one", "practically every".

Any cook-book contains this receipt.

'ANY OF'

'Any of' is SINGULAR or PLURAL according to the speaker's intention: *It is hard to believe that any of the forty men would come.*

It was not suggested that any of the accused was implicated.

'ANYBODY' and 'ANYONE'

'Anybody', 'anyone' are functionally and semantically similar to **'somebody' and 'someone'.**

'ANYTHING'

'Anything' is an independent substantival pronoun. **'Anything of + noun** approximates 'any':

Have you seen anything of John lately?

Using **'some'** in question has a **positive orientation:**

Did someone call last night? (= Is it true that someone called last night?, the answer expected is 'yes')

Did anyone call last night? (there is no prior supposition.)

Do you live somewhere near Dover?

Do you live anywhere near Dover?

220

A Practical English Grammar

ill

4.8.8 'MUCH', 'MANY', '(A) LITTLE', '(A) FEW

'Much', 'many', 'little', 'few' are adjectives and pronouns.

'MANY' and 'FEW' are used before/for plural countable nouns: *He has bought many English books lately.*

'MUCH' and 'LITTLE' are used before/for uncountable nouns:

"Have you enough money?" "I haven't got much but I think I have enough to buy the furniture."

221

The Pronoun

^^

S

|||;-:|™;-:-^^^

***/4 LITTLE'** means **a small amount** or what the speaker considers a small amount:

I have a

little money left, let's have dinner in a restaurant.

'A FEW' means **a small number** or what the speaker considers a small number:

/ made friends

with a few physicians in London.

'Little' or 'few' denote scarcity or lack and have almost the force of a negative:

There is little

water in the vase, bring me some more for

the flowers in it. Few people live to be a hundred.

Notice the difference:

There is still a little snow, we can go sleighing. There is little snow, we can't go sleighing.

iip i;;p^

PI

222

4.8.9. 'OTHER' and 'ANOTHER'

'OTHER' is used:

As a noun having the usual 's-' suffix in the plural and genitive:

We haven't seen this good film, but others have.

Two students were late but the others came on time. As an adjective having the usual adjectival functions:

the other day, other books, etc. Adverbially before 'than':

The editor never pressed on me to write other than I

wished. To approximate 'second' in the combination every other:

every other day

'ANOTHER' can be:

An adjective: *He became another man.*

A pronoun. *At the party one girl was laughing, another was singing.*

'OTHER' and 'ANOTHER' may be used: In expressions: *the one.....the other on top of one another*

each knew the other's thoughts

4.8.10. 'SEVERAL' and 'ENOUGH'

'Several' and 'enough' have both determiner and nominal function. 'Several' occurs only with PLURAL count function:

John has made several mistakes in his essay.

223

The Pronoun

'Enough' occurs with PLURAL **count function**:

There are enough players on the field. and SINGULAR and PLURAL **mass function**:

Have you got enough food?

As a determiner '**enough**' may have either pre- or postnominal position: *Have you got food enough ?*

4.8.11. 'ONE'

'One' as an indefinite pronoun means **people in general**'. This use of '**one**' is chiefly formal and is often replaced by the more informal '**you**': *One would think they'd have more patience. You would think...*

In Am.E. repetition of '**one**' is considered very formal, 'he' or 'you' being preferred instead.

One can't be too careful in talking about one's/his finances.

One of + noun or pronoun in the plural + relative pronoun varies in the number of the verb it takes.

The PLURAL is considered correct:

She is one of the few persons I know who have learnt

from experience. But attraction to '**one**' is very frequent:

They have gone through one of those complete changes of

occupation which does everybody good. For further information on this pronoun see 4.5.4.

4.8.12. A GREETING of THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

The indefinite pronouns '**somebody**', '**someone**', '**something**', '**everybody**', '**everyone**', '**everything**', '**nobody**', '**no one**', '**nothing**', '**anybody**', '**anyone**', '**anything**' having a singular meaning agree to the forms '**he**', '**his**', '**himself**', '**she**', '**her**', '**hers**', '**herself**', '**it**', '**its**', '**itself**' (when referring to things or beings whose sex is not specified):

"What's that noise?" "I think somebody broke Jtiş leg."

224

A Practical English Grammar

***He**', '**his**', '**him**', '**himself**' are used when the indefinite pronoun refers to masculine as well as feminine nouns:

Anyone must look after himself.

When the above mentioned indefinite pronouns ('everybody', 'anybody', etc.) have a plural meaning, they are followed by a singular verb, but their corresponding personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns are often used in the plural:

Everybody's reading, aren't they?

To indefinite pronouns / adjectives with a plural meaning correspond the forms 'they', 'their', 'them', 'themselves' and a plural verb:

All agree they will look after themselves.

The indefinite adjectives 'every', 'any', 'no', 'some' are followed by the personal, possessive or reflexive pronouns that agree in gender with the nouns they accompany:

Each girl had to assure herself her name was on the list. 'One' agrees to 'he / she / it' and their corresponding forms 'his', 'itself', etc.

One of my friends said he enjoyed himself at the party. The impersonal 'one' has 'one's' as the possessive form and its corresponding reflexive pronoun 'oneself'.

.....lf;:ll!fi||lll

illliiM

225

The Pronoun

226

iiiiiiiiiiiiiiiis

Plffi ^.....lllilQilll

^fiPPP::«:PpPpPi^PliPli\$

ll|il'il0:|;::;:pP."!\$pf^S:'ia:li||l

lllilillPl^

■:p£iil||PPS

iiiPppPiiiiiyii^

P

S

A Practical English Grammar

5. THE NUMERAL

DEFINITION:

The numeral denotes a position in a series (usually in relation to zero). It is its *meaning* that distinguishes a numeral from other parts of speech.

POSITION:

The numeral comes somewhere between the adjective and the pronoun.

Like an **adjective** it may be placed between a determinative and a noun: **those four artists**

When numerals are used as adjectives, they cannot be moved freely from an adverbial to a predicative position, without change in meaning:

the twenty men (=they were twenty in number) **The men were twenty**, (can also mean 'aged twenty')

Like a **pronoun** it can be used substantially, without any determinative:

Ten were invited but only five came. and it comes before an adjective that modifies a noun:

We spent seven fine days in the mountains.

CLASSIFICATION:

Numerals can be classified into:

5.1. cardinals

5.2. ordinals

5.3. fractions

5.4. collective numbers

5.5. multiplicative/distributive

Other important aspects concerning the numeral are:

5.6. expressions with numerals

5.7. punctuation marks and other special signs

5.8. concord with the verb

227

The Numeral

5.7. CARDINAL NUMBERS

Cardinal numbers will be divided into two groups for discussion:

5.1.1. The numbers 'hundred', 'thousand', 'million', 'billion'

5.1.2. The other cardinal numbers

5.7.7. THE NUMBERS HUNDRED, THOUSAND, MILLION, BILLION

KS^ The meaning of the numbers billion , trillion etc. is in BE.		
and An	i.E. different. They refer to different numbers.	
<		
	British System	American System
1,000,000	one million	one million
1,000,000,000	one thousand million	one billion
1+12 zeros	one billion	one trillion
1+15 zeros	one thousand billions	one quadrillion
1+18 zeros	one trillion	one quintillion
1+24 zeros	one quadrillion	one septillion
1+30 zeros	one quintillion	one nonillion

PREMODIFYING THESE NUMBERS with:

'One' and 'a', where these numbers denote the SINGULAR: *page one hundred,*

The truth is rarely uttered though a thousand oaths are taken.

When **hundred, thousand, etc.** form part of a compound number, 'ONE' is most commonly used: *one hundred and twenty five.*

Other determinatives (with or without one):

We lay like Argus of nights with all our hundred eyes ajar;

... without the smooth running of all the hundred little mechanisms...;

When Mr. John Smith goes to the conference he carries a card bearing one vote for each thousand of his affiliated members;

Another hundred and fifty years were to pass, until... 228

A Practical English Grammar

USING THESE NUMBERS AS NOUNS

The words 'hundred', 'thousand', 'million', etc. are primarily **nouns**. They may: **Take the indefinite article:**

He is one in a thousand. Have the plural suffix '-s':

The hundreds of thousands of people that throng the streets were rebelling.

NO PLURAL SUFFIX IS USED:

After cardinal numbers, 'hundred', 'thousand', 'million', etc. If they are connected with a noun they have an adjectival function: *three hundred men; four thousand pounds.*

They may:

Be connected to the attached noun by the preposition 'of'.

The immigration brought hundreds of people to our town.

'OF' IS NOT USED:

If 'more' or 'less' is inserted.

There are thousands more refugees in this country now than there were a year ago.

When the uninflected form of these numerals is attached to a noun, they assume the function of adjectives:

the hundred books you gave me the last two hundred years a quarter of a million people

The USE OF '-S' or 'OF' when PREMODIFIED by INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

After indefinite pronouns, **hundred, thousand, million, etc. vacillate** between: **The construction with '-s'** (noun construction) if followed by 'of':

Ballistic rockets work well within a few hundreds of miles

from the earth and **The construction without '-s'** (adjectival construction):

a few hundred men.

229

The Numeral

However, after *some* (and sometimes after *many*) they take -s if followed by the preposition 'of':

Some thousands of coloured people demonstrated in the streets;

They lived many hundreds of miles from the border.

but if the preposition is not used, *some* can have only an adverbial value (= approximatively):
some thousand pounds

5.1.2. The OTHER CARDINAL NUMBERS

THE NUMBER '0'

It can be **spoken in different forms** according to context: **Nought** is used of the arithmetical quantity, the value, and the sign:

.01 (point nought one).

Zero is used particularly of the sign, and of the degree on measuring instruments: *A man responds to zero temperature by remembering the last time he got his toes frost-bitten;*

The fuel gauges in all tanks were nearing zero.

0 [ou] is used when the numbers are pronounced digit by digit (e.g. in telephone numbers): **5204**
[five tu: ou siks]

Nil, nothing are various terms found in sports: football, ice hockey, etc. -

The result of the game was 2-0 (two - nil, two to nothing)

Love found in tennis -40-0 (forty - love);

Duck (actually **duck's egg**) found in cricket:

The first batsman was out for a duck.

iy THE NUMBERS '1-100'

FORM:

1 to 12 have **no system**;

13 to 19 are compounds of **3 to 9** + **-teen** (with a few orthographical irregularities):

thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, etc.

20, 30, ... 90 are compounds of **2 to 9** + **-ty** (with a few phonetic and orthographical irregularities):

thirty, forty, fifty, eighty, etc. 230

A Practical English Grammar

THE NUMBERS '100- onwards'

All whole numbers can be expressed with the help of the above mentioned numerals, together with **hundred, thousand, million, billion.**

THE NUMBERS '1000-2000'

Numbers between 1000 and 2000 can often be expressed in two ways: 1500 - **one thousand five hundred**

- **fifteen hundred**: this form is used for dates, and here abbreviation by omitting *hundred and...* is common: 1864 - **eighteen** sixty-four.

USAGE:

USING THESE NUMBERS AS ADJECTIVES

The other cardinal numbers are primarily **adjectives**: *He sold eighteen cattle, the 138 executive councils.*

USING THESE NUMBERS AS SUBSTANTIVISED ADJECTIVES They can be **substantivised**: **Before of+ noun or pronoun:**

Two of them were a long way behind.

Ten of the most famous artists were awarded the prizes.

Numerals.+ of + personal pronouns are often used without a partitive value (*the two of you = you two*):

The two of us basked in the mutual recognition of a deed well done.

All five of them felt uneasy.

When a noun already mentioned is understood:

We decided to take five items from this shop and four from another. **When the situation of context implies a noun:**

A boy of seven was playing outside.

Cut the cake in four!

USING THESE NUMBERS AS NOUNS

The ordinary cardinal numbers are found as **nouns**: With **the** sense 'group(s) comprising this number': *They came at first perhaps in tens but at last in hundreds of thousands.*

231

The Numeral

In the case of a whole series of numbers having common tens:

*He looked in his early thirties; There is a corresponding usage of *teens* for the series 13-19:*

*She was an extremely lovely girl in her teens; and of *hundreds* for a series with common hundreds:*

The last half century of the nineteen-hundreds produced a

group of excellent writers in France. **When used of the numeric signs:**

Your 4's are extremely nice written, Annie.

The zero seems not to have been known to him. **When used of arithmetical quantities:**

Three nines make twenty-seven.

When used of an object, a hit, or the like marked by that number or figure:

a four (= a boat rowed by four),

there is a 32 (= a bus number 32),

the two of trumps (in card games),

he hit a four (in cricket). **In a number of stock expressions:**

He went down on all fours.

This crew are all at sixes and sevens (= confused).

They were dressed up to the nines (= smartly) for the party.

In the case of nouns denoting measurement the concept of a number of individual phenomena recedes into the background, while the concept of *the total number* comes to the fore, owing to which the plural concept is replaced by the singular: *ten dollars is too much for me.*

USING CARDINAL NUMBERS WITHOUT THEIR EXACT MEANING

Certain cardinal numbers may be used without their exact meaning: **In constructions that can be assimilated to expressions:** *He is ten times better than you. She was talking nineteen to the dozen. He was having his forty winks.*

The hundred and one thorny problems of the company were solved.

I have a thousand and one things to look after. Send a thousand thanks to John.

232

A Practical English Grammar

When two numbers are linked by an unstressed 'or', what is expressed is not an alternative but a rough common concept {*one or two* = a few):

Until two or three years ago I was not so good in English.

In the last twelve or eighteen months the store had great

profit. Similarly:

I've been there once or twice.

When 'about', 'or so', 'some', 'odd' are used in connection with cardinal numbers: / *want*

about twenty pounds,

There was an attempt some thirty years ago to....,

The book has four hundred odd pages,

the next four years or so,

the 30 or so questions.

5.2. THE ORDINAL NUMBERS

DEFINITION:

Ordinal numbers are numbers denoting **A specific position in a series:**

The second to come was John. The number of times something is done:

He asked three times and still received no answer. Multiplication:

He put in twice the time requested for the project in order to finish it.

FORMATION:

The ordinal numbers are formed: **By adding '-th' to the cardinals:**

sixth, fourth, fifteenth, nineteenth, etc.

The first three are an exception to this: *first, second, third*

Irregularities

Purely orthographical irregularities are found in *eighth, ninth*, and irregularities which are also phonetic occur in *fifth, twelfth*, and in the ordinals in **'-tieth'** formed from cardinals in **'-ty'** (*twentieth, fortieth, sixtieth, etc.*):

They organised a great dinner for his eightieth birthday.

233

The Numeral

By postmodifying the cardinal with 'times'

He scored four times in a row.

I have read the magazine completely through three times.

The first two are exceptions: *'once', 'twice'* *This opportunity comes only once.* The number **'three'** has the form **'three times'**, but there exists also an archaic one **'thrice'**.

When the number of times in question is vague, **'once or twice'** and **two or three times'**, etc. are used:

Only once or twice a year can you see a show like this. We have three or four times as many as we can use.

Multiplication is expressed by **twice**, and apart from this by expressions with times: *Meat consumption is almost twice what it was last year.*

They will obviously pay four or five times as much if they are convinced that they get a good value for money.

When it is a question of purely arithmetical quantities expressions with **times** may be used throughout:

One times one is one.

Two times three is (are) six.

USAGE:

Ordinal numbers may be used: **In combination with nouns:**

In the SINGULAR with a preceding determinative:

the third girl in the second row,

the first day after the show, In the PLURAL, where these make reference to groups:

the second ten copies. In expressions denoting uncertainty with regard to the number:

'The nth term of this sequence' is an expression used in mathematics.

After the twenty-somethingth attempt I decide to give up.

For the umpteenth time she did "Swan Lake". In idiomatic expressions:

second sight

third party

sixth sense

in the seventh heaven

234

A Practical English Grammar

USING THESE NUMBERS AS ADJECTIVES:

The ordinal numbers are primarily adjectives: *His sixth visit was a disaster. An inch is the twelfth part of a foot.*

USING THESE NUMERALS AS NOUNS:

There are several cases when the ordinals can be used **substantively**: **When they are followed by the preposition 'of'**: *the second of the men, on December the seventh, two memorable fourteenth of July.*

Dates may be expressed either in the form :

7th February 1972/the 7th of February 1972 or February 7th, 1972 /February the 7th, 1972

When they occur in the denominators of fractions.

The population of Montreal is said to be two-thirds French and one-third English.

USING THESE NUMERALS AS AD VERBS

The ordinals act *adverbially*: As **the qualification of a superlative**:

John was the second youngest son.

Which is the third largest city in the world?

India is the second most populous country of the world **In enumerations:**

I have attempted to answer the questions. First: what do we want to become? Second: what are we now? Third: how do we propose to pass from our present condition to the condition we desire to reach?

The adverbial form in **-ly** is now more common in the case of **second, third, fourth**: *secondly, thirdly, fourthly, etc* Only **first** is still most often used without the suffix.

235

The Numeral

5.5. FRACTIONS

Fractions are expressed by cardinal numbers for the *numerator* and ordinals for the *denominator*: *two thirds, three eighths.*

When the numerator is '1', **'one'** is used with a more exact value than the indefinite article: *one third, one tenth*

Expressions having **'fourth(s)'** as denominator are more exact than expressions with **'quarter(s)'**:

*A quart is equal to one fourth of a gallon. **Half** differs from the other denominators in that it may be found without an indefinite article even though not preceded by a determinative:*

He wastes half of his time doing nothing.

USAGE:

Fractions may be used : **In expressions:**

half naked

half baked

half a gale

It's not a quarter as good as it should be.

USING FRACTIONS AS NOUNS

The denominators of fractions are primarily **nouns**, and are connected with the succeeding noun or pronoun, where found, by 'of':

Only a fifth of the grammar-school children were TV addicts.

USING FRACTIONS AS ADJECTIVES

When fractions are used adjectivally they keep their plural indicator: *a two-thirds majority three and three-eighths inches*

As a rule **'quarter'** does not keep a plural indicator, however: *a three-quarter majority.*

236

A Practical English Grammar

In the case of mixed numbers of which **half** or **quarter** forms a part, the most common word order was formerly:

two miles and a half

one hour and three quarters

but now the whole mixed number is generally placed before the noun:

five and one-half yards makes a rod

a population of only two and a half millions

5.4. COLLECTIVE NUMBERS

DEFINITION:

Collective numbers express the numerical idea of plural under the form of a singular: *couple, pair, brace, dozen, score, etc.:* *Let's have a rest for a couple of hours. He finally shot two brace of duck.*

Bi 5.5. MULTIPLICATIVE/DISTRIBUTIVE NUMBERS

DEFINITION:

Multiplicative numerals express the extent to which a quantity grows or an action is fulfilled:

fourfold, tenfold, triple, single, double, etc.,

whereas **distributive numerals express distribution in equal groups:** *one at a time*
two by two

by tens

by the dozen

two and two

in twos, etc.

Let's try to be sensible and solve one problem at a time. First they came in twos but later in tens.

5.6 EXPRESSIONS

to go on all fours

dressed up to the nines

to talk nineteen to the dozen

to have one's forty winks

a thousand and one problems

to be at sixes and sevens about twenty pounds ten times better a hundred and one things some thirty years ago

237

The Numeral

four hundred odd pages

in tens/hundreds/etc.

in his/her teens

a four/an eight (= boat)

the second youngest

one-third, three-fourths

second sight

sixth sense

at the eleventh hour

three of four times

it's not a quarter as good as ...

two and a half hours

the wrong side of the clock

numbers of.....

thousands upon thousands something like six hundred printer's dozen a brace of oxen

twenty or so questions in his/her thirties your 4's

there's a 37 (= bus) the third largest first..., second..., third.... thirdparty

in the seventh heaven twice a year half naked on fourfold one at a time on the wrong side of fifty sixish, elevenish roughly fifty/a hundred a couple of dozens a span of horses by the dozen

5.7. THE USE OF PUNCTUATION MARKS and SPECIAL SIGNS

COMMA

The comma is used:

In long rows of figures to make them more easily readable. A **comma** is placed after every three

digits:

1,235,798

Sometimes **spaces** are used for this purpose: / 235 798

PERIOD

The period is used: **To mark the point at which integers cease and decimal fractions begin:**
71.53

If the figure is less than one, 0 is written in the position of the one, or the position is left blank:

0.58 grams or .58 grams.

In Romanian the comma is used for numerals with the function of the English period, thus the Romanian 3,40 is the English 3.40.

238

A Practical English Grammar

In currency statements: \$3.40

When used with numerals the period is read as '**point**'.

71.53 (read seventy-one point fifty-three) In currency statements the period is ignored in reading:

\$ 3.40 (read 'three dollars and forty cents' or 'three
forty')

In date abbreviations:

7.2.72 also 7/2/72 (*more frequently*)

There is a difference in reading 7/2/72. In B.E. it is read *7th February 1972* and in Am.E. *July 2nd, 1972*

For the time of day:

6.30 read 'six-thirty' (mostly in B.E.) also 6:30 mostly in Am.E.

HYPHEN

Numerals in word form between 20 and 100 (except the multiples of ten) are hyphenated:

twenty-one

(^ *The APOSTROPHE*

The apostrophe is used: **For contraction of year numbers:**

1974 => '74 **With the plural '-s' for year numbers:**

I was born in the early 1970's. (can appear also as *1970s*)

MATHEMATICAL SYMBOLS

The following mathematical symbols are often used: = read as *equals* + read as *plus* or *and* - read as *minus* or *take away* x read as *times* or *multiplied by* -r- read as *over* or *divided by* V read as *the square root of*

239

The Numeral

5.8 CONCORD WITH THE VERB

The numeral whether alone as a noun or preceding a noun acting as an adjective agrees with the verb in the following way:

Terms of measurement in the plural take

The SINGULAR of the verb commonly:

Nearly thirty shillings was paid for a pound of tea in 1710.

Four years has seemed a long time. The PLURAL in some cases:

Ten pounds were more than he could afford.

In the case of specifications of sums of money,

the SINGULAR generally refers to the **amount** concerned:

Here is five shillings. the PLURAL refers to the **coins**:

Here are five shillings.

In arithmetical statements the number is usually as follows: *Three and three make (are) six. Three plus three are (equals) six. Three times three is (are) nine. Four from six leaves two. Twenty divided by five equals four.*

Fraction + of + noun take the number corresponding to the semantic content: *Three fourths of the*

surface of the earth is water. Three fourths of our class are against the plan.

REVISION

240

^^

itz

qsiťSug

The Numeral

WIBSKXKi.....

^^BSS^^WSWBWB:^^^^^

^

i;;;;i

illl^

^^

^

!;;;S

242

i.....liifi...../.....|1.....if

cu 2.47.

ii

HI.....

.....-Si

"llia.....-.....«.....*

SQWii

211.....7

i

C

i



B

243

The Verb

6. THE VERB

The verb will be discussed as follows:

6.1. types of verbs

6.2. agreement of verb and other word classes

6.3. verbal forms

6.1. TYPES OF VERBS

The types of verbs will be discussed according to the following division: Primary auxiliaries:

6.1.1. 'do'

6.1.2. 'be'

6.1.3. 'have'

6.1.4. Semi-auxiliaries

6.1.5. Modal verbs. Generalities

6.1.6. 'may/might'

6.1.7. 'can/could'

6.1.8. 'can/could' vs. 'may/might'

6.1.9. 'must'

6.1.10. 'ought to'

6.1.11. 'will/would'

6.1.12. 'shall/should'

6.1.13. Modal Verbs + Perfect Infinitive

6.1.14. Revision of modal verbs

Semi-modals:

6.1.15. 'dare'

6.1.16. 'need'

6.1.17. Regular verbs and irregular verbs

6.1.18. Troublesome verbs

6.1.19. Phrasal verbs

244

A Practical English Grammar

Lj 6.1.1. THE VERB 'DO'

FORM:

Present: *I/you/we/they do, he/she/it does* **Past:** *did* for all persons and numbers **Past participle:** *done*

USAGE:

THE VERB 'DO' IS USED:

As an auxiliary:

To form questions and negative statements in the present simple and past simple:

Do you like Italian opera? I didn't enjoy the movie.

'DO/IS NOT USED: In positive wh-questions:

What happened? **In yes-no questions with inversion:**

He said that ?

In tag-questions:

He knows how to drive a car, doesn't he? **In sentences with inversion caused by certain introductory words: 'never', 'hardly':**

Never did he think that the book would be finished. **To emphasize:**

Do be quiet!

I do want to come.

As a full verb:

With the meaning 'to perform':

I am doing my homework. Often it is followed by verb + -ing:

I am doing the ironing. **With the meaning 'to be in the wrong place'**

What are the clothes doing on the floor?

To avoid repeating a verb:

The car keeps stopping. I don't know why it does that.

245

The Verb

'DO'vs. 'MAKE'

'Do' often means to be engaged in an activity:

"What are you doing?" "I'm making a cake." 'Make' has the sense of create:

"What are you making?" "A cake." 'Do' and 'make' are often found in fixed phrases:

DO

do business

do harm

do good/no good

do one's best

do the garden

do a good job

do the shopping

do a favour

do the washing-up

do repairs

do one's duty

do someone a good turn

do an exercise

do one's hair

do homework

do an examination

do justice

do one's teeth (=clean)

do research

do something for a living

MAKE

make a journey make an experiment make a speech make the best of it make an attempt make a

mistake make fun of someone make/file a complaint make arrangements make a bargain make the

beds make a fuss over... make a nuisance of oneself make an effort/progress make an impression make

a profit/a fortune make an accusation make an appointment make a proposal make a mess of things...

wm

pl&mfmtă.

ltllfil!;!^

IS

246

LJ 6.1.2. THE VERB 'BE'

FORM: Present: Negative-Past: Negative: Gerund:

I am, you are, he/she/it is, we are, you are, they are

I am not, I ain 't, aren 't I? (mostly in tag-questions), you are not, you aren't, he/she/It is not, isn 't

I/he/she/it was, you were

I/he/sheAt wasn % you weren 't being

Past participle: *been*

USAGE:

THE VERB 'BE' IS USED:

As an auxiliary:

To form the progressive tenses:

I am going to school. To form the passive mood:

The school is being painted.

As a **full** verb:

In imperative statements followed by a noun: To mean 'act like':

Be a dear and answer the phone. To mean 'become': *Be a better cook!* To mean 'pretend to be':

Be a monster, granddad! In expressions:

Don't be a fool!

In imperative sentences followed by an adjective, to describe passing behaviour:

Be + careful, patient, quiet Don't be + careless, impatient, silly In combination with 'hungry', 'thirsty', 'pretty':

Are you hungry? In 'there is...' to denote existence: *There is a man in the hall*

'Be' as a **full** verb can have continuous forms.(see aspect)

247

The Verb

llllilE^

£7.5. THE¹ VERB 'TOHAVE'

FORM: have, had, had, having USAGE:

The VERB 'TOHAVE' IS USED: As an auxiliary:

To form perfective tenses:

I have seen that movie a thousand times. To form the causative:

I'm having the car repaired.

As a full verb:

With the meaning 'possess': *I have a new car.*

Jk

'HAVE GOT' IS USED:

To mean 'possess' or 'own', in free variation with 'have':

I have got a new car. To mean 'have obtained' or 'have received':

I have got a letter from him.

With the meaning 'eat', 'enjoy', 'take' etc.

I had my lunch already.

I had two interviews up to now. In combination with nouns to replace verbs:

We had a nice walk. 'Have' may have continuous forms (see the aspect)

248

/, C(M

/ft Help yourself (o another

6.1.4. SEMI-AUXILIARIES.

The following constructions act as auxiliaries:

<i>be about to</i>	<i>be apt to</i>
<i>be bound to</i>	<i>be going to</i>
<i>be liable to</i>	<i>be sure to</i>
<i>be certain to</i>	<i>be unlikely to</i>
<i>had better/best</i>	<i>have to</i>
<i>have got to</i>	<i>come to (=happen to)</i>
<i>fail to</i>	<i>get to</i>
<i>tend to</i>	<i>appear to</i>
<i>happen to</i>	<i>seem to</i>
<i>turn out to</i>	<i>proved to</i>

249

The Verb

'Seem' and 'appear' express uncertainty. And in this case they are equivalent to 'may/might':

It appears he is at home.

He seems to be at home.

He might be at home.

6.1.5. MODAL VERBS

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Modal verbs:

Do not have 'to' in the infinitive:

can, may, should, etc.

When we need to use this the modal substitutes are used instead of the modals. **Are followed by a short infinitive:**

Tom can swim. **Form the negative by simply adding the negation 'not':**

You cannot accept such an offer. **Form the interrogative by inversion:**

May I smoke here? **Do not get '-s' in the third person singular indicative present:**

He must be back before five o'clock. **Do not have all tense forms.**

For the missing tense forms, substitutes are used:

be able to (for **can**)

be allowed to, be permitted to (for **may**)

***have to* (for must)**

***want to* (for will), etc**

The modal verbs are:

may/might

can/could

must

ought to

will/would

shall/should

250

A Practical English Grammar

6.1.6. MAY/MIGHT

USAGE:

The most important uses of 'may/might' are to express **permission** and **possibility**.

'MAY/MIGHT' IS USED:

To express permission in the present and future:

To grant, refuse permission by the speaker, in statements:

They may go.

To indicate the idea of having permission, in first person statements:

I/we may go. **To request permission from the addressee**, in questions:

May I smoke here?

'MIGHT' IS NOT USED:

To express permission for the past tense equivalent of the above statements.

The verb **'allow to'** or **'permit to'** is used:

They were allowed to go yesterday.

I was allowed to smoke in that room an hour ago.

'MIGHT' CAN BE USED:

To express permission

With a present or future meaning (with conditional implication):

Might I take your car for an hour?.

It is more diffident than **'may I ?'** and it indicates greater uncertainty about the answer.

With a past meaning in indirect speech as the equivalent of 'may' when the introductory verb is in the past:

She said that she might go that afternoon.

In colloquial American English, and to a lesser extent in colloquial British English, **'may'** (= permission) seems to be losing ground to the more popular **'can'**.

251

The Verb

'MA Y/MIGHT' IS USED:

To express possibility in the present or future:

They may/might come today/tomorrow.

She may/might not know that you are in hospital.

'Might' is used to make the possibility seem more remote.

'MIGHT' IS USED:

To express possibility

With a past meaning in indirect speech as the equivalent of 'may' when the introductory verb is in the past: *He said that he might join us later.*

'MA Y/MIGHT' IS NOT USED:

To express possibility in questions. They are replaced by phrases like **'do you think + present/future tense'** or **'is it likely + infinitive'**:

Do you think they know where we parked our car?

Are we likely to meet them in this crowd?

'MAY' IS USED: To express a wish:

May you be happy!

May God grant you happiness!

May the best man win!

May he never set foot in this house again!

'YOU MIGHT' IS USED: To express a command:

You might help your little brother. **To express a very strong request:**

You might tell me why they haven't done that.

'MA Y/MIGHT' CAN BE USED: In purpose clauses:

He studies hard so that he may take the exam.

He left early so that he might catch the 6.37 train. **In clauses of concession to express an ideal concession:**

However frightened you may/might be, you must remain outwardly calm.

252

A Practical English Grammar

.....■"iliL Jlllll

'MIGHT AS WELL' IS USED: To indicate intention, with a first-person subject / *might as well do it now.*

To indicate recommendation, with the other persons:

You might as well start the programme now.

'MIGHT JUST AS WELL' IS USED:

To indicate an alternative (usually not a very desirable one):

I might just as well wait until Thomas comes and then start the work.

You might just as well jump in the lake.

6.1.7. CAN/COULD

USAGE:

'Can /Could' are primarily used to express **permission, possibility and ability**. It is not always easy to distinguish 'can' (= possibility) from 'can' (=ability). However, as 'can' (= ability) and 'can' (= permission) require a human or at least animate subject, the *possibility* sense is the only one available when the subject is inanimate, as in: *Lightning can be dangerous.*

253

The Verb

CAN/COULD IS USED:.

To express (general) permission in an informal way: *You can't stay up that late.*

You can take my car for a ride, but bring it back in an hour.

The meaning of permission is strengthened to something like *strong* recommendation in:

You can forget about your holiday. If he doesn't like it, he can lump it.

'Can' is replaced even in present or future by **'to be allowed to', 'to be permitted to'** when some other authority gives/refuses permission:

It is not allowed to smoke in here.

'COULD' IS USED: To express permission

After past tense verbs:

I told him he could take my car for a ride.

'CAN/COULD' IS USED:

To express possibility (= circumstances permit):

You can't bathe here because the river is polluted.

Is* CAN(= possibility) CANNOT BE USED.

In a future sense. It is replaced by it will	be possible'	, 'will
---	---------------------	----------------

be able':

When the new tunnel is ready we

'll be able to get to

town more easily.

KS^ Colloquially, 'can' (= possibility) is very often used to

express a **suggestion for future action:**

We can see about that tomorrow.

/

'COULD' IS USED: To express possibility For past tense:

We couldn't bathe there because the river was polluted.

254

A Practical English Grammar

'CAN' IS USED: To express ability:

I can swim.

I can speak English.

'COULD' IS USED:

To express a past ability, but if a certain action is the result of this ability **was/were able to'** or **'managed to'** is used:

Although they lost some time in the heavy traffic, they were able to get to the patient in time.

'**Couldn't**' is used to express the fact that the action was not successful.

In the **present**, either '**can**' or '**am/are/is able**' may be used. '**Can**' is, however, the form preferred:

Can you translate this text from English ?

For the **present perfect** only '**be able**' is used:

Since the accident he hasn't been able to walk.

In the **future** **will be able** is used:

When he has learned more words in English, he will be able to speak fluently.

The conditional form '**could**' may be used to make reference to future time, as an alternative for '**would be able to**':

I could help you with the furniture when you move into your new house.

In the **infinitive** '**to be able**' is used: *I want to be able to type fast.*

'**CAN**/'**YOU**?'/'**COULD** I/'**YOU**?' **ARE USED: For requests:**

Can I/could I park my car in front of your house?

Could you help me with these parcels?

The negative form **couldn't you?** is also used to express the same idea: *Couldn't you help me with these parcels?*

Could I/you? is more polite.

255

The Verb

'**CAN**' IS USED:

With verbs of perception to replace the simple present: *I can see a bird in that tree?*

'**COULD**' IS USED:

With verbs of perception to replace the simple past: *I looked up and couldn't see anything.*

'**CAN**/'**COULD**' IS USED: Instead of 'is often', 'was often':

It's often cold in January. => It can be cold in January.

He used to be naughty when he was a boy. . =^>

He could be naughty when he was a boy

'**CAN**' IS USED : To express deduction:

He can't be out, his car is still here.

i

.....§§iiiiiiii

256

A Practical English Grammar

^

^

WSS^^sSiW

257

The Verb

6.1.8. **CAN/COULD** vs. **MAY/MIGHT**

USAGE:

Both may be used with the meaning of **permission** and **possibility**.

y **PERMISSION**

'**Can**' when used to express permission is more informal than 'may'. *May I/Can I smoke in here?*

'Could' and 'might' can also be used in questions of permission in which case they are a more polite form than 'can' and 'may'.

Such questions are never answered with 'could' or 'might'. " *Could I possibly have your attention, please?*" "Yes, you can/may."

POSSIBILITY

'May(=possibility)' is replaced by 'can' in questions, and also normally in negations:

This may be true. => *Can this really be true?* => *This can't be true.*

Notice the difference in negative sentences:

He may not be at home. (=it is possible that he is not at home.)

He can't be at home. (= it is not possible for him to be at home.)

Another aspect of differentiation is that: 'Can' expresses **theoretical possibility**:

The road can be blocked. (= it is possible to block the road) 'May' expresses **factual possibility**:

The road may be blocked. (= it is possible that the road is blocked)

'Could' and 'might' are used both for theoretical and factual possibility.

258

A Practical English Grammar

6.1.9. MUST

USAGE:

The most important uses of 'must' are **obligation** and **deduction**.

The negative form 'must not' is mainly used to express **prohibition** and **lack of obligation**.

'MUST' IS USED:

To express obligation or compulsion (on the part of the speaker): *You must be back before five o'clock.*

However, sometimes it may be used to express necessity arising from circumstances:

We must see what can be done about it.

'Must' has only this form, and for the rest of the tense forms 'have to' is employed:

You 'll have to do the exercise again, as there are too many mistakes in it.

I had to go back as I had left my books at school.

'MUST' CAN BE USED: **To express obligation**

In the future, if it is made clear by the context: *You must be back before it gets dark.*

'MUST NOT IS USED: **To express total obligation**

You mustn't be noisy outside a hospital.

'MUST' vs. 'HAVE TO'

'Have to' can also be used in affirmative statements in the present.

They both express **obligation, but**

'Must' expresses **obligation imposed by the speaker**:

You must stay here until you finish your assignments. **Have to** expresses **external obligation**.

You have to leave now or you 'll miss the train.

259

The Verb

If the speaker strongly supports the external authority and identifies with its ideas 'must' is used:

Children must obey their parents (= the speaker supports the fact) as opposed to:

Children have to obey their parents (= the speaker merely conveys a message).

'Must' marks **an occasional activity**:

Today I must be at my office at nine. It's very important

(=on this particular occasion). **Have to** marks **a habitual activity**:

/ have to be at my office at nine (= habit), Nevertheless, the personal involvement is quite obvious in these examples, too.

'DON'T HAVE TO' IS USED: To express absence of obligation:

You don't have to write such a long essay. The same idea can be expressed by **'need not'** or **'don't/doesn't need'**:

You need not write a long essay.

In British English, there is a slight difference between **'need not'** and **'don't/doesn't need'**.

'Need not' implies the **authority of the speaker**:

(Mother to child) *If it is foggy tomorrow you need*

not go to school. **'Don't/doesn't need to'** implies **external authority**:

You don't need to go to school on foggy days

(= this is the school regulation).

****& In American English, the form 'don't/doesn't' is preferred.**

The **future tense forms** are:

needn't, 'won't have to', 'won't need to'

The **past tense forms** are:

didn't have to, 'didn't need to' and, occasionally, hadn't got to'.

260

A Practical English Grammar

IlltSIS

^

'MUST' IS USED: To express deduction:

i/e /MM/ Z>e working late at the office.*

There must be a mistake.

You must be joking.

'Must' is used here of knowledge arrived at by inference or reasoning rather than by direct experience. There is an understandable feeling that knowledge acquired indirectly, by inference, is less certain than knowledge acquired by direct experience. Hence **logical necessity**.

You must be Mr. Smith can easily become weakened to **logical assumption**:

You must be tired. There is a more drastic weakening in **estimating statements**:

You must be a foot taller than I.

He must be well over eighty.

To express a **present logical deduction** about a present or future activity or state with the **present infinitive**:

He must be a very clever boy.

261

The Verb

'MUST NOT' IS USED:

To express **prohibition** or **very strong advice** (in the present or future). It implies the speaker's authority:

Visitors must not feed the animals (= it is prohibited),

You must not speak like that to your parents.

You must not miss that film, it's extraordinarily good.

Often as a negative counterpart of 'may(=permission)'

You may borrow my car. => You mustn't/may not borrow it.

'MUST NOT' IS NOT USED:

In **negative or interrogative sentences of deduction**, **'can'** is used instead: *There must be a mistake.*

=> There cannot be a mistake.

ftllllliE IIHlllS

'MUST' vs. 'HAVE TO'/'NEED' in INTERROGATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

Both '**must?**' and '**need?**' imply that the person addressed is the authority concerned.

However, '**need I?**' also implies that the speaker is hoping for a negative answer:

Need I write such a long essay?

262

A Practical English Grammar

'**Must I?**' may get either a negative or an affirmative answer:

"Must I go now?" may have the answer:

"Yes, you must." or *"No, you don't have to."* '**Do I/does he, etc have to?**' as well as '**do I/does he**', etc.

'**need to**' can also be used with the same meaning.

'**Have to**' and '**need to**' help in building the past tense and future tense forms: *Did you need/have to fill in an application? Will you have to fill in an application?*

6.1.10. OUGHT

FORM:

It is followed by a long infinitive (with **to**).

USAGE:

'**OUGHT TO**' IS USED:

To express the subject's moral obligation or duty:

You ought to go and see your grandmother; she is ill.

The speaker does not impose, only reminds the subject of his duty, gives advice or indicates a sensible line of action.

To express logical deduction:

If they started at dawn, they ought to be there by now.

6.1.11. WILL/WOULD

USAGE:

'**WILL**' IS USED:

To express intention, willingness, determination (with a first-person subject): / *will come with you to the theatre.*

I will write tomorrow.

We'll celebrate this very night.

If you find this exercise difficult, I will help you.

To express an impersonal type of command:

You will stay here till you are relieved.

It implies the speaker's confidence that his/her authority is so obvious that the statement will be taken as an order and obeyed.

263

The Verb

If this construction is changed into a continuous form, the idea of command is removed because the verb '**will**' no longer has the modal value. Compare:

You will work here under Mr. Thomson

(= command)

You will be working here under Mr. Thomson

(= a statement).

'**WILL**' IS USED:

To express insistence, which can be associated with a habit. Habit is normally expressed by the simple present, but if we wish to emphasize the obstinacy of the subject in performing an activity **will** may be used: *If you will put handfuls of salt in your food, it's no wonder you're always thirsty. He will go swimming in dangerous waters.*

<i>tj</i> ^*	This is	not	very important use of ' will ', but the past form
		a	
' would	'has	a much wider use and often replaces ' used	to
		to	
mark a	habi	in the past:	

t On the way home they would stop at the grocer's to buy sweets.

'WILL' IS USED:

To express supposition:

He'll be there by now (= I think he is there)

By now he will be eating dinner.

They will have arrived by now.

That will be the tower.

That will be the postman (= the bell is ringing). **To indicate an estimation**, when used with inanimate subjects:

This hall will hold a thousand people.

In clauses of purpose, after a main verb in the present, present perfect, future or imperative: *I'll give you a lift so that you will get there on time.* **To express habitual prediction:**

He'll always talk for hours if you give him the chance.

Every Sunday they will go for long walks.

He will go all day without eating. **Instead of the simple present in generally valid truths:**

Oil will float/floats on water.

264

A Practical English Grammar

'WOULD' IS USED:

As the past tense form of the modal 'will' in subordinate clauses after a main past tense verb: *He said that he would never do anything like that. I knew that they would be late. He left early so that he would catch the 6.37 train.*

A

K^ 'Would' in this sense is restricted to subordinate clauses, but 'wouldn't' (= intention) can stand alone: <i>He wouldn't help me yesterday and he won't help me today, either.</i>
--

'WOULD'IS USED: To express supposition with a higher degree of certainty: *He would know the answer.* As a subjunctive, after 'wish': / *wish he would come with me to the theatre.*

WILL YOU?'IS USED: To express an invitation:

Will you have some more tea?

'WILL YOU?/WOULD YOU?'IS USED: To express a polite request: *Will you show me how to do this?* 'Would you?' is used as being more tentative than 'will you?': *Would you give me another one?* 'Would you mind?' and **would you please?** can also be used with the same meaning: *Would you please let me know about this as soon as possible?* *Would you mind waiting a moment, please?*

I

A

It 'Will you?' and 'would you?' are often placed after an imperative to make the request more polite: *Shut the door, will you?* However, this is not felt more polite, except when the people involved know each other well and the request is not perceived like a rude form of address.

265

The Verb

'WOULD LIKE'

'Would like' is felt as a more polite form for 'want':

/ *want to see Mrs. Smith* or / *would like to see Mrs. Smith.* In questions 'would like' marks a polite offer or invitation:

Would you like another piece of cake?

'WOULD CARE'

'Would care' can be used in the same way as 'would like' with a present meaning but only in the interrogative and negative:

Would you care for another piece of cake?

'WOULD RATHER/WOULD SOONER'

'Would rather/sooner' (see also *subjunctive*) expresses preference: *I'd rather stay at home.*

6.1.12. SHALL/SHOULD

USAGE:

'SHALL'IS USED:

To express a threat or a command, in affirmative statements, with a second-person subject to express:

You shall do it whether you like it or not.

He shall have such a whipping if he ever does this again.

To express a promise:

You shall have a bicycle for your birthday if you 're good.

Both uses are old-fashioned and formal and normally avoided in modern English. **'Shall'** (= command) is now used only in regulations and legal documents. In colloquial English, it is replaced by **'must'** or **'be to'**. **'Should'** would also be possible but it would weaken the command to a suggestion.

To express an intention:

We shall celebrate this very night.

We shall stop your pocket money if you don't behave.

In suppositions:

Will we find our way? I'm sure we shall.

266

A Practical English Grammar

'SHALL I?' IS USED:

In requests for orders or advice:

Shall I tell him what's happened?

Where shall I put this?

In offers:

Shall I help you pack ? Shall I wait for you ?

In suggestions:

' Shall we meet at the theatre?

Ifilffl^

'SHOULD' IS USED:

To express duty or to indicate a correct /sensible action (see ought to):

You should tell the truth.

They should eat more fruit.

To express a deduction:

He should be there by now.

267

The Verb

THAT... SHOULD' IS USED:

After 'suggest', 'propose', 'insist (on)', 'recommend', 'advise' (see *subjunctive*) as an alternative to a **gerund** construction:

I propose that we should leave without delay.

I suggested going there immediately.

After 'agreed', 'demanded', 'determined', or 'was determined', as an alternative to an **infinitive** construction:

He was determined that nobody should get there before him.

He was determined to get there first.

After 'order', 'command', 'urge' (see *subjunctive*), as an alternative to an **infinitive** construction:

He ordered Tom to go (= directly).

He ordered that Tom should go (= indirectly).

After 'arrange', 'stipulate' and 'be anxious' as an alternative to a construction of the type **'for+object+infinitive'**

I am anxious that nobody should know where I am going.

I am anxious for nobody to know where I am going.

After 'it is/was+adjective (necessary, important, essential, better)' as an alternative to a construction of the type **'for+object+infinitive'**. The adjectives **'right', 'fair', 'natural', 'just'** are often preceded by **'only'** (see *subjunctive*):

It is important for him to do this.

It is only fair that he should help his parents.

'SHOULD' IS USED:

After 'don't know why', 'see no reason why', 'can't think why' when the speaker questions the reasonableness of an assumption:

I don't know why you should think that I did it. Idiomatically with 'who', 'where', 'what' in expressions of **surprise**:

I open the door and who should I see but my best friend. After expressions of fear or anxiety ('lest' introduces the subordinate clause): *He was scared lest he should slip on the icy road.*

After 'in case' as an alternative to an ordinary tense:

In case someone should ask. In case someone asked. In negative purpose clauses.

He left early so that he shouldn't miss the train.

In conditional clauses (type 1) to indicate that the action is not likely to happen: *If anyone should call while I'm out tell him to wait for me.*

268

A Practical English Grammar

^.....:Hlllll:l;::;.:i:llllS^lllll:::

llllf ■:■ •:": / ■ '■ ill I lIP '■' ■ -■ :ll|lll::|llllllllll|ll|s

:::/:i:it^y:y??:::??£E:gl|g;y:::t;y

:yl;|p|fmi::fiipl;^f^illK

il

vs. 5-ii4ZZ,

'Will' expresses intention, volition, etc associated with the **subject** of the sentence whereas 'shall' expresses intention, promise, etc. associated with the **speaker** of the sentence.

269

The Verb

6.1.13. MODAL VERBS + PERFECT INFINITIVE

'MAY/MIGHT' + PERFECT INFINITIVE

'MAY/MIGHT' + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED: For a present speculation about a past action:

He may/might have left earlier than usual.

MA Y+PERFECT INFINITIVE IS PREFERRED: If the uncertainty no longer exists:

You shouldn't have tried to repair the roof yourself. You

might have fallen down. If the matter was never put to test:

We got it all wrong. I think we should have asked Tom for

advice. He might have given us the right solution.

To express a more uncertain result, in conditional clauses (type 3) as an alternative to the auxiliary 'would':

If we had taken the other road, we might have arrived earlier.

To express some sort of irritation at an activity that was not performed in the past:

You might have helped him with his math exercises (= if you had helped him, he wouldn't have failed his exam).

270

A Practical English Grammar

'CAN/COULD' ^PRESENT/PERFECTINFINITIVE

'COULD' + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED:

To indicate a past ability:

Who could have taken the book? Mary could have as she was supposed to write an essay on

Shakespeare. (= we don't know whether the action was performed or not). / *could have written a better essay* (= the action was not performed).

'CANT' + PRESENT INFINITIVE IS USED: To express a present negative deduction:

He can't still be hungry **If it is a case of supposition rather than true fact in the past:**

"I feel terrible this morning" "The meat you had for dinner last night can't have been good (= I suppose, but obviously, I don't know for sure).

'COULDN'T' + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED:

To express a present negative deduction about a past activity:

"Shakespeare wrote that play."

"Shakespeare couldn't have written it because the events described in it happened a hundred years after his death." **If the form expressing deduction comes in a secondary clause after a main verb in the past:**

/ told him that the meat couldn't have been good.

'MUST' + PERFECT INFINITIVE

'MUST' + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED:

To express a present logical deduction about a past activity or state:

Yesterday he worked all day in the garden. He must have been very tired afterwards.

'NEEDN'T' + PERFECT INFINITIVE

NEEDN'T + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED:

To express an unnecessary action which was nevertheless performed.

We have to wait half an hour till the train comes. We needn't have left home so early.

Ill

The Verb

If the activity is not necessary and is not performed **'didn't have to'** is used:

We didn't have to leave home yet, as there was an hour till the arrival of the train. Compare this to:

We needn't have left home so early as the train won't be here for an hour.

'OUGHT TO' + PERFECT INFINITIVE

'OUGHT TO' + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED: To express an unfulfilled duty or a sensible action that was neglected: *You ought to have told him that the last bus had gone.*

'OUGHTN'T TO' + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED:

To express that an action was performed and it would have been better not to perform it out of a sense of duty, or because it was not sensible:

You oughtn't to have spoken like that to your father (= it was not polite).

'SHOULD' + PERFECT INFINITIVE

'SHOULD' + PERFECT INFINITIVE IS USED:

To express a past unfulfilled duty or a sensible action which was not performed:

You should have announced them in advance. Similarly in the negative:
. You shouldn't have left them alone all afternoon.

Iffillli;^

.-^

;

272

iLZ

-Mu,

j

8S

S

^ ^

mimmM

^

The Verb

6.1.14. REVISION of the MAIN USES of MODAL VERBS AND THEIR SUBSTITUTES

PERMISSION/PROHIBITION

PRESENT: may, can, might (conditional)/must not

PAST: might replaced for future use with **allow to, permit to,**

might (in secondary clauses that follow a verb in the past) **FUTURE:** may, might
(conditional)/will **not be allowed to**

POSSIBILITY

PRESENT: may/might, do you think...?, is it likely..?, I wonder if

I...? can/could

PAST: might (in secondary clauses that follow a verb in the past)

FUTURE: may/might, can replaced for future use with **will be able to**

KP* ABILITY

PRESENT: can, be able **PAST:** could, was/were able

FUTURE: could, will be able

KF= OBLIGATION/LACK OF OBLIGATION

PRESENT: must, mustn't, have to, ought to, should/ don't have to,
need not

PAST: had to/ didn't have to

FUTURE: will have to, must/will not have to

t^° DEDUCTION/SUPPOSITION

PRESENT: must, will, should, shall, can't

PAST: must have been, can't/couldn't have been, had to

KF° COMMAND/REQUEST/OFFERS/SUGGESTIONS

PRESENT: might, will, shall, can I?, could I?, couldn't I?, will you?, would you?, shall I?,
shall we?

274

SLZ

• ■ ■ W w

© 1998 by the American Psychological Association. All rights reserved. This publication is intended for personal use only. All other rights are reserved. For more information, contact the American Psychological Association, 750 First Street, N.E., Washington, D.C. 20002-4242.

ttS

if.....%.....Pl.....■.....∴.....;
..jiy.....all.....li.....!.....ij.....til

W.....llil

llllllllll^ ^^

■îl.....i.....Ha.....lllSliiliipllflliyliiii

The Verb

SilBfi iSIS

llO!ilililflilii

illif::l

276

A Practical English Grammar

fK^ ^^

-llS^

6.7.75.

VERB DARE'

FORM:

In the affirmative 'dare' is conjugated like an ordinary verb:

he dares, they dared, etc. and is followed by an infinitive with 'to'.

USAGE:

'DARE'ASA MODAL IS USED:

In the affirmative rarely with other persons than the third person, referring to courage:

Very few men dared (to) speak up. except in the expression 'I daresay'.

277

-

The Verb

'I daresay' has two meanings: **'I suppose':**

/ daresay there'll be taxis at the station.

'I accept what you are saying, but it doesn't make any difference': *"But we drive on the left in England!" "I daresay you do, but you must drive on the right here."*

'DARE'ASA MODAL IS USED:

In the negative and in questions conjugated either like an ordinary verb or like a modal verb:

do/does not dare, dare not, etc. referring to lack of courage:

/ don't dare (to) tell him that he has been fired.

In exclamatory sentences, as a sign of outrage:

How dare you tell me what to do!

Negative and interrogative forms with **'do/did'** are in theory followed by the infinitive with **to**, but in

practice **to** is often omitted:

He didn't dare (to) say anything.

Did he dare (to) criticize my arrangements?

Negative and interrogative forms without '**do/did**' are followed by the infinitive without **to** as '**dare**' acts like a modal verb:

They dared not move. Dared they interrupt?

'DARE' AS A FULL VERB IS USED:

With the meaning 'to challenge' (to deeds requiring courage). It is followed by an **object + long infinitive**:

"Why did you throw that stone through that window?"

"Another boy dared me to throw it."

I dare you to jump off that cliff.

278

A Practical English Grammar

y 6.1.16. THE VERB 'NEED'

NEED IS USED AS A MODAL (see also **must**): **In affirmative, to express absence of obligation:**

With negative adverbs:

I need hardly tell you how important this is. **In negative statements:**

You need not go if you don't want to. **In questions:** *Need you go so soon?*

NEED IS USED AS A FULL VERB: Followed by 'to': *I need to go to the dentist.*

6.1.17. REGULAR and IRREGULAR VERBS

Regular verbs form their past and past participle by adding '-ed' to the root. Consequently the basic forms are:

pass, passed, passing

For spelling peculiarities see 'the past tense'.

Irregular verbs form the past and past participle in specific ways.

ENDING 0 vs. ENDING '-EN'

A number of verbs have two participle forms, one with the ending -en, one without. In many cases the **-en** forms have only an *adjectival* function (e.g. **drunken, molten, stricken**), and in some it differs considerably in content from the verb.

ENDING '-ED' vs. ENDING '-T'

In many verbs there has been alternation between an irregular form in -t and a regular one in -ed. In those cases where the irregular form was merely an orthographic variant it has now been dropped with the exception of **blest** in addition to **blessed**. Even where there is a difference in sound between the variants (e.g. **leaped / leapt; learned / learnt; spoiled / spoilt**) the regular forms are gaining ground. Different stages of this development are to be seen in the individual verbs. In the case of **blend** the normal forms are those in **-ed** but forms in -t are still to be found in literary English.

279

The Verb

Here is a list of irregular verbs and their three basic forms. Some of them may have both regular and irregular forms:

ABIDE, ABODE (ABIDED), ABODE (ABIDED) '**Abode**' is used archaically in the sense of '**dwelt**', '**remain**'.

A man whose name abode on Northumbrian tongues. '**Abided**' is used in the combination '**abide by**' (= be true to):

He abided by his promises.

ARISE, AROSE, ARISEN

A WAKE, A WOKE (A WAKED), A WOKE(N) (A WAKED)

The past tense '**awaked**' is obsolete. In the past participle '**awake**' is not common, and '**awoken**' is now regarded as incorrect; compare what is said of '**wake**'.

BE, WAS/WERE, BEEN

BEAR, BORE, BORN(E) '**Born**' is used in connection with **birth**: *He was born in Rome.*

'**Borne**' is used in the other senses, and of birth when the verb has an object or is followed in the

passive construction by the converted subject:

He has always borne up well. , She has borne him five children.

The last child borne by her was named John.

BEAT, BEAT, BEATEN

The past participle **beat** is now considered incorrect:

He won't be beat. but survives in the combination '**dead-beat**'.

BECOME, BECAME, BECOME BEFALL, BEFELL, BEFALLEN BEGIN, BEGAN, BEGUN

BEHOLD, BEHELD, BEHELD '**Beholden** is found only functioning as a predicative adjective:

/ am much beholden to you for your help.

The use of '**much**' as an intensive adverb is however a reminder of the verbal origin of the word.

280

A Practical English Grammar

BEND, BENT, BENT '**Bended**' is used in the archaic phrase '*on bended knees*'.

BEREA VE, BEREFT, BEREFT (BEREA VED) '**Bereft**' is used of matters other than death:

He was bereft of home and friends.

He acted as if he were bereft of reason.

The blow bereft him of consciousness.

Are you bereft of your senses? '**Bereaved**' is often used of death, but only adjectivally:

a bereaved mother

the bereaved with the verbal function there is some uncertainty:

a mother bereft, bereaved of her children

BESEECH, BESOUGHT, BESOUGHT

BESPEAK, BESPOKE, BESPOKEN (BESPOKE) '**Bespoke**' is used in:

Every room is bespoke. but also found used as the opposite of '**ready-made**':

bespoke boots

bespoke goods

a bespoke tailor's shop.

BET, BET (BETTED), BET (BETTED)

'**Bet**' is used when the **stake** is stated:

He bet me five pounds I could not do it.

I have bet five pounds against it.

How much has been bet on him? '**Betted**' is used otherwise:

They betted a good deal in those days.

The money was all betted away.

BID, BID, BID OR BID, BADE, BIDDEN (BID) The first set of forms are used with the sense of '**make a bid**':

He bid up to ten pounds.

Nothing was bid. The inflected form is used otherwise:

/ bade him go. /He was bidden to go.

Soldiers must do as they are bidden. The past participle 'bid' is also used in the expression: *Do as you are bid.*

281

The Verb

BIND, BOUND, BOUND

BITE, BIT, BITTEN (BIT) '**Bit**' is only used in the expression *the bitter bit*.

BLEED, BLED, BLED

BLEND, BLENDED (BLENDED), BLENDED (BLENDED)

BLESS, BLESSED (BLEST), BLESSED (BLEST) '**Blessed**' is used in its verbal function:

He has blessed me with riches. is used as an adjective pronounced [blesid]: *the blessed innocence of children every blessed night*

'**Blest**' is used in the sense **heavenly or saved**: *the mansions of the blest I am blest if I know.*

BLOW, BLEW, BLOWN (BLOWED) '**Blowed**' is only used in slang with the meaning **damned**/ *Be blowed to them.*

BREAK, BROKE, BROKEN (BROKE) '**Broke**' (= ruined) is found in colloquial English: *I'm broke.*

BREED, BRED, BRED BRING, BROUGHT, BROUGHT
BROADCAST, BROADCASTED (BROADCAST), BROADCAST
(BROADCASTED)

'Broadcast' illustrates a fact applying to many of the verbs with both regular and irregular past tense and past participle forms, i.e., that the supplanting of the irregular forms by the regular forms applies more in the past tense than in the past participle. (See also **burn, dream, lean**)

BUILD, BUILT, BUILT

BURN, BURNT (BURNED), BURNT 'Burned' is used in the sense **longed to**:

She burned to ask where the boy lived. In American English this verb is usually regularly inflected.

BURST, BURST, BURST

282

A Practical English Grammar

BUY, BOUGHT, BOUGHT CAST, CAST, CAST CATCH, CAUGHT, CAUGHT
CHIDE, CHID (CHIDED), CHIDDEN (CHID, CHIDED)

Regular inflected forms of this verb are preferred in American English.

CHOOSE, CHOSE, CHOSEN

CLEAVE (= SPLIT), CLEAVED (CLOVE, CLEFT), CLEAVED (CLOVEN, CLEFT)

Note the following expressions:

cloven foot/hoof cleft palate in a cleft stick

CLEAVE (= STICK), CLEAVED (CIA VE), CLEAVED CLING, CLUNG, CLUNG

CLOTHE, CLOTHED (CLAD), CLOTHED (CLAD) 'Clothed' is used in the sense of 'cover' or 'provide clothes':

She was fed and clothed at my expense.

He clothed his thoughts in words.

'Clad' is used as a mannered expression instead of 'dress', i.e., of the appearance of the clothing:

poorly clad, lightly clad. In addition **clad** occurs in many combinations, such as *snow-clad*.

COME, CAME, COME COST, COST, COST

CROW, CROWED (CREW), CROWED Of the **crowing** of a **cock** both past tense forms are used:

The cock crew/crowed. 'Crowed' is used in other usages:

He crowed over me.

CUT, CUT, CUT DEAL, DEALT, DEALT DIG, DUG, DUG

283

The Verb

DO, DID, DONE

DRAW, DREW, DRAWN

DREAM, DREAMED (DREAMT), DREAMT (DREAMED)

In addition to the circumstances mentioned at the beginning there is a distinction between **dreamt** as the usual form and **dreamed** in formal usage: 'Dreamt' is used with the usual meaning:

You must have dreamt.

You dreamt that, I suppose. 'Dreamed' is used in the sense **imagine, believe**:

He little dreamed that this was going to happen.

DRINK, DRANK, DRUNK (DRUNKEN) 'Drunk' used adjectivally is predicative:

He is drunk. 'Drunken' is used attributively:

a drunken man

his drunken habits In the sense **habitually drunk**, however, 'drunken' is also predicative:

He was drunken and dissolute.

DRIVE, DROVE, DRIVEN DWELL, DWELT, DWELT

EAT, ATE, EATEN

'Ate' in British English is pronounced [et], rarely [eit]. In American English, however, [eit] is the received pronunciation.

FALL, FELL, FALLEN FEED, FED, FED FEEL, FELT, FELT FIGHT, FOUGHT, FOUGHT

FIND, FOUND, FOUND FLEE, FLED, FLED FLING, FLUNG, FLUNG FLY, FLEW, FLOWN

284

A Practical English Grammar

FORBEAR, FORBORE, FORBORNE FORBID, FORBADE (FORBAD), FORBIDDEN

FORECAST, FORECAST (FORECASTED), FORECAST (FORECASTED)

FORGET, FORGOT, FORGOTTEN (FORGOT) '**Forgotten**' is preferred in British English, whereas in Am. English '**forgot**'.

FORGIVE, FORGAVE, FORGIVEN FORSAKE, FORSOOK, FORSAKEN FREEZE, FROZE, FROZEN

GET, GOT, GOT (GOTTEN)

'**Gotten**' is normal in American English; it exists in British English only in the expression: *ill-gotten gains*.

GILD, GILDED, GILDED (GILT) '**Gilded**' is used in its verbal function:

I had my silver necklace gilded.

As attributive adjectives, the past participle forms are used as follows: '**Gilt**' (literally): *gilt edges a book with a gilt top* '**Gilded**' (metaphorically and formally):

gilded spurs, the gilded summit of the mountain

GIRD, GIRDED (GIRT), GIRDED (GIRT) '**Girt**' is now found only in formal English:

silence girt the woods Compare an island girded by the sea and a sea-girt isle.

GIVE, GAVE, GIVEN GO, WENT, GONE GRIND, GROUND, GROUND GROW, GREW, GROWN HANG, HUNG (HANGED), HUNG (HANGED) '**Hanged**' is used only with reference to **execution**: *He was hanged for murder.*

but also in the expression:

I'll be hanged if I know.

285

The Verb

HAVE, HAD, HAD HEAR, HEARD, HEARD

HEAVE, HEAVED (HOVE), HEAVED (HOVE) '**Hove**' is found only in nautical language:

They hove the bodies overboard. A ship hove in sight.

Otherwise the regular forms are used: *She heaved a sigh.*

HEW, HEWED HEWN (HEWED)

HIDE, HID, HIDDEN (HID) '**Hidden**' is used adjectivally:

a hidden treasure.

In the verbal function '**hidden**' is the normal form, '**hid**' as past participle is bookish.

HIT, HIT, HIT HOLD, HELD, HELD HURT, HURT, HURT KEEP, KEPT, KEPT

KNEEL, KNELT (KNEELED), KNELT (KNEELED)

The irregular form is still more commonly used than the regular form.

KNIT, KNITTED (KNIT), KNITTED (KNIT) '**Knitted**' is used in the literal sense:

She (had) knitted a pair of socks. '**Knit**' is used metaphorically:

She knit/knitted her brows.

They are closely knit in friendship.

The families are knit together by common interests.

a well-knit frame

a closely knit argument

KNOW, KNEW, KNOWN LADE, LADED, LADEN LAY, LAID, LAID

286

A Practical English Grammar

LEAD, LED, LED

LEAN, LEANED (LEANT), LEANED (LEANT)

LEAP. LEAPED (LEAPT), LEAPED (LEAPT)

LEARN, LEARNED (LEARNT), LEARNT (LEARNED)

Note that in the adjective '**learned**' the ending is pronounced [id]: *He looks learned.*

LEAVE, LEFT, LEFT

LEND, LENT, LENT

LET, LET, LET

LIE (= RECLINE), LA Y, LAIN

LIGHT, LIT (LIGHTED), LIT (LIGHTED)

In the literal sense, the regular and irregular forms are both common:

He (has) lit/lighted a cigar-/lamp/fire. '**Lighted**' is used as an attributive adjective:

a lighted cigar. '**Lit**' is used metaphorically:

Her eyes lit up.

A smile lit up her face.

but *The face of the old man lighted up.* Likewise in many combinations:

star-lit

flood-lit (but also *flood-lighted*). **LIGHT** (= settle) also has two forms:

The snow flake lit/lighted on my hand.

LOSE, LOST, LOST MAKE, MADE, MADE MEAN, MEANT, MEANT MEET, MET, MET

MELT, MELTED, MELTED (MOLTEN)

'**Molten**' is used only as an attributive adjective, and only of high melting points: *molten steel, molten gold, molten lava, molten glass* (and even in these cases **melted** also occurs). But only *melted butter*.

287

The Verb

MOW, MOWED, MOWN (MOWED) '**Mown**' is used as an attributive adjective:

mown grass

new mown hay Verbally both forms are common:

The lawn was mown/mowed yesterday.

OVERCOME, OVERCAME, OVERCOME PAY, PAID, PAID PUT, PUT, PUT

QUIT, QUITTED (QUIT), QUITTED (QUIT)

Now nearly always regular in Standard British English; but the past tense and past participle '**quit**' are found in dialect and American English.

READ, READ, READ RENT, RENT, RENT RID, RID (RIDDED), RID RIDE, RODE,

RIDDEN RING, RANG, RUNG RISE, ROSE, RISEN RIVE, RIVED, RIVEN (RIVED) RUN,

RAN, RUN

SA W, SA WED, SA WN (SA WED)

'**Sawn**' is used as an attributive adjective:

sawn wood In the verbal function 'sawn' is more often used than 'sawed':

wood to be sawn/sawed

SAY, SAID, SAID SEE, SAW, SEEN SEEK, SOUGHT, SOUGHT SELL, SOLD, SOLD SEND,

SENT, SENT

288

A Practical English Grammar

SET, SET, SET

SEW, SEWED, SEWN (SEWED) '**Sewn**' is used adjectivally: *handsewn*.

Used verbally, the regular and irregular forms are interchangeable: *She has sewn/sewed a button on.*

SHAKE, SHOOK, SHAKEN

SHA VE, SHA VED, SHA VED (SHA VEN) '**Shaven**' is used adjectivally:

He is well shaven. He is clean-shaven.

SHEAR, SHEARED (SHORE), SHORN (SHEARED) '**Shore**' is obsolete. '**Shorn**' is used adjectivally: *a shorn lamb*.

In its verbal function both forms of the past participle are found: *We have shorn/sheared the sheep.*

SHED, SHED, SHED SHINE, SHONE, SHONE SHOE, SHOD, SHOD

SHOOT, SHOT, SHOT

SHOW, SHOWED, SHOWN (SHOWED) '**Shown**' is the usual past participle.

'**Showed**' (past participle) is rare when followed by its object and non-existent in the passive.

SHRED, SHREDDED (SHRED), SHREDDED (SHRED)

SHRINK, SHRANK, SHRUNK (SHRUNKEN) '**Shrunken**' is only used as an adjective: *shrunken limbs*.

SHRIVE, SHROVE (SHRIVED), SHRIVEN (SHRIVED) SHUT, SHUT, SHUT

289

The Verb

SING, SANG, SUNG

SINK, SANK, SUNK (SUNKEN) '**Sunken**' is generally used as the attributive adjective:

sunken eyes

sunken cheeks but it does occur predicatively:

His cheeks were sunken. '**Sunken**' has no passive value, this being expressed by '**sunk**':

sunk ships (= ships that have been sunk)

and **sunken ships** (= ships that have sunk)

SIT, SAT, SAT

SLAY, SLEW, SLAIN

SLEEP, SLEPT, SLEPT

SLIDE, SLID, SLID

SLING, SLUNG, SLUNG

SLINK, SLUNK, SLUNK

SLIT, SLIT, SLIT

SMELL, SMELT (SMELLED), SMELT (SMELLED)

SOW, SOWED, SOWN (SOWED) '**Sown**' is used adjectivally:

the sown seed

In the verbal function the past participle has both forms:

He has sown/sowed the field with wheat. \

SPEAK, SPOKE, SPOKEN

SPEED, SPED (SPEEDED), SPED (SPEEDED)

Both forms are used of **rapid movement**:

The car sped/speeded along the road.

In the special sense **increase the speed of** only the regularly inflected forms are used: *He speeded up.*

He speeded the work.

SPELL, SPELT (SPELLED), SPELT (SPELLED)

290

A Practical English Grammar

SPEND, SPENT, SPENT

SPILL, SPILT (SPILLED), SPILT (SPILLED) '**Spilt**' is used adjectivally in: *To cry over the spilt milk.*

SPIN, SPUN, SPUN

SPIT, SPAT (SPIT), SPAT (SPIT)

SPLIT, SPLIT, SPLIT

SPOIL, SPOILED (SPOILT), SPOILT (SPOILED) '**Spoiled**' is used in the old sense **plunder, rob**:

They spoiled the town.

In the other sense the verb has both forms:

She spoiled/spoilt the child. The fruit spoiled/spoilt in the hot weather. Bad weather spoiled/spoilt my holidays. My appetite was spoiled/spoilt.

SPREAD, SPREAD, SPREAD

SPRING, SPRANG, SPRUNG

STAND, STOOD, STOOD

STEAL, STOLE, STOLEN

STICK, STUCK, STUCK

STING, STUNG, STUNG

STINK, STUNK, STUNK

STREW, STREWED, STREWN (STREWED)

STRIDE, STRODE, STRIDDEN

STRIKE, STRUCK, STRUCK (STRICKEN) 'Stricken' is used only adjectivally, and mostly in certain phrases:

He was desolate, utterly stricken.

fever-stricken

poverty-stricken

sorrow-stricken

horror-stricken (as well as *horror-struck*). Note also: *thunder-struck*.

291

The Verb

STRING, STRUNG, STRUNG STRIVE, STROVE, STRIVEN SWEAR, SWORE, SWORN
SWEAT, SWEATED (SWEAT), SWEATED (SWEAT)

In British English almost entirely the regularly inflected forms are used, but in American English the irregular forms are common.

SWEEP, SWEEP, SWEEP

SWELL, SWELLED, SWOLLEN (SWELLED)

In the verbal function the past participle 'swollen' is more common than 'swelled':

My face has swollen. 'Swollen' is the usual adjectival form:

a swollen river. Note the difference between *a swollen head* (with the literal value) and *a swelled head* (of conceit).

SWIM, SWAM, SWUM

SWING, SWUNG, SWUNG

TAKE, TOOK, TAKEN

TEACH, TAUGHT, TAUGHT

TEAR, TORE, TORN

TELL, TOLD, TOLD

THINK, THOUGHT, THOUGHT^

THRIVE, THROVE (THRIVED), THRIVEN (THRIVED)

THROW, THREW, THROWN

THRUST, THRUST, THRUST

WAKE, WOKE, WOKEN

WEAK, WORE, WORN

WEAVE, WOVE, WOVEN

292

A Practical English Grammar

WED, WEDDED (WED), WEDDED (WED)

In American English 'wed' is found both as a past tense and a past participle. In British English, the irregular form can be found, particularly in formal language: *This is an instance of simplicity wed to beauty.*

WEEP, WEPT, WEPT WIN, WON, WON

WIND, WOUND, WOUND

In the sense of sound wind is regularly inflected: *He winded/wound the bugle.*

WITHDRAW, WITHDREW, WITHDRAWN WITHHOLD, WITHHELD, WITHHELD WITHSTAND, WITHSTOOD, WITHSTOOD

WORK, WORKED (WROUGHT), WORKED (WROUGHT) 'Wrought' is found in certain expressions:

He wrought destruction/ruin, wrought-up nerves wrought iron

WRING, WRUNG, WRUNG WRITE, WROTE, WRITTEN

293

The Verb

im^

^

iflXIS

6.7.i«. TROUBLESOME VERBS

LIE, LIED, LIED [lai, laid, laid] - a minți

Z/E, .L4 F, LAIN [lai, lei, lein] - a fi culcat, a fi întins, a zăcea

Z*4 Y, LAID, LAID [lei, leid, leid] - a pune jos, a culca, a așeza, a depune ouă

294

A Practical English Grammar

ARISE, AROSE, ARISEN - a se ridica, a se ivi - many difficulties arose RISE. ROSE, RISEN [raiz, rouz, rizn] - a se scula, a se ridica, a răsări, a izvora

RAISE, RAISED, RAISED [reiz, reizd, reizd] - a ridica, a deștepta, a crește AROUSE, AROUSED, AROUSED - a trezi, a deștepta, a stârni

£4777, BATHED, BATHED - a îmbăia, a face baie BATHE, BATHED, BATHED - a (se) scaldă

F/M), FOUND, FOUND [faund, faund, faund] - a găsi, a procura, a afla FOUND, FOUNDED,

FOUNDED [faund, faundid, faundid] - a funda, a

întemeia

LEAVE, LEFT, LEFT [li.v, left, left] - a lăsa, a abandona, a pleca LIVE, LIVED LIVED [liv, livd, livd] - a trăi, a locui, a sta , LET, LET [let, let, let] - a permite, a îngădui, a închiria

LOSE, LOST, LOST [lu:z] - a pierde, a(-i) scăpa, a suferi pierderi LOOSE, LOOSED, LOOSED [his] - a dezlega, a detașa, a slăbi (din

strânsoare) LOOSEN, LOOSENED, LOOSENED [lu.sân]- aceleași sensuri ca loose

SIT, SAT, SAT [sit] - a șede, a se așeza

SEAT, SEATED, SEATED [si.t] - a așeza, a amplasa, a avea locuri (sala

spectacol) SET, SET, SET [set] - a pune, a așeza (o carte în raft), a potrivi, a monta

FALL, FELL, FALLEN [fo:l, fel, fo.ln] - cădea, s clasifica a scădea
(preturi, etc)
FELL, FELL, FELL [fel, feld, feld] - a ia pământ, i doborâ
prin taieri

/<ZF, FLEW, FLOWN [flai] - a zbura, a pilota (un avion), a transporta cu avionul

FLOW, FLOWED, FLOWED [flou] - a curge, a se scurge, a decurge (din) FLEE, FLED, FLED [fii:, fled, fled] - a fugi, a scăpa cu fuga (de), a părăsi

295

The Verb

FEEL, FELT, FELT [fi:l, felt, felt] - a simți, a pipăi, a presimți, a tatona FILL, FILLED, FILLED [fil, fild, fild] - a umple, a satura, a plomba (un dinte)

STRIKE, STRUCK, STRUCK (STRICKEN) [straik] - a lovi, a izbi, a bate (ceasul)

STROKE, STROKED, STROKED [stouk] - a dezmierda, a dirija (pe vâslași)

K^.....Si|||||||||||ill™:"i||||||||||-l:!!!:ll

&

|^^

296

A Practical English Grammar

llllll:3

g| 6.7.2P. PHRASAL VERBS

FORM:

Phrasal verbs are formed by combining verbs with prepositions:

Mr. *Potter suffers from asthma.* or adverb particles:

When she left the university she gave away all her books. or with both: / *can't put up with him any longer.*

MEANING:

They may have idiomatic meaning:

/ *took him in and treated him like a brother.*

These eggs didn't agree with me, as I'm feeling sick now. or non-idiomatic meaning:

I took off my clothes and put on my pyjamas.

I don't agree with you.

297

86Z

|||||g

|||||

A Practical English Grammar

6.2. AGREEMENT

DEFINITION:

The agreement is done according to the number and person.

Number is that property of the verb which makes evident whether the subject denotes: one - **singular** or more than one -**plural**

Person is that property of the verb which makes evident whether the subject names: the person(s) *speaking* - **first person**

the person(s) or thing(s) *spoken to* -**second person** or the person(s) or thing(s) *spoken of* -**third person**

There are cases when difficulties in agreement between subject and predicate

appear: 6.2.1. agreement with coordinated subjects

6.2.2. agreement when the subject and predicative complement differ in number

6.2.3. agreement with a noun having a plural form but being singular in content

6.2.4. agreement with nouns preceded by 'a lot', 'lots'

6.2.5. agreement with nouns preceded by two adjectives

6.2.6. agreement where clauses are concerned

For further details on agreement see also 1.1.14 - 1.1.24, 4.7.4, 4.8, 5.8

6.2.1. AGREEMENT with COORDINATED SUBJECTS

NOUNS as SUBJECTS

The linguistic attitude may **vacillate** when the speaker is confronted with two or more nouns connected by certain conjunctions between: **The entire combination being felt as the subject of the verb**, in which case the concord is done in the **PLURAL** or

Only one member of the combination being felt as the subject of the verb in which case the concord is done in the **SINGULAR**.

The CONJUNCTIONS '(TOGETHER) WITH', 'AS WELL AS', 'NO LESS THAN'

The nouns linked by these conjunctions always make the concord with the verb in the **SINGULAR**:

Jane with the children was tied to the little flat in London. The boy as well as the girls has learned to ride.

299

The Verb

'MORE THAN'

Grammatical concord is obeyed for '**more than**':

More than 100 people were at the wedding. More than one person has been to visit her.

In the second case the singular is preferred because the subject is 'person' although in content 'more

than one person' is a plural expression.

The CONJUNCTION 'AND' or JUXTAPOSITION

In the case of nouns linked by the conjunction 'and' or immediately juxtaposed

The PLURAL IS USED, generally:

In my heart are peace and goodwill.

His attitude, his smile were Byronic.

The SINGULAR IS USED:

When the subjects express a single concept:

A cart and horse was seen at a distance.

My colleague and friend is near death's door.

When the first part of the subject is included in the idea where the verb is stated, the rest of the subject being an **addition** with ellipsis of the verb. *There was biscuit left in their bags and some sausages.*

When the nouns given represent separate possibilities, so that 'or' and not 'and' would have been the conjunction linking the words if it had been expressed: *The author, the wit, the partisan, the fine gentleman does not take the place of the man.*

There is however some vacillation. Compare: *The horse and cart were gone* or *The bacon and liver were ready*

with the examples above given.

When singular subjects joined by 'and' are introduced by 'many a', 'such a', 'no', 'every', 'each':

Every man, woman and child is to be included.

The SINGULAR or PLURAL IS USED:

When one of the two subjects is introduced by such an expressions as 'and not', 'not', 'not only'.

In this case the verb agrees with the other subject: *Action, and not words is demanded now.*

300

A Practical English Grammar

The DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Number difficulties appear when nouns differing in number are linked by conjunctions having a disjunctive value, such as '**not only ... but (also)**', '**or**', '**either ... or**', '**neither ... nor**', '**partly ... partly**'. The usual solution is to **let the verb agree in number with the nearer of the two subjects:**

Neither the girls nor John is to blame.

The CONJUNCTION 'OR'

Vacillation in number may occur where the disjunctive value of 'or' is weak:

A word or two is (are) needed here. **The PLURAL** is always used with '**one or two**' (= a few):

There are one or two subjects which we have to talk about.

PRONOUNS AS SUBJECTS

Since the suffix '-s' is distinctive as to person, disjunctive expressions representing different persons could give rise to a problem of agreement in the present tense forms of the verb (the same applies to the present tense forms **am, is, are** and the past tense forms **was, were**). Examples of this rarely occur, however, being replaced by expressions with uniform verbal forms, or by some other form of expression:

Either he or I must be wrong.

Either he is in the wrong or I am.

When this type of expression does occur, the form of the verb is usually **determined by the nearest subject:**

Either he or I am in the wrong.

We or John is in the wrong.

6.2.2. AGREEMENT: SUBJECT and predicative COMPLEMENT differ in NUMBER

If the subject and the predicative complement differ in number, the verb agrees with **the subject:**

A man is thousands of different persons. Her children are her sole care.

When the subject is one of those plural forms to which a singular concept may be attached, then such

cases are found: *The Highlands was clearly the place to begin the trip. Two hundred pounds was a large sum for me.*

301

The Verb

6.2.3. AGREEMENT with a NOUN having a PLURAL FORM but being SINGULAR in CONTENT

When the subject is a noun in the plural, the conflict in number between form and content may give rise to agreement problems in the following cases: **Quoted words** in the plural take only the SINGULAR form of the verb:

'Mice' is the plural of 'mouse'.

'Riches' now takes a plural verb.

Titles of books, etc. in the plural take:

The SINGULAR form of the verb:

If the title can only be regarded as a name:

'The Liars' was produced yesterday at the Criterion. If a particular copy or particular edition of a literary production in the plural is in question:

Your 'Lyrical Ballads' was found on my table.

The PLURAL form of the verb:

If the plural form of the title denotes a literary production in the plural: *'The Canterbury Tales' contain some poorer stories.*

'The Pickwick Papers' were designed for the introduction of diverting characters.

Geographical names, etc. in the plural take **The SINGULAR form of the verb:**

When denoting names of towns as **'Brussels', 'Lyons', 'Naples'** *Brussels is worth visiting.*

The PLURAL generally (see 1.1.18 for a list of these geographical names):

The Netherlands are washed by the North Sea.

Names of firms, institutions, etc. in the plural take:

The SINGULAR or the PLURAL according to the semantic content:

Imperial Chemicals have pooled their research with those of Swedish scientists.

British Airways has arranged to complete its move to Heathrow Airport.

302

A Practical English Grammar

6.2.4. AGREEMENT with NOUNS preceded by 'A LOT', 'LOTS'

In the **formal** style **lot** and **lots** present no agreement problems, since they are connected with singular and plural nouns respectively:

A lot of money was needed.

There were lots of people.

But in **colloquial** speech this does not apply and here the phrases take the singular of the verb with uncountables and the plural with countables:

There was heaps of fun.

There was lots of fun.

There were lots of people.

There are heaps of books on the subject.

6.2.5. AGREEMENT with NOUNS preceded by TWO ADJECTIVES

A **noun in the singular** to which two adjectives denoting separate aspects of the noun's content are attached takes **the PLURAL** of the verb: *Secondary and higher education have also been made available.*

Of course, it may happen that linguistic and other evidence are found entangled.

6.2.6. AGREEMENT where CLAUSES are CONCERNED

A phrase or a clause standing between the subject and the verb does not influence the number of the verb:

The price of the last shipment of radio sets was incorrectly quoted.

A clause in the position of subject counts as a singular for purposes of concord:

How you managed to do this is not my business. Prepositional phrases acting as subject take the singular as well: *After the dinner is the time to sleep.*

303

The Verb

IIIIfJSffl

^^

^

Piiioi

304

^

1.....

.....i.....

m

lisgrnm

.....liiill.....li.....mmmr[^]'mwmmmm[^]wm

'm;mimmmmmmmmmmmmmmmmm0m

immmssmmmmmm mm&mmmmmm

mimmmmm

m

l

■-■':- "v

mm} M

.....mmmmmmimwmm

.....^m".....111

.....imm^wmmm[^]mmi

The Verb

6.3. VERBAL FORMS

The verb when used in the language may have a number of forms to express different realities:

Finite verbal forms: Tenses:

- 6.3.1. present simple: *goes*
- 6.3.2. present continuous: *is going*
- 6.3.3. present simple vs. present continuous
- 6.3.4. past simple: *went*
- 6.3.5. past continuous: *was going*
- 6.3.6. past simple vs. past continuous
- 6.3.7. future: *shall/will go, is going to go*
- 6.3.8. future continuous: *will be going*
- 6.3.9. future vs. future continuous
- 6.3.10. future-in-the-past: *was going to go*
- 6.3.11. present perfect: *have gone*
- 6.3.12. present perfect vs. past simple
- 6.3.13. present perfect continuous: *have been going*
- 6.3.14. present perfect continuous vs. present perfect
- 6.3.15. past perfect: *had gone*
- 6.3.16. past perfect vs. past simple
- 6.3.17. past perfect continuous: *had been going*
- 6.3.18. past perfect continuous vs. past perfect
- 6.3.19. future perfect: *will have gone*
- 6.3.20. future perfect continuous: *will have been going*
- 6.3.21. emphatic tenses: *I do/did like that dress.*

Voice:

Mood:

Aspect:

- 6.3.22. the passive: *The car is being repaired.*
- 6.3.23. the causative: *I had the car repaired.*
- 6.3.24. the subjunctive: *I wish he were here.*
- 6.3.25. the imperative: *Close the door!*
- 6.3.26. simple vs. continuous forms

Non-finite verbal forms:

- 6.3.27. the infinitive: *to go*
- 6.3.28. the gerund: *going*
- 6.3.29. the participle: *gone*
- 6.3.30. the infinitive vs. the gerund
- 6.3.31. the infinitive vs. the participle 306

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.1. THE PRESENT TENSE

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE:

The present simple is formed out of the short infinitive in all persons except the third person singular where '-s' or '-es' is added to the short infinitive:

to go => *goes*

to say => *says*

to do => *does* Verbs ending in '-y' change the 'y' into 'i' before adding the ending:

to try => *tries*

Verbs ending in 'x', 'V', 'ss', 'z', 'zz', 'sh', 'ch' add 'es' to the infinitive in the third person singular:

to wash => *washes*

NEGATIVE:

The negative form of the present simple is formed with the help of the verb 'to do' which is found in the short infinitive in all persons except the third person singular and the negation 'not': **do (does III) + not + short infinitive**: *He does not go to school everyday.*

INTERROGATIVE.

The interrogative form of the present simple is formed according to the following pattern: **do (does III) + subject + short infinitive**: *Do they go to school everyday?*

The negative interrogative expects a 'yes' answer.

USAGE:

The present simple expresses an action which **has no necessary correlation with the present time**, as it can refer to: A **timeless action**:

The moon goes around the earth. A **habitual or durative action in recent or removed past time**:

I go to school everyday. **Contemporaneous or simultaneous present time**:

I open the door, and who should I find standing on the other side? **Immediate or removed future**:

The plane arrives at 10:15 a.m.

307

The Verb

The present simple can refer to almost any time and that is why we may consider it the **tense of substitution par excellence**. The adverbial distribution reflects the structural peculiarities of the present.

The concept of time is relevant to the use of tenses, but the present tense escapes a rigorous time association, its **meaning being relevant only in context**, especially in collocation with time adverbials, explicitly or implicitly expressed.

However, we have to note that there are restrictions in the use of adverbials with tense forms. An overt time adverbial cannot occur if an essential property is stated: **The Arch of Triumph is heavy today*.

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED:

With 'all time' statements. The action in these statements may be considered as generally valid facts:

Two and two make four. The sun rises in the east.

The present tense accepts an adverbial modification that expresses repetition, but not in a specific temporal context: *The sun rises in the east every morning*, but not **The sun rises in the east this week*.

With generic predication. It indicates something characteristic for the subject. It describes a continuing state of affairs: *A lion is a wild animal*.

With timeless predication. The content of these predications is not valid for a limited period of time, but for a duration long enough to make the time irrelevant:

The United States has a large population. Timeless predications rarely accept adverbials of time.

The fact that the concept of limitation is irrelevant explains why the rule of the sequence of tenses is not observed in:

The teacher told us that the United States has a large population.

In this sentence the embedded clause does not show time relationship with reference to the verb in the main clause.

308

A Practical English Grammar

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED:

With habitual or iterative predication, (basic use) The event is a series of happenings. It takes place on indefinite occasions with the only condition that there should be occasions in the future:

He walks to school. Repetition can be expressed by a time adverbial

He walks to school every morning,

but the absence of such an adverbial can also be a signal that points to repetition:

Tom plays football for Manchester United.

With statements expressing instantaneous actions. It signifies an event simultaneous with the present moment and normally occurs in certain easily identifiable contexts.

Insisting on the action, it wants to attract attention as to what is happening:

./ open the door. **In exclamations,** the present is used with its instantaneous use:

Here comes the train! **In asseverations** such as:

I beg your pardon.

Here the event and the act of speech are simultaneous simply because they are identical, i.e. the thing announced and the act of announcement are one:

We accept your offer.

I deny your charge.

In stage directions, sports comments and demonstrations, when the speaker wishes to signal

reference to the whole predication. When an author writes:

Starts slowly for the door, hesitates, then ... he uses the common form of the present tense to indicate that the starting is a unit in itself, a whole between what happened before and what follows.

An action is similarly viewed by **sports commentators**. The present is used when a player's action overlaps with the moment of report:

Johnson takes the puck in, passes to Morrison who heads it straight into the goal

The reason for using this form is to make the game seem to move more jerkily and, thus, more dramatically.

■ 309

The Verb

iiii

mii

SE:STM:\$&fi

111111111

Similarly, **a teacher demonstrating an experiment to his pupils** is primarily attending to each step of the process as a unit, as a whole. The progressive form would focus attention of the pupils on the demonstrator, on his actions rather than on each step as a unit.

This usage is also characteristic of more ceremonial contexts:

Ship launching: / *name this ship....*

Judge passing sentence: *I sentence you to....*

Card and board games: / *bid two clubs.*

Wills: *I bequeath...*

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED:

With unrestrictive statements. The verbs used to describe characteristic features of the subject are stative verbs:

That fellow speaks English as well as he speaks German. It is called *unrestrictive* because it places no limitation on the extension of the state into past and future time:

War solves no problems.

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED: To express future time.

When it represents 'future as fact', which means that the future is assigned the degree of certainty normally accorded to present or past events: *Tomorrow is Monday.*

To signify 'a plan or arrangement regarded as unalterable': *We start for Bucharest tonight.*

This use is common with verbs of 'coming' and 'going': *Do hurry Jane. The train leaves in ten minutes.* 310

A Practical English Grammar

With the simple present the arrangement is often felt to be an **impersonal or collective arrangement**, for example, by a committee, a court of law, or some un-named authority.

The use of the simple present tense in:

One more step and I shoot you.

expresses the melodramatic statement of total determination.

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED: To express future time.

In subordinate clauses of time and condition:

As soon as Susan comes, we shall have tea. If the weather is fine tomorrow, we shall have a picnic.

This is not just a requirement of the syntactic pattern, but has its basis in a contrast of meaning. In dependent clauses of time and condition the action mentioned is a fact that is taken as given.

In cross-references from one part of a book to another. For cross-references to a later part of a book free variation exists between present and future:

We return/shall return to this topic in the next chapter.

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED: To express past time (historic present).

When vividness is being brought to the narrative. The use of the historic present implies the involvement of the narrator in the action. In this case a deictic present tense is used to refer to a process that took place in the past, but this shift does not affect the temporal specifiers. The adverbial assumes the role of a reference point on condition that it prevails over the meaning of the present tense:

Yesterday, I'm sitting quietly in the sitting-room with my wife, when this chap next door staggers by and in a drunken fit throws a brick through our window.

With verbs of communication:

Mary tells me you 're going to the seaside.

The verbs '**tell**', '**write**', '**say**' make reference to the initiation of the message which is placed in the past. Consequently, the past or perfect tenses would be expected:

Mary has told me you 're moving to a new flat.

311

The Verb

However, it appears that the verbal meaning has been transferred from the initiating end to the receiving end of the message. The communication is still in force for those who have received it. Similarly, verbs like '**learn**' and '**hear**' can make reference to the state of *having received the message*:
I hear that Dr. Johnson has moved to London.

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED: To express past time:

In cross-references from one part of a book to another. In this case free variation between past and present tense occurs:

The problem wasAs discussed in Chapter Two above.

In newspaper headlines:

Because of its brevity, the simple present is preferred to the past and perfect tenses as a way of announcing recent events in newspaper headlines:

George heads south

a headline reporting the transfer of a football player contrasts with the past tense that one meets in the corresponding prose account:

George agreed to join Brian Clough's Nottingham Forest.

When discussing an artist and his surviving work. In this case one feels justified in using the present, because the work, and through it (in a sense) the artist, are still *alive*. The slight difference between:

Shakespeare is the greatest English dramatist of the Renaissance, and

Shakespeare was the greatest....

is accounted for by whether one prefers to think of Shakespeare as a dramatist still living through his works, or a man who died in the seventeenth century.

The choice does not exist when we deal with purely biographical details of the artist's life. The present tense cannot be employed to mark aspects of the artist's life: *Shakespeare was born at Stratford-upon-Avon.*

THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE IS USED: To introduce quotations:

Shakespeare says: "Neither a borrower nor a lender be."

312

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.2. THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE:

The present continuous is formed on the following pattern: **the present of the verb 'to be' (I am, you are, he/she/it is, we/you/they are) + short infinitive + '-ing':**

I am going to school this year.

Verbs ending in a consonant preceded by short stressed vowel double the consonant before adding the ending. One-syllable verbs always double the end consonant: *to sit => sitting*

Two (or more)-syllable verbs double the end consonant only if the final syllable is stressed:

to begin => beginning

but *to differ => differing, to refer => referring*

Verbs ending in silent '-e' drop the '-e' before adding the ending '-ing': *to make => making*

f3?"	The verbs	to see' and 'to be'	do not drop the final V
when '-ing	'is added; the -e	in	these verbs is not silent:
<i>to</i>	<i>se</i>	=> <i>seeing</i>	
<i>to</i>	<i>e</i>	=^ <i>being</i>	

313

The Verb

Verbs ending in '-y' keep the 'y' when '-ing' is added:

to try => trying Verbs ending in '-ie' change the ending into '-y' when '-ing' is added:

to lie => lying Verbs ending in '-ic' change 'ic' into 'ick' before adding the ending '-ing':

to picnic => picnicking

NEGATIVE:

The negative form is built according to the following pattern: **the present of the verb 'to be' + NOT + short infinitive + '-ing':** / *am not going to school.*

INTERROGATIVE:

The interrogative form is built according to the following pattern:

the present of the verb 'to be' + SUBJECT + short infinitive + '-ing':

Are you going?

Aren't you going? expects a 'yes' answer

USAGE:

The present continuous is used to indicate that the action is viewed in terms of its **duration** and that it is related to a definite occasion, i.e. the moment of speech.

THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS IS USED:

To indicate that the action is performed in the moment of speech, (basic use). Durative verbs related to the moment of speech indicate that the action has begun and is in progress when the action is reported. No reference is made to the span of time covered by the action, although the progressive form infers **that the action is limited:**

He is writing a letter.

With punctual verbs *duration* is secured through repetition of the occasion *He is jumping up and down with joy.*

To indicate that a *habitual* action in the present is accompanied by a durative action:

I go to sleep easily if the radio is playing.

To express 'repeated action over a limited period of time'. The following sentences exhibit the concept of repetition in the progressive aspect:

I'm taking swimming lessons this summer.

John is walking to school until his car is repaired

314

The progressive exhibits the concept of **limitation of duration** which applies to individual events. The grammaticality of these two sentences can be accounted for by the fact that the concept characteristic to events is now applied to the whole series. **It is repeated activity over a limited period.** Generally the period is specified by an adverbial of time. If there is no adverbial: *I'm taking swimming lessons.* the predication suggests a shorter period than: *I take swimming lessons.*

A

Ci?" In the following context the notion of **limitation of duration** is not characteristic of the habit, but it applies to the individual events of which the habit is composed. *Whenever I see him he is chewing something.*

THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS IS USED: To refer to a future event anticipated by virtue of a present arrangement: / hear you 're moving to a new job. There exists a subtle difference between the present progressive and **be going to + infinitive**: it is not the present intention or cause, but rather a future event anticipated by virtue of a present arrangement that is signalled by the progressive present: *He's buying a new car next week. I'm visiting my relatives tomorrow.* The notion of *arrangement* is more often associated with *nearness*, but the possibility remains of referring to a more remote future if it is regarded as planned in advance: *When I am sixty, I'm definitely retiring.*

1
A

K^° The factor of **plan** or **arrangement** in the future meaning of the present progressive restricts its use in the main to **doing verbs involving conscious human agency**. *John is rising at five o'clock tomorrow*, but not **The sun is rising at five o'clock tomorrow*. The latter sentence is absurd because it suggests that the rising of the sun could be deliberately planned, instead of being determined by natural law.

315

The Verb

For the future use with verbs of **movement** ('come', 'go', 'move', etc.), the time must always be mentioned: *I'm leaving by the 6.27 train this evening.*

THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS IS USED:

With an idiomatic use, marked by the absence of the temporary element of the normal progressive meaning:

Day by day we are getting nearer to death.

The sense here is one of persistent or continuous activity. The uninterrupted nature of the activity is usually underlined by the presence of the adverbials like '*continually*', '*constantly*', '*for ever*', etc

THE USE OF THE ADVERBIALS WITH PRESENT PROGRESSIVE With **indefinite adverbials**. Progressive forms **cannot collocate** with adverbials of indefinite time:

**He is playing the violin in the afternoon.*

The present progressive specifically requires a definite occasion on which the action takes place. It is possible to change the indefinite time expression (*in the afternoon*) into a definite one by adding an

explicit specification of time (*this week*): *He is playing the violin in the afternoon this week*. It expresses contrast with another period of time. The meaning of the progressive (limited duration) applies to the period of time and not to the activity and this accounts for the grammaticality of the sentence above.

Adverbial restrictions occur when the progressive form is used. The progressive is odd if the speaker is simply reporting the location of an immovable object without recalling a particular time he was there:

**The alley is leading to the castle,*

but it is perfectly acceptable if the speaker is involved in the action described by the predication:

We've been in this alley for an hour; I wonder where it is leading us.

With continuous adverbials. The progressive aspect is **compatible** with adverbials that express continuous occurrence: *He is ceaselessly bothering me*.

Constructions of this kind mark the fact that the speaker is disturbed by the action mentioned by the verb. It expresses *irritation, annoyance, mockery, sarcasm*, i.e. disapproval of an action which in the speaker's opinion happens too often. The speaker is a subjective participant to the statement.

316

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.3. PRESENT SIMPLE vs. PRESENT CONTINUOUS

The difference between the meanings conveyed by the two forms lies in their basic meanings: The present simple refers to a habitual, generally valid state of facts or actions:

Jack sings well (=a general quality)

while the present continuous refers to actions that limit themselves in a fixed span of time, the moment of action being always mentioned:

Jack is singing well. (=refers to the performance that is put on a particular occasion, which might be 'now')

There are certain contexts where either the present simple or present continuous are used in order to make clear different shades in meaning: **In statements conveying instantaneous actions.**

The present simple is used:

When the action is insisted upon:

I open the door

The present continuous is used: **When the statement is neutral:**

I am opening the door.

The second sentence, which contains the progressive form, is a neutral description in answer to the question *What are you doing?* but the first sentence is rather dramatic, because it insists on the total enactment of the event as it is reported. **With performative verbs:**

The present simple is used:

To express formal acts of declaration:

We accept your offer. **The present continuous** is used:

To report the speaker's present activities or future intentions.

We are accepting your offer. **In sports commentaries:**

The present simple is normally used:

To give the narration a more rapid tone:

And Jones serves an ace. **The present continuous** is used:

When the commentators want to say that the action lasts for a longer period of time:

"The Bulls" are pressing again.

317

The Verb

In statements referring to the future: The present simple is used:

To signify a plan or arrangement regarded as unalterable, mainly having been conceived by an authority:

We start for Bucharest tonight is what a guide would say. **The present continuous** is used:

To weaken the special dramatic overtones: *We are starting for Bucharest tonight.*

We understand from this sentence that the present plan may, conceivably, be altered later; but the

changing of the plan in the sentence with the simple present is out of the question.

In statements referring to a habitual action. The present simple is used:

To refer to habits or reported actions that have a sense of generality around them:

/ take swimming lessons. The present continuous is used: With no adverbial:

I'm taking swimming lessons.

to suggest that the habit occurs only for a short period of time, shorter than in the first case.

In statements expressing a characteristic activity: The present simple is used:

To convey an objective tone:

John always comes late. The present continuous is used:

To impart a subjective, emotionally coloured tone: *John is always coming late.*

With specific verbs that tend to be used either in the progressive or the simple aspect, (see aspect)

S^

318

A Practical English Grammar

Bffl^^

319

The Verb

6.3.4. THE PAST TENSE

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE:

The regular verbs form the past by adding the ending '-ed' to the short infinitive: *to happen => happened*

Verbs ending in a consonant preceded by a short vowel double the consonant:

to stop => stopped Verbs ending in '-y' preceded by a consonant change the 'y' into 'i'

to try => tried Verbs ending in silent '-e' drop the 'e' before the ending '-ed' is added:

to live => lived

The irregular verbs have as a past form the second form of the verb (see 6.1.17): *to be => was* *to sit => sat*

There are irregular verbs that have the same form in the present and the past. One must be careful not to be inclined to add '-s' to the third person in the past. The verb in the past does not vary according to person and number.

He puts his shoes on everyday, (present) He put his shoes on yesterday, (past)

NEGATIVE: did + not + short infinitive of verb:

I did not (didn't) go to school yesterday.

INTERROGATIVE: did + subject + short infinitive of verb: Did you go to school yesterday?

The negative and interrogative are formed with the help of the past tense form of 'to do': 'did' both for regular and irregular verbs.

DO NOT MAKE THE MISTAKE OF PLACING AFTER 'DID' THE AFFIRMATIVE PAST FORM INSTEAD OF THE SHORT INFINITIVE.

USAGE:

The past tense indicates that the event specified by the verb took place before the moment of speech.

320

A Practical English Grammar

The SIMPLE PAST TENSE IS USED:

To denote definite past time activities that have come to an end. (basic use)

There are two elements of meaning involved in this use of the past tense:

The happening takes place before the present moment, which means that the present moment is excluded:

/ lived in London for ten years. (=I no longer live there).

The speaker has a definite time in mind.. There exists very little information in the meaning of the past tense alone, without any temporal specification.

Past time expressions used with the simple past tense may be:

Definite: 'last week (year)', 'yesterday', 'the day before yesterday', 'two years (days, weeks, months, etc.) ago', 'in 1993', etc.

Indefinite: 'a long time ago', 'once upon a time', 'some time ago'...

Very often a sentence contains no express indication of past time because a particular time is implied by the context or by the whole situation: *Did you sleep well?*

The situation indicates a definite past moment to which the action of sleeping is related: *last night.*

There is nothing in the past corresponding to an indefinitely extensive present tense, insofar as whole lifetimes or even whole eras of civilisation may, in historical retrospect, appear as complete, unitary happenings:

William Barnes was born, lived and died in his beloved county of Dorset.

The SIMPLE PAST TENSE IS USED:

In predications that identify an event by virtue of the fact that only one such event took place:

Napoleon died on St. Helen.

To refer to an event that took place in the immediate past:

"You'll understand better when you get there", said Mary "What did you say?", asked Anne.

To point out a contrast with an unspoken present alternative:

I thought you were leaving (but now I see you're not).

To indicate a past ability, as the verb is used in its stative sense: *The little girl swam like a fish.*

321

The Verb

There is a class of verbs that act differently according to the type of subject they take. With animate subjects they can have a perfective or imperfective meaning:

He cut the bread.

or *He was cutting the bread (when I came).* whereas with inanimate subjects this possibility does not exist:

The knife cut like a razor.

The windows of my room faced the garden. With inanimate subjects the past tense indicates a characteristic in a way similar to true statives.

Verbs like 'open', 'come out', 'start', 'work', etc. with an inanimate subject express the failure of the thing designated by the subject to work properly. This is expressed by: wouldn't + verb:

The door wouldn't open.

The engine wouldn't start.

The SIMPLE PAST IS USED:

To indicate repeated actions in the past, if adverbials of frequency and/or subordinate clauses indicating the occasions accompany the past tense:

When my grandmother went for a walk she always wore gloves and when it rained she carried an umbrella.

^ ^ ^

322

A Practical English Grammar

The SIMPLE PAST TENSE IS USED:

In conditional clauses with hypothetical meaning:

If I had enough money, I wouldn't have to work so hard.

In indirect speech, the verbs of the subordinate clause are made to refer to the past when the main

clause has a verb in the past:

"/ *am here.* " (present)^ *He told me he was here.*

"/ *will come.* " (past)^> *He told me he would come.*

To express past fictional or true events and future time:

In narratives, whether the events narrated are true historical events or the fictional events of a novel.

There has grown up a convention of using the past for narratives even when the events portrayed are supposed to take place in the **future**, as in science fiction:

In 2058 an interplanetary vehicle made a journey to the moon with ten specialists on board.

We are asked by this convention to look at future events as if from an even further point in the future.

To express present time:

In some contexts of everyday conversation, to refer to the present; reference is made, in fact, to the feelings or thoughts of the persons involved in the conversation.

"Did you look for me?", asked John.

"Yes, I hoped you would give me a hand to move the piano upstairs", answered Jimmy.

The present and the past are broadly interchangeable in this context, but there is quite an important difference of tone: the effect of the past tense is to make the request indirect and therefore more polite.

CONSTRUCTIONS USED TO REPLACE THE SIMPLE PAST

The constructions '**used to + verb**' or '**would + verb**' are used in English as a better alternative to the simple past to express **habit in the past**. The construction '**used to + verb**' is used **To indicate a discontinued habit:**

He used to play tennis in the afternoon, hut he's grown too old now for this.

To indicate a past routine, not necessarily discontinued:

Sometimes the hoys used to help one another, but mostly they worked by themselves.

323

The Verb

'Used to' in the example above may be replaced by 'would' which is more common:

Sometimes the boys would help one another, but...

'Used to' is not normally accompanied by an adverbial of definite past time, but has its own built-in adverbial 'once'. Nor is it accompanied by adverbials that name the actual duration of state or habit:

**He used to live here for twenty years.*

*^\$^^

6.3.5. THE PAST TENSE CONTINUOUS

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE:

The past tense continuous is formed according to the following pattern:

past of the verb 'to be' (I was, you were, he/she/it was, we/you/they were)

+ the short infinitive + -ing:

/ was working when he came.

NEGATIVE:

The negative form of the past tense continuous is formed according to the pattern: past of the verb 'to be'+ NOT+ the short infinitive + -ing: */ was not working when he came.*

INTERROGATIVE:

The interrogative form of the past tense continuous is formed according to the pattern: past of the verb 'to be'+ SUBJECT+ the short infinitive + -ing: *Were you working when he came?*

324

A Practical English Grammar

USAGE:

The PAST CONTINUOUS IS USED:

To express temporary action in progress at a certain point in the past, this moment must be stated.

The exact limits of the activity are not generally known: *This time last year they were sailing down the Nile.*

The **moment of reference** can be expressed by:

A point of time expressed by an adverbial phrase: *last night*, *'yesterday at five'*, etc.:

At midnight he was still working though he was longing to go to bed. **Another activity in the past tense:**

When he came home the fire was still burning. **Another continuous activity:**

While Mary was doing the shopping, her husband was mowing the lawn.

The moment of reference can be understood from the context but the speaker obviously has a definite time in mind:

He was wearing a dark blue jeans suit and carrying a large suitcase.

To imply gradual development, when used without a time expression: *// was getting darker.*

To describe very frequently repeated habitual actions in the past. This use is always accompanied by adverbials of frequency like: *'always'*, *'frequently'*, *'for ever'*, etc.:

The child was always asking disturbing questions.

To make polite inquiries:

I was wondering if you could give me a lift.

To allow specific interpretations as to the moment of action, in sentences with dates that can be either specific or non-specific:

He was playing football on Sunday.

Irene was playing tennis on April 16.

In both sentences reference is made to specific occasions: **Sunday** is the Sunday immediately previous to the moment of speech, and **April 16** makes reference to the sixteenth day of the month of April immediately preceding the moment of speech.

325

The Verb

The PAST CONTINUOUS IS USED:

To emphasize simultaneity with some other event, rather than to indicate duration: *John was leaving the building just as we were arriving.*

To make reference to future time:

Past continuous forms or **'was/were going to + infinitive'** with future reference are coloured by the notion of *intention*, and so do not guarantee that the event foreseen in the past actually did take place:

The beauty contest was taking place on the next day.

The beauty contest was going to take place on the next day. To both of these one could add *'this was the plan, but in fact it had been cancelled because of bad weather'*.

6.3.6. SIMPLE PAST vs. PAST CONTINUOUS

The use of the simple past or the past continuous in certain cases can determine a difference in interpreting the sentence.

When we have two clauses one representing an activity which is the moment of reference for the other then the following combinations of tenses can be used, each combination rendering a difference in meaning: **Simultaneity:**

1. In both clauses: past continuous (relatively rare usage, always introduced by **'while'**)

While Mary was cleaning the house, John was playing tennis.

The continuous forms are not obligatory, if the continuity of the action or actions is shown clearly enough from the sentence.

2. In the main clause: past simple

In the subordinate clause: past continuous (introduced by **while**)

While Mary was cleaning, John played tennis.

3. In both clauses: past simple (introduced by **'while'**)

While Mary cleaned the house, John played tennis.

4. In the main clause: past continuous In the subordinate clause: simple past

When we arrived the orchestra was playing the overture. **Sequence:**

In both clauses: simple past

When the bell rang, Peter left the classroom.

326

The simple past or the past continuous can be used

When the time limits of a continuous activity are stated

Yesterday from six o'clock to seven o'clock we listened/ were listening to an interesting play on the radio

I was hoping you could give me a hand. What did you want?" "I hoped you could give me a

In narrations: both tenses are used

The simple past is used at the beginning to set the time:

It was the year 1564.

The past progressive is used to set the scene-*He was living at that time in London.*

of the si

,ha, ,, ,, ,, unusual for the s

r

.....filfiff;.....*\$

IJlil.....

.....;-

327

The Verb

I.....11

s3"R

328

A Practical English Grammar

il 6.5.7.

FUTURE TENSE

There is no obvious future tense in English corresponding to the time-tense parallel for present and past. Instead there are a number of possibilities of denoting futurity. Futurity, modality and aspect are closely related, and future time is rendered by means of modal auxiliaries or semi-auxiliaries, or by simple or progressive present.

WAYS OF EXPRESSING FUTURE TIME:

The future time can be expressed with the help of the following constructions: the present simple the present continuous

6.3.7.1. 'shall/will' future

6.3.7.2. 'be going to' future

6.3.7.3. 'be going to' vs. present continuous

6.3.7.4. 'be going to' vs. 'shall/will' future

6.3.7.5. other ways of expressing future time: 'be to',
'be about to', 'be due to'

329

The Verb

6.3.7.1. THE 'SHALL/WILL' FUTURE

Although '**shall**' and particularly '**will**' are the closest approximation to a **colourless, neutral future**, they do not form a future tense comparable to the present or past tenses. They do **simply refer to future time**: *Look out, or you will be hit by that rock.*

Modal auxiliaries cannot combine with another auxiliary so neither with '**will**' or '**shall**' to denote future:

**He will may leave tomorrow.* But all modals may have future meaning and may be collocated with future time adverbials:

Anne may/might arrive tomorrow.

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE:

The shall/will future is formed in the affirmative according to the modal: **shall/will + short infinitive** (for all persons and numbers):

/ shall/will go tomorrow. **Shall/will** may be abbreviated in the affirmative: '**ll**':

I'll go tomorrow. NEGATIVE:

The pattern is as follows: **shall/will + NOT + short infinitive**:

/ shall/will not go tomorrow. **Shall/will** may be abbreviated in the negative:

will not => won't, shall not => shan't:

/ shan 't/won 't go tomorrow.

INTERROGATIVE:

The pattern is as follows: **shall/will + SUBJECT + short infinitive** *Shall/will we go?*

The use of '**shall**' with second- and third-person subjects is very restricted now. The implication of its use is that the speaker **is conferring a favour** or it suggests that the listener's will is entirely **subservient** to that of the speaker.

Constructions like '**you and I**', '**we two**', '**we three**', etc. always take **will** (even in B.E.)

330

A Practical English Grammar

ADVERBIALS with SHALL/WILL

A sentence with a shall/will-future is odd if the speaker does not have a definite time in mind: *// will rain.* Unless we mention when it will rain the sentence is odd because we all know that it will rain some time in the future. The sentence does not bring any information unless we add: *It will rain tomorrow.*

When used to refer simply to future time shall/will collocate only with **future time adverbials**: *It will rain tomorrow.*

Many adverbials, especially those indicating times or dates, may be used definitely or indefinitely with the '**shall/will**'-future: *He will play football on Sunday.*

A

Kp* Unlike the simple past, the future in this sentence does not force a definite interpretation. It can refer to **a specific Sunday** (the Sunday immediately following the moment of speech) or **any Sunday** (subsequent to this moment)

When used as modals, the concepts of volition and obligation indicated by '**shall**' or '**will**', accept the collocation of both **future and present time** adverbials: / *will see it now* or / *will see it tomorrow*. . One can distinguish between the two functions by creating an if-clause with the sentence. Positive support that '**will**' in *It will rain tomorrow*. refers simply to future time is offered by the fact that in this use it cannot occur after if in conditional clauses: **If it will rain tomorrow, we won't go on the trip*. but it is accepted when it is used as a modal: *If you will see it, you 'd better ask your father's permission*.

USAGE: THE 'SHALL/WILL' FUTURE IS USED: **With reference to events in the near future:** *Mary will be here soon*

With reference to events in a more distant future: *I'll never forget what he has done for me*.

331

'J

B
S
S

The Verb

THE 'SHALL/WILL' FUTURE IS USED:

To express unpremeditated intention, instant decision of the speaker or volunteering (main use):

"There's somebody at the door." "I'll go and open it."

"I'll bring the cakes for the party." **To express determination:**

I will pass the exam, no matter how hard I have to study. **To make predictions:**

Tomorrow's weather will be cold and cloudy. **For prophetic statements:**

In ten years' time, the central part of the city will be

completely changed. **In main clause of conditional sentences (real conditions):**

If John comes, we will go together to a movie. **In main clauses of temporal sentences:**

As soon as John comes, we will go to see a movie.

If a modal expression ('certainly', 'surely', 'probably', 'I know', 'I hope', 'I'm afraid', etc.) is present in the sentence that expresses a future activity:

Thomas will certainly come tomorrow.

I know that Thomas will come tomorrow. **On an imaginary time-scale in referring to a later part of a book or article:**

We shall examine the 'presentperfect' in Chapter Five.

'Will' and 'shall' can also be used as modal verbs rendering different meanings; that is why in many cases when they are used with regard to the future, they seem to express an attitude rather than neutrality (see 6.1.11., 6.1.12.)

H

332

A Practical English Grammar

Watch it! That pile of boxes is going to fall.

To express regrettable necessity of future action, mainly with **'to have to'**: *I'm going to have to report this to the principal.*

To insist, often because the listener is about to disapprove:

I'm going to wear that hat, even if you don't like it.

THE 'BE GOING TO' FUTURE IS NOT USED: To express neutral futurity:

I will be 25 years old in May.

In most future conditional sentences because the eventuality described in the main clause depends on future rather than present contingencies: *If you do it, you 'll never regret it.*

It can be used in conditional clauses if present circumstances are mentioned in the if-clause, i.e. if the condition is a present one: *We are going to find ourselves in difficulty if we carry on like this.*

In most future time clauses:

When spring comes, the swallows will return.

In future time clauses **'be going to'** can be used when we want to emphasize the subject's present intention: *I'm going to be a dentist when I grow up.*

In combination with the verbs 'to go' and 'to come' the present continuous is preferred:

I am going to her tomorrow.

336

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.7.3. THE 'BE GOING TO' FUTURE vs. THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS WITH FUTURE MEANING

The present continuous refers to agreement about the future:

I am going to the seaside tomorrow. (= I have made plans, but these plans might be altered.)

The 'be going to' future refers to intention about the future:

I am going to go to the seaside. (= I intend to go, but nothing has been yet arranged).

This difference is very slight. There is, however, a change of emphasis which is illustrated in this pair of sentences:

I'm taking Mary out for dinner this evening.

I'm going to take Mary out for dinner this evening.

An intention is part of one's present state of mind, while an arrangement is something already predetermined in the past, regardless of how the speaker feels now. Hence the former, but not the latter, could conceivably be uttered with some reluctance by someone who now regrets the arrangement:

I'm sorry, I'd like to have a game of billiards with you, but

I'm taking Mary out for dinner.

ADVERBIAL MODIFICATION:

Another aspect that makes the present progressive and the **going to** future similar is the optionality of time adverbials.

Without adverbial modification they may be given the **imminence** interpretation:

My brother is coming to stay with us.

I'm going to give a party. a

With adverbial modification the possibility remains of referring to a more remote future if it is regarded as determined in advance:

When I am sixty, I'm definitely going to retire.

337

The Verb

6.3.7.4. THE 'BE GOING TO' FUTURE vs. THE 'SHALL/WILL' FUTURE

With animate subjects:

'Going to' implies a **premeditated intention**:

I am going to open the door to let some air inside.

'Will/shall' implies an **unpremeditated intention**:

I will open the door, somebody is ringing.

Distributionally **'be going to'** and **'shall/will'** contrast, but the contrast is not based on a difference of meaning. Rather, there is a difference in presupposition first:

The **'be going to'-future** is a near future, generally but there are cases when it refers to a distant future

and then the effects of the present conditions linger long into the future:

/ am so tired, I'm going to take a holiday.

The '**shall/will**'- future is a more distant future, but sometimes '**shall/will**' may refer to a future event close to the present, as in:

Now Tom Jones will sing his world-famous 'Delilah'.

It is difficult to evaluate the claim that **be going to** is definite. Cases such as: *All things are going to pass.*

might be labelled **definite** when compared with: *All things will pass.*

338

A Practical English Grammar

III

mii

.....i

|iii;;S

339

The Verb

KiiiiiiiFiM

^

340

A Practical English Grammar

:Iil!:-i;E^

.....illil:~--«:H::Iil:i:iiiiill

d. 5.7.5. OTHER WA YS OF EXPRESSING FUTURE TIME

THE 'BE TO' FUTURE

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: present **simple 'to be' + to + verb**

The EC representatives are to meet in Geneva. **NEGATIVE, present simple 'to be' +NOT+ to + verb**

INTERROGATIVE: present simple 'to be' +SUBJECT+ to + verb

USAGE:

THE 'BE TO' FUTURE IS USED:

For formal arrangements/duties:

The teachers are to have a meeting next week.

You are to be back by 10 o'clock. **For formal appointments or instructions:**

Three tablets are to be taken twice a day. **To prohibit:** *You are not to whisper a word about the party.*

341

The Verb

THE 'BE ABOUT TO' FUTURE

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: present **'to be' + about + to + verb:**

He is about to leave.

NEGATIVE: present 'to be' +NOT+ about + to + verb **INTERROGATIVE: present 'to be' +SUBJECT + about + to + verb**

USAGE:

THE 'BE ABOUT TO' FUTURE IS USED:

To refer to the immediate future:

Look! The show is about to begin.

THE 'BE DUE TO' FUTURE

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: present 'to be' + due + to + verb *He is due to arrive any minute now.* **NEGATIVE:** present 'to be' + NOT + due + to + verb **INTERROGATIVE:** present 'to be' + SUBJECT + due + to + verb

USAGE:

THE 'BE DUE TO' FUTURE IS USED:

To refer to timetables:

The plane is due to land at 2.15.

6.3.8. THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: shall/will' + 'be'+ verb + '-ing':

/ will be seeing John tomorrow. **NEGATIVE:** 'shall/will' + NOT + 'be'+ verb + '-ing':

/ will not be seeing him tomorrow. **INTERROGATIVE:** 'shall/will' + SUBJECT+ 'be'+ verb + '-ing':

ADVERBIAL MODIFICATION:

The future continuous can be used with or without a definite time adverbial, for the near or distant future:

I'll be meeting him tomorrow, (distant future)

I'll be meeting him. (near future)

342

A Practical English Grammar

USAGE:

THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS IS USED:

To express a future without intention, an action which will happen in the natural course of events:

/ will be turning 25 in November.

In *The train will be arriving at eight o'clock* the meaning of the verbal construction is difficult to characterize. It can be roughly called **future-as-a-matter-of-course**, as it indicates that the predicted event will happen independently of the intention of anyone concerned.

To show that an activity is in development at a certain future moment. The moment of reference can be expressed either by: **An adverbial of definite future time:**

Tomorrow at five I will be flying to London. **Another activity:**

When you come back home, I'll be watching T. V.

To show that an action will last continuously from the moment of speaking until a specified moment in the future:

/ shall be using the computer until supper-time.

liili!

343

The Verb

6.3.9. FUTURE vs. FUTURE CONTINUOUS

FUTURE CONTINUOUS vs. PRESENT CONTINUOUS WITH FUTURE MEANING

The present continuous when used implies arrangement.

I'm seeing Tom tomorrow.

The future continuous implies an action which occurs in *the normal course of events*. It is therefore less definite and more casual than the present continuous: *I'll be seeing Tom tomorrow.*

The use of the present continuous implies that Tom or the speaker has deliberately arranged the meeting, whereas the future continuous implies that Tom and the speaker will meet in the ordinary course of events.

THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS vs. THE 'SHALL/WILL' FUTURE

It is possible to find sentences which differ little in meaning from their non-progressive counterparts:
The sun will set in a minute.

The sun will be setting in a minute.

In neither sentence is there any question of personal involvement so the **matter-of-courseness** which makes a significant contrast in the case of activity verbs, has little distinctive value here. The *matter-of-course* connotation refers to events neither too far in the future nor too close at hand.

As compared with the **shall/will** future, that due to the modal nature of the verbs may take some nuance from the modal use of these verbs, the future continuous does not imply intention, invitation, polite request, or command. It is the form more likely to be described as *colourless future*:

I will come home on foot because I need some exercise.

(a deliberate action)

I'll be coming home by bus as my car is being repaired.

(a mere statement of fact)

The future progressive has become quite common in everyday speech being often a more polite or tactful alternative to the non-progressive form: *When will you bring the coffee?* (boss to secretary)

When will you be leaving for the meeting? (secretary to boss)

344

A Practical English Grammar

.....llllllllllllllllll

5.5.7ft FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST

The past forms of the constructions '**be going to**' (was /were going to), '**be about to**' (was/were about to), '**be due to**' (was/were due to) and '**be to**' (was/were to) are used to refer to events which were destined or planned to take place in the past. These are used:

With events that could not be foreseen:

They didn't know they were to be reunited ten years later.

He was later to regret his decision. **With events which were interrupted:**

We were just going to leave when the telephone rang. **With plans which were not yet carried out, but not necessarily abandoned:** " *Would you like to go to a movie?*" " *I was going to work,*

but..." **To insist on a plan already formed:**

I was going to water the plants, so let me finish.

345

The Verb

'**Would**' + **short infinitive** is also used to anticipate actions especially in story telling:

They had already reached 9,000 feet. Soon they would reach the top.

6.3.11. THE PRESENT PERFECT

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: **present simple of the verb 'to have'** (I have, you have, he/she/it has, we have, you have, they have) + **past participle (III form of the verb):**

I have known him for a long time.

NEGATIVE: **present simple of the verb 'to have'+ NOT + past participle (III form of the verb)**

INTERROGATIVE: **present simple of the verb 'to have'+SUBJECT + past participle (III form of the verb)**

USAGE:

THE PRESENT PERFECT IS USED:

To refer to past with present relevance or past involving the present.

There are two distinct ways in which a past event may be related to the present by means of the present perfect:

It may involve a time period lasting up to the present (duration-up-to-the-present), in combination with a definite or indefinite time adverbial modified by a resultative preposition

('for'/'since'): / *have studied English for two years. I have known him since he was a little boy.*

Durative adverbials preceded by **'for'** mark the **duration of the period**, whereas definite adverbials marked by **'since'** indicate the **beginning of the period**. In either case the period is still unfinished at the present moment.

It may have results persisting at the present time (resultative use), without any adverbial modification:

The taxi has arrived. (= the taxi is here)

He has done his homework. (= his homework is done)

346

A Practical English Grammar

ADVERBIAL MODIFICATION

According to its potentiality to combine with time and frequency adverbials we may distinguish three different senses of the present perfect.

THE PRESENT PERFECT IS USED:

To refer to indefinite past, in combination with adverbials of frequency (**'often', 'sometimes', 'rarely', etc.**) or adverbials that indicate unfinished periods of time (**'today', 'this week', 'this month', 'this year'**): *He has always played tennis.*

To refer to the future

In subordinate clauses of time to express an activity finished before a future moment of reference (expressed by another activity):

We'll go to have lunch as soon as we have visited the museum.

He'll come before I've written this letter.

KF° DURATION-UP-TO-THE-PRESENT

With stative verbs, present involvement means that the state extends over a period lasting up to the present:

I've lived in Chicago since 1992.

The period mentioned extends up to the present moment, but since *stative* verbs are of undefined time-span, the state itself may extend into the future:

We've lived here all our lives, and mean to live here for many years to come.

The *stative* use of the present perfect is almost compulsorily accompanied by adverbials that indicate duration; the absence of an adverbial usually indicates an event in the indefinite past.

There are exceptions, however, where a period leading up to the present, although not actually mentioned, is implied by the context or the meaning of the clause: *He's lived a good life.*

With event verbs there is an idea of repetition of completed events: *Anne has played that part since the first show.*

Often the habit element is emphasized by an adverbial of frequency:

We've got up at seven every day since school began.

347

The Verb

RESULTATIVE USE:

This meaning is clearest **with transitional event verbs** denoting the switch 'from one state to another. The final (and present state) implied by the present perfect is indicated in brackets:

The train has left (= the train is not here now).

I've got a bicycle for my birthday (= I now have a bicycle). In other examples the resultative inference is still there, even if it is not quite so obvious from the verb's meaning:

He's broken his leg (= He is still wearing a cast).

He's cut his chin with the razor (= the cut is still visible). 348

£,

The use of the verbs 'be' and 'go' with the present perfect raises some problems of meaning:

He has gone to London (resultative = he is in London now);

He has been to London (indefinite past = he paid a visit to London, but he has since returned).

INDEFINITE PAST

With *ever* verbs the present perfect may refer to some indefinite happening in the past:

This is one of the best plays **that I have ever seen**.

Percy has **often met** Marianne at the theatre.

Two things are meant by **indefiniteness**:

The number of occurrence is not specified - it may be one or more than one:

He has been **to America**. **The time of the occurrence is also left unspecified**:

I've been to London seven times. Therefore, the meaning of the present perfect in such statements is **at least one occurrence before the moment of speaking**.

349

The Verb

ADVERBIAL MODIFICATION

Often the indefinite meaning is reinforced adverbially, especially by 'ever', 'never', or 'before (now)'.

The indefinite past meaning can be used with adverbials that indicate: **Unfinished periods of time**:

'today', 'this week', 'this month', 'this year', 'this season':

I've had my holidays this year.

The adverbs **'this morning', 'this afternoon', 'this evening'**

can be used with the present perfect only when they indicate unfinished periods of time. So the correct usage depends on the time when the statement is made:

I've met Mrs. Brown this morning (= it is still morning);

Periods of time up to the moment of speaking: 'up to now', 'up to the present', 'so far', 'lately', etc):

I haven't met Don lately.

Recent time: 'just', 'already', 'recently', and yet: *They have just left.*

6.3.12. PRESENT PERFECT vs. PAST SIMPLE

The present perfect is used to refer to an action leading up to the present moment, even though the period may not be overtly expressed:

John has been punished many times (= up to now).

Have you seen the Van Gogh exhibition? (= the exhibition is still on).

Have you heard John sing? (= at any time)

The past tense refers to an action that has finished in the past:

Did you see the Van Gogh exhibition? (= it is over) **Did you hear John sing?** (= on a certain occasion)

A difference occurs in the use of the adverbs: **'this morning', 'this afternoon', 'this evening'**:

I've read a book this morning. (= it is still morning) / ***read a book this morning.*** (= it may be afternoon now)

350

6.3.13. PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: present continuous of 'to have' + verb+ '-ing':

I have been reading since 5 o'clock in the morning.

NEGATIVE: negative present continuous of 'to have' + verb+ '-ing': *No, I have not been reading all this time.*

INTERROGATIVE: interrogative present continuous of 'to have' + verb+ 'ing'

Have you been reading all this time? answer 'yes' or 'no' *Haven't you been reading?* expected answer 'yes'

USAGE:

THE PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS IS USED:

To emphasises the continuation of a temporary activity leading up to the present:

I've been watching T. V. for more than two hours now. It appears as one continuous, uninterrupted action:

The boys have been studying since four o'clock (= they are still studying now and will probably go on studying for some time).

Peter has been making progress recently (= a continuous period of improvement).

With verbs which imply duration such as 'sit', 'lie', 'wait', 'stay', 'stand', 'study', 'learn', 'live', and 'rest':

I've been waiting here all afternoon. is more idiomatic than:

I've waited here all afternoon.

There exists a similar tendency to use the present perfect progressive with very long periods of time:

The inscription has been lying here for thousands of years. is more likely to be heard than:

The inscription has lain here for thousands of years.

With event verbs whose meaning implies eventual fulfilment of the activity or process, the **incompleteness** feature in the meaning of the present perfect progressive contrasts with the common present perfect, which indicates that the completion has already been achieved:

Who's been drinking my beer? (= some of it is left) 352

A Practical English Grammar

I

THE PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS IS USED: **To express that the result of the activity is still apparent:**

You've been drinking again (— I can tell that from the way you are staggering).

This use is loaded with emotional colouring expressing irritation or displeasure: *I suppose you've been telling tales again.*

To make reference to an activity that has recently stopped. In this case as in general with the perfect progressive, it is not absolutely necessary for the activity to continue right up to the present moment. **Nearness** can be emphasized by the adverb '**just**':

I've just been writing a paper on Shakespeare.

You've just been listening to Beethoven's violin concerto

(the announcer on the radio).

The perfect progressive is almost never found with the passive voice: *Volunteers have been running the organisation could scarcely be turned into the passive form:*

The organisation has been being run by volunteers.

6.3.14. PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS vs. PRESENT PERFECT

With verbs that imply duration:

The present perfect continuous is used:

/ have been sitting here for over an hour.
not */ have sat here for over an hour.*

The present perfect can be used in free variation with the present perfect continuous in some cases:
Mary has been living in London for several years.
Mary has lived in London for several years. These two sentences are equally correct, describing the same reality.

With event verbs:

The present perfect continuous is used **to imply incompleteness:**

Who's been listening in on my phone-call? (= the call is not

over) **The present perfect** is used **to imply completeness:**

Who has listened in on my phone call? (= the call is over)

353

The Verb

When expressing a time-scale:

The present perfect continuous is used **to imply a temporary situation:**

Mary has been working at that school since her graduation.

This example describes a situation which the speaker regards as temporary (probably she works as an instructor) and, therefore, suggests that Mary has not graduated long before. **The present perfect** is used **to imply a permanent situation:**

Mary has worked at that school since her graduation.

With verbs which usually refer to momentary events: **The present perfect** is normally used:

He has woken up. **The present perfect continuous** can be used in certain situations:

He has been starting his car.

but not **He has been starting his book.* The first sentence is acceptable, even though it reflects upon the reliability of the car. The only way to make sense of the second sentence is to interpret it as an ironical remark considering that 'he has been trying /pretending to start his book'.

When reference is made to an action that is repeated:

The present perfect is used **if the number of times the activity was repeated is mentioned:**

I've read six of your sketches since lunchtime.

not **I've been reading six of your sketches since lunchtime.* **The present perfect continuous** is used **if the number of times the activity was repeated is not mentioned:**

I've been reading sketches since lunchtime.

iiiiPiHS^

iiIII.....IIPISSlilliSIffi

I

354

11-ii/I

Iff I.....B.....ifiif.....g.....|.....

IT*.....iii.....a.....QI

mmmmm

■ ■ y:;0..... ■ y:-A:;ss:TM. ; ■ 'ziimm 0--wxi.-*mm:» Sjiss-, Wti-i->y-W'■'■'■.....:;\$;

.,,; :illttt.....slfSlfli.....î"!r.J;.....ŞtliPlilălîi

Ijii.....aii.....2^^^ ^^ ^^ ^^ S

li^HiilllilliiBilliii

The Verb

6.5.75. PAST PERFECT

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: past of the verb 'have' (had) + past participle

/ left after the film had finished. **NEGATIVE:** had' + NOT + past participle **INTERROGATIVE:**

had' + SUBJECT + past participle

USAGE:

♦ **THE PAST PERFECT IS USED:** To refer to 'past-in-the-past'.

For an action which began before the moment of reference in the past and continued up to that point or stopped just before it: *When I met her, she was twenty. She had been in a boarding school for ten years and couldn't imagine any other kind of life.*

For an action/state begun before a given past moment and still going on at that past moment or coming very close to that moment:

I had been at home for about two hours when you rang me up.

She turned and saw that her sister, who had watched the scene curiously, had gone out.

The past perfect demands an already established past point of reference. That is why it is difficult to begin a conversation with the past perfect. The moment of reference can be expressed by:

Adverbials of definite past time: 'yesterday by four o'clock', 'by the end of last week', etc.:

Yesterday at five o'clock he had already finished all his assignments. Another past action:

When I got to the theatre the play had already begun.

In narratives where the usual tense is the simple past tense to indicate events which took place before the time indicated by the simple past tense:

When they drove into the village, all the streets were empty and they didn't know how to get to the hotel Morris had told them about.

356

A

A Practical English Grammar

THE PAST PERFECT IS USED:

In reported speech where it replaces both the simple past and the present perfect simple when the introductory verb is in the past:

He said that he had left everything in its usual place on Friday.

He said that he had never seen such an enthusiastic audience before.

The past perfect does not replace the past tense in reported speech in **time clauses**:

"When I was in Paris I often went to the Opera", said John.

becomes in indirect speech:

John told us that when he was in Paris he had often gone to the Opera.

****&** The past tense **went** can also remain unchanged as the time of the activity is clear from the context:

John told us that when he was in Paris he often went to the Opera.

Nor is the past tense changed when it describes a state of affairs true both at the moment of the original speech and at the moment of report:

"I wanted to buy a house, but I decided against it because it was opposite a cemetery", said Mary
becomes

Mary said that she had wanted to buy a house but (had) decided against it because it was opposite a cemetery.

THE PAST PERFECT IS USED:

In adverbial clauses of time instead of the future-perfect-in-the-past:

Her son told her that he would write as soon as he had got home.

357

The Verb

6.3.16. PAST PERFECT vs. PAST SIMPLE

After the conjunctions 'after' and 'before' quite often the past perfect is replaced by simple past as the meaning of the conjunction indicates anteriority and the use of the past perfect is redundant:

After he (had) left the house he remembered that he hadn't locked the door.

That (had) happened before I met you.

When it is necessary to emphasize that the first action was completely finished before the second one started, the past perfect must be used in the time clause:

As soon as all his guests had arrived, he invited them to see his garden.

With 'when' simple past forms can be used in both clauses if it is obvious that one past action follows another:

When the football match ended the spectators went home. When two simple past tense forms might give the impression that the two actions are simultaneous, the past perfect is used to express anteriority with 'when': When he had read his paper, he sat down.

If 'after' is used, the simple past is accepted:

After he read his paper...

■ ill

i. Ta :

iiili

lip!

liiii 11111

•

■

li

W

MMS

H

I

f

oi

j||S|IIIIÎ|
iSIIÎ|i

358

A Practical English Grammar

Verbs of *knowing*, *understanding*, etc. are not normally used in the past perfect tense in time clauses:

When I knew everybody very well, I was asked to

deal with the personnel matters. The past perfect is used if it is modified by a time expression:

When she had known me for some time, she invited me to tea.

6.3.17. PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: 'had' + 'been'+ verb + '-ing'

He could understand what the man was saying because he

had been studying English at school. NEGATIVE: **had' + NOT + 'been'+ verb + '-ing'**

INTERROGATIVE: **had' +SUBJECT+ 'been'+ verb + '-ing'**

USAGE:

The past perfect progressive bears the same relation to the past perfect that the present perfect continuous bears to the present perfect.

THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS IS USED:

To indicate an action begun before a given moment in the past and continued uninterruptedly into that past moment or close up to that moment:

We had been walking for two hours when we saw a lake in the distance.

The period of time (marked by 'for' or 'since') must be mentioned with the past perfect progressive:

When I met him, he had been waiting for Mary for two hours.

In reported speech, after an introductory verb in the past, the past perfect continuous replaces both the past continuous and the present perfect continuous: *Tom told me Mary had been talking for two hours and it was little hope she would soon stop talking.*

To refer to a repeated action in the past, anterior to a past moment, indicating that the repetition had occurred within 'one' limited period of time: *He had been trying to get her on the phone.*

359

The Verb

6.3.18. PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS vs. PAST PERFECT

The simple past perfect indicates a single action:

He had looked through the keyhole and seen that there

was nobody in the room. The continuous past perfect indicates repeated actions:

When I got home, I found my wife in front of the door. She

had been trying to open it for half an hour, but without

any success. The simple past perfect indicates that an action was completed:

When I got home I found that Jill had painted the room. The past perfect continuous indicates that an action is incomplete:

When I got home I found that Jill had been painting her

room, (it doesn't necessarily mean that she was painting it at that moment, but that she had not finished)

The simple past perfect is used with verbs that don't normally take a continuous form. (see aspect):

I had owned this car five years, before I sold it.

'Want' and sometimes 'wish' can be used in the past perfect continuous.:

The little girl was delighted with her puppet; she had been wanting one for a long time.

360

19E

jsBd +3ABq+iON + d

•U/VX3 Biff p3SSnd 3\VI(JJIM I MOJJOtUOf Xtf

3ALLV03N

IJ3JV3JamifU 3HI '61 S 9 H

fliPffS

qsijgug

The Verb

USAGE:

THE FUTURE PERFECT IS USED:

To denote a future action finished before a future moment of reference: *In two years' time I shall have taken my degree.*

The moment of reference is expressed by:

An adverbial of future definite time preceded by 'by' ('by this time next week', 'by five o'clock this afternoon', 'by next year'):

By this time next year, I'll have graduated. **A time clause introduced by 'when', 'before' or 'by the time':**

By the time they come back, I'll have bought that house.

Before you go to see them, they'll have left the country.

When my brother comes home, I'll have gone to bed.

Because of the restriction on the occurrence of 'shall/will' in Subordinate temporal and conditional clauses, the meaning of the future perfect is there expressed by the **present perfect tense**:

When I have finished the book, I'll lend it to you. If the time clause is introduced by 'after', the present perfect may be replaced by **the simple present**.

After I finish the book, I'll lend it to you.

6.3.20. FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: 'will/shall' + have+ been + verb + -ing

By tomorrow I will have been studying for 10 hours. **NEGATIVE:** 'will/shall' + NOT+ have+ been + verb + -ing **INTERROGATIVE:** 'will/shall' +SUBJECT+ have+ been + verb + -ing

USAGE:

THE FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS IS USED:

To express a future activity that goes on uninterruptedly into a future moment of reference. This moment of reference can be expressed in a way similar to that of the simple future perfect:

By five o'clock this afternoon, I'll have been reading for two hours. 362

A Practical English Grammar

As it is always the case with continuous perfect forms, the period of time must be mentioned:

When we get to the stadium the two teams will have been playing for twenty minutes.

^^.....ilililil^~^j

E

<^3.27. EMPHATIC TENSES

An emphasis can be applied to all tenses by stressing the auxiliary:

/ 'have gone there. When there are more auxiliaries the stress is placed on either, or both.

/ 'have 'been eating.

Emphasis may be laid on the verb with the help of 'do' (stressed) used as an auxiliary. / 'do intend to go.

Both the past and the present can have an emphatic form.

363

The Verb

FORMATION:

AFFIRMATIVE: present/past simple of 'do' + short infinitive:

/ do/did walk to school (as if somebody were doubting it) **NEGATIVE: present/past simple of 'do' +**

NOT+short infinitive INTERROGATIVE: present/past simple of 'do' +SUBJECT + short infinitive

USAGE:

The emphatic forms are used to convey stress to past or present events. **THE PRESENT/PAST EMPHATIC IS USED:**

To express reassurance or reconfirmation, that action actually occurs/occurred or of the general truth of a statement:

/ do/did turn off the lights.

Some people do go bald early. To express contradiction:

You do/did break the speed limit.

Three and three do make six. (and not seven as you claim) **To express enthusiastic reinforcement:**

/ do/did like your hat. **With verbs of hoping, wishing**

/ do hope I can come.

I did hope we could come, (but now I know we can't)

6.3.22.THE PASSIVE VOICE

The following aspects will be taken into discussion:

6.3.22.1. formation

6.3.22.2. transformation from the active to the passive

6.3.22.1. FORMATION:

The passive voice is formed:

By using the appropriate tense of the verb 'be' + past participle of the given verb (the third form):

An interesting question was raised.

An interesting question must have been raised for the meeting to have taken so long.

364

A Practical English Grammar

Here are the **tense** forms: **Present: Past: 'Used to'-past:**

John invites him. ^>He is invited.

John invited him. =>He was invited.

John used to invite him. =>He used to be invited.

John will invite him. =>He will be invited.

John is going to invite him. =>He is going to be invited.

John was going to invite him. =>He was going to be invited.

He is interviewing her. ^She is being interviewed.

He was interviewing her. =>She was being interviewed.

John has invited him. =>He has been

invited.

John had invited him. =>He had been

invited.

John will have invited him. =>He will have

been invited. Here are the basic **modal** forms:

Present: *John must invite him. => He must be invited..*

Past: *John may be invited. =>He may have been invited.*

Here are the **infinitive** forms:

Present: *He is to write. =>It is to be written*

Past: *He was to write. =>It was to have been written.*

Future:

Future-in-the-past. Present continuous: Past continuous: Present perfect: Past perfect: Future perfect:

The perfect continuous tenses are not, normally, used in the passive; they are replaced by the corresponding tenses of the common aspect. Otherwise the continuous forms are used: *New houses are being built in this district.*

The passive is formed:

By using the passive auxiliary 'get', in colloquial speech:

Her dress got torn to pieces.

How many people got killed.

365

The Verb

In formal English **get + past participle** is restricted to constructions without an expressed animate agent:

You 'll get hanged some day.

The fox got caught in the end.

'Get' is used in sentences that look superficially like the passive but cannot have an agent, having a connotation of something self-inflicted:

I have to get dressed.

I don't want to get mixed up in their affairs.

You 'll get hurt.

*!■ ISIIS-1'■' :": "SIII!f^"" : ::!lllllll:: iJllllf-il' 1 sill?W- ■:'. /.

I;:':^:SA

^

CONFUSION BETWEEN PASSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS AND OTHER TYPE OF CONSTRUCTIONS

The combination '**be + past participle**' can be: A passive **construction**. It is definitely so

When an adverbial modifier characterizes the action:

This dictionary is always used by Peter. **When the verb is in the continuous aspect:**

This dictionary is being used by Peter.

366

A Practical English Grammar

A compound nominal predicate.

She is used to getting up early, because she has been doing so for years.

This combination shows the state in which the subject is, so the structure is a compound nominal predicate.

6.3.22.2. TRANSFORMATION FROM THE ACTIVE VOICE TO THE PASSIVE

Voice is a grammatical category that makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two ways without changing the facts reported: *The butler murdered the detective*, (active voice) *The detective was murdered by the butler*, (passive voice)

Practically all verbs which can be used **transitively** can be constructed in the passive, even verbs whose transitive use belongs to the peripheral area of the verb:

Verbs of incomplete predication such as 'seem', 'be', 'suit', 'resemble', 'last', 'have', and **others** cannot be used in the passive: *He lacks confidence. The auditorium holds 5000 people. This dress becomes her.*

He has a house.

If the objects of a statement like this is to become the subject, some other construction than the passive must be resorted to: *A hundred copies are in stock.*

K ^{Λ°} With perfective association	h is u i the
passive:	ave sometimes sed n
<i>There was nothing</i>	<i>to had.</i>
	<i>be</i>

The Verb

In the case of sentences having **a verb that requires one object**, in the transformation from the active into the passive the subject (agent) can be omitted or it is transformed into a prepositional phrase with 'by', the focus of **attention falling on the object** (the patient) that becomes subject in the passive sentence: / ***am** washing Mary.*

When we need to say who or what is responsible for an event, when we feel the need to give information:

With verbs like 'build', 'compose', 'damage', 'deign', 'destroy':

The passive is not simply an equivalent alternative to the active, able to replace it without any change of meaning. However, some ideas may be expressed naturally in both the active and passive form, the choice depending on which noun we want to make **the centre of interest** or on stylistic factors:

England was beaten by France in yesterday's rugby international.

When the agent is not specified, the conception of this logical subject is sometimes so vague that the content of the passive form approaches that of a corresponding **intransitive verb form**:

The door opened. Compare also such sentences:

Goods of that quality will never sell.

It felt cold.

A Practical English Grammar

The door won't lock.

She didn't photograph well.

!:|||ifi||:;s;^

In English, some verbs such as 'give', 'tell', 'show', 'lend', 'get', 'write', 'pay', 'sell', 'buy', 'bring',

'make', 'fetch', 'promise', 'teach', etc.

may take two objects, **an indirect object** (standing for a person) and a **direct object** (standing for a thing). Either object may become the subject of the corresponding passive sentence, though usually the indirect object becomes the subject of the passive.

When the direct object acts as the subject of the passive sentence we are more **interested in 'what is done'** than **'to whom it is done'** and the indirect object is more often found with 'to' than without it:

Justice must not be denied to anyone.

My first toy was offered to me at the age of three.

The passive with the indirect object as subject is particularly common when the direct object is in the indefinite form and thus not linked with the preceding statement:

They were given ample warning. However, cases where the direct object is in the definite form also frequently display the same construction, particularly if the direct object is long:

He looked as if he had been given the key of Paradise.

369

The Verb



§11111 jl;;p*^^



lllll: t lll:ll:l?'l':l; ff:J& lC: W^^%-hS/^Wt: ^W^S^S:

TRANSFORMATIONS from ACTIVE to PASSIVE for PREPOSITIONAL VERBS:

Combinations of **verb + preposition** affects the complement of the preposition; thus, while it is possible to have a passive construction such as:

It was obvious that the bed had been slept in an expression such as:

He has travelled in the East cannot be converted into a passive construction.

Similarly, combinations of **verb + object + preposition**, functioning as a transitively used verb, commonly occur in the passive construction with the complement of the preposition as subject:

He was taken no notice of.

The house was set fire to.

But if the combination has not merged into a whole, passive expressions have the object of the verb as the patient. Compare:

The situation was paid attention to.

I wonder why such attentions are paid to this lady.

The following verbs accept a passive construction only when they are used with a figurative meaning:

'go into', 'arrive at', 'look into':

The problem was carefully gone/looked into by the farmers.

This conclusion was arrived at after long talks.

310

A Practical English Grammar

Other prepositional verbs will accept a passive construction only in special cases. Here are some examples.

Other possibilities are talked of.

His approach on the subject is to be thought of as very bold.

A lot of things will have to be dealt with before we leave.

iy flits

TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES OF THE TYPE 'THEY SAY...'

The sentences of the type '**subject + verb of saying (thinking, feeling) + noun clause object**':

They say he is an honest, hard-working man. have three possible passive counterparts: The sentence is introduced by the impersonal 'it' + passive + **that** -clause:

It is said (that) he is an honest, hard-working man. The sentence is introduced by 'there' + passive + **to be**:

There is said to be plenty of room at that motel

The subject of the noun clause becomes the subject of the whole passive sentence and the verb takes the infinitive verb:

He is said to be an honest, hard-working man.

371

The Verb

An infinitive after a passive verb is normally a fo-infinitive:

*We saw **him** come.*

becomes *He was seen to come.*

The infinitive construction, being neater, is often preferred to the impersonal one.

When the verb '**suppose**' is used, there is a slight difference in meaning between the two constructions.

Suppose + present infinitive conveys a sense of duty: *He is supposed to finish his work in time* (= it is his duty to finish his work in time).

Suppose + that-clause alters the meaning:

It is supposed that he finishes his work in time (= people believe that he finishes his work in time).

W

ifc

-

372

A Practical English Grammar

TRANSFORMATION with a TOTAL CHANGE in MEANING:

In some other cases the corresponding active and passive forms of a sentence do not carry the same meaning:

There is nothing to see here (= there is nothing worth seeing here)

There is nothing to be seen here (= nothing is seen here)

Your statement interests me (= the statement has already been given)

I am interested in your statement (= the statement is being sought)

He can't teach John (= he is unable to teach John)

John can't be taught (= he is unable to learn)

SENTENCES THAT CAN'T HAVE AN ACTIVE COUNTERPART

Many passive voice sentences do not have an active voice counterpart: *Shakespeare was born at Stratford. This notion is based on a misconception. It is alleged that the thief entered the house through the window. He was reputed to be a good teacher.*

'Repute' can be used in the active with 'be' and '**have**': *They reputed him to have the means to do it. They reputed him to be the one who did it.*

SENTENCES THAT CAN'T HAVE A PASSIVE COUNTERPART

The following sentence-types can't be passivized. These are sentences where the object is:

A reflexive pronoun:

John has been washing himself for hours.

A reciprocal pronoun:

We could hardly see each other in the dark room.

A possessive pronoun:

The teacher shook his head and sighed.

373

The Verb

SENTENCES THAT PREFER THE PASSIVE CONSTRUCTION

Listed below are some of the most important situations in which the passive form is the natural mode of expression:

When the active subject is an indefinite or vague pronoun or noun, or is clear from the context:

This house was built three hundred years ago. The door has been left open.

It is assumed that the committee will do something about , it.

When we wish to make a statement sound impersonal for some social reasons (tact, delicacy of feeling, embarrassment, etc):

It has been decided that your salary shall be reduced.

You have been told so many times not to touch these things.

In formal, usually written statements, containing requests, directions, instructions or prohibitions for greater effect:

Students are forbidden to smoke in the classroom.

This room must be tidied up.

Boys are required to come to school in proper uniform. When the accent falls on the object rather than the subject of the action:

The escaped convict was arrested two days later.

374

A Practical English Grammar

O111 fit■?■ tilt.:.;./'-.lilBll?:■ ■ ;:'...ll""'illl!.itP!'i■... ililililil

k

liiiiE^

Plllllllllll

....."lisirfilll.....til

SENTENCES THAT USE EITHER THE ACTIVE OR THE PASSIVE WITH A PASSIVE MEANING

There is vacillation between the active and passive form for passive content in some phrases:

There is only one thing to do/to be done;

There is nothing to fear/to be feared;

There is a lot to do yet/to be done yet.

There is often a **slight difference in content** between these two possibilities: The active form implies **duty, necessity**, and the like:

The corrections show how much remains to do. The passive form implies **possibility as in:**

There is nothing to be done about it.

The active form of the infinitive and active content, passive form and passive content, generally go together in modern English:

/ like to teach and / like to be taught.

375

The Verb

After the verbs '**be**', '**leave**' and '**remain**' we find a number of cases of the active form of the infinitive

with passive content. In many cases one form is now idiomatic, either the active or the passive form being used for the passive content: *The key was nowhere to be found;*

The causes were not far to seek;

You are to blame (= the fault lies with you).

By slight alterations in the last mentioned phrase, the passive form can be made to express almost the same content:

You are to be blamed for your negligence.

ggnsa

1111113; JIII!!!^III^^

376

A Practical English Grammar

lillif lllffi

;f|;!

d.J.25. THE CAUSATIVE

FORMATION: the required tense of the verb 'to have' + OBJECT+ past participle: *I'm having the heating repaired.*

'Get' may be used instead of 'have' to express urgency about a matter:

I'm getting the heating repaired.

311

The Verb

USAGE:

THE CAUSATIVE IS USED:

To stress the fact that we are 'causing' someone to do a job for us:

/ had a house built. (I arranged for it to be done.)

With verbs that have to do with services: 'build', 'clean', 'decorate', 'develop (a film)', 'mend', 'photocopy', 'print', 'repair':

/ am having my watch repaired.

THE CAUSATIVE vs. THE ACTIVE and THE PASSIVE

The active form is used to describe actions we do ourselves or when we know who is doing the action:

I'm decorating the room. (= I am doing it myself)

The passive form is used to indicate that an action is done for us, but the focus is on the logical object:

The room is being decorated.

(= someone else is doing the job but that person is of no

interest to the communication, what interest us is the 'room'.) The causative form is used to indicate that we are causing someone else to do an action for us:

/ am having the room decorated.

(= I requested this, but someone else is doing it.)

liil3!!!S!E:li!l3:lllll^3?:v

llllllltllS

""li3i33lBSlll3>!3-31111311

378

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.24. THE SUBJUNCTIVE

1

FORM:

There are three forms of subjunctive:

Present 1 Subjunctive

Present 2 Subjunctive

Past Subjunctive. There is also a form that may replace the subjunctive: **should +short infinitive**

tW The FORM of the PRESENT 1 SUBJUNCTIVE

The present 1 subjunctive of all verbs other than the verb 'be' is **identical with the simple present tense indicative**, except that the third person singular form is the same as in all the other persons (i.e. without the ending -s) The present subjunctive of the verb 'to be' is 'be' for all persons. **In fact, it can be said that the present (1) subjunctive is always identical in form with the short infinitive of the verb:**

Suppose I be late, what then?

Suppose he come late, what then? (not frequent)

K^ The FORM of the PRESENT 2 SUBJUNCTIVE

The present 2 subjunctive is identical in form with the past tense indicative. Although identical in form with the past, the meaning of the present 2 subjunctive is totally different, referring to the present or the future not the past. Therefore it is more appropriate to call it present 2 subjunctive than past subjunctive as would seem more convenient considering the form. As a result this terminology has been preferred by us with a view to avoiding confusion between the present 2 subjunctive and the past tense indicative. **Present 2 subjunctive:**

If I knew his address, I would give it to you **Past indicative:**

I knew he was in town, but I couldn't get in touch with him If the tense form is not correctly identified, confusions might arise in the use of the sequence of tenses.

The FORM of the PAST SUBJUNCTIVE

The Past Subjunctive is identical in form with the past perfect indicative and it is always used with past reference.

I wish he had been here, when the quarrel started.

379

The Verb

USAGE:

The PRESENT 1 SUBJUNCTIVE IS USED:

In main clauses, rarely nowadays:

In idiomatic expressions enjoining or exhorting:

Suffice it to say; The drama of morality is growing. Witness the plays by Shaw.

The position of these subjunctives at the beginning of the sentence, together with their content, brings them close to imperatives, which no doubt explains the preservation of such expressions. **In idiomatic expressions of wish or prayer:** *God save the Queen. God bless you. Heaven forbid, that... The Devil take him.*

The modern form of expressing a wish or prayer of this form is with **may + infinitive:**

May you be happy all your life.

In concessive subordinate clauses without a conjunction:

Come what may, I'll help you.

Cost what it may, we'll go there.

Be that as it may, we'll stick to our plan. Only the subjunctive form 'be' can be regarded here as living, and that only in formal speech:

Be he who he may, he has no right here.

In conditional and concessive subordinate clauses beginning with i conjunction: *If that be true, I have nothing else to say.*

Though everyone desert you, I will not.

If we be in time, we shall find him at home. This use of the subjunctive is now found only in formal English. **In object clauses**, it is most often used in modern-day English

After verbs expressing a will or wish for the future, especially in formal and legal English:

It is our wish that we j[o our separate ways. After verbs like 'propose', 'suggest', 'insist', 'order', 'advise', 'demand', 'ask' (= demand):

I propose that James be made a member of the committee.

I suggest that you go and sort out your problems.

380

A Practical English Grammar

Replacing the present 1 subjunctive in subordinate clauses is done with the help of:

A 'should + short present infinitive' construction

It is our wish that we (should) go our separate ways.
My brother suggested that the trip (should) be postponed.
The firemen ordered that all the people (should) leave the building. A 'to-infinitive' construction
My brother suggested to postpone the trip.
It is our wish to go our separate ways.

^

^

|iS

The PRESENT I SUBJUNCTIVE IS USED:

After impersonal expressions like 'it's impossible', 'it's fair', 'it's improbable', 'it's natural', 'it's unbelievable', 'it's strange', etc. to make reference to the present or future:

It's impossible that he win the competition.

381

The Verb

Should + short present infinitive is often used with the above-mentioned expressions to refer to the present or future.

It's fair that she (should) want to do something for her parents.

Should + short perfect infinitive is used with these expressions if reference is made to the past:

It's impossible that he should have left without saying good-bye.

^

FORMS of the SUBJUNCTIVE ARE USED as follows: After verbs expressing a wish or a will, in hypothetical statements:

The Present 2 Subjunctive, for reference to the **present or future**:

/ wish my brother were here (now or in the future), Past Subjunctive, for reference to the **past**:

/ wished my brother had been here (past) / wish I had never met him (= now I realize how bad it is that I met him in the past) After the expression 'as if or 'as though'

Present 2 Subjunctive, to indicate **simultaneity** with the action in the main clause:

He looks as if he were ill. He looked as if he were ill. Past subjunctive, to express **anteriority**:

He looks as if he had seen a ghost. He looked as if he had seen a ghost. 382

A Practical English Grammar

The FORMS of the SUBJUNCTIVE ARE USED: After 'would rather', 'would sooner' (= to prefer)

Present 1 Subjunctive, if the subject of the expression is **identical** with the subject of the subjunctive.

The second subject is omitted:

I'd rather stay at home.

Present 2 Subjunctive, to make reference to the **present or future**, if the subjects are different. In this case they are both mentioned:

I'd rather she stayed at home.

Past Subjunctive to make reference to the **past** if the subjects are different. In this case they are both mentioned:

I'd rather you had given me a new one instead of repairing the old one.

After 'had better', 'had best' (== suggestion made by the speaker) **Present 1 Subjunctive**:

You 'd better sit down and read something.

After 'it is high/about time'

Present 2 Subjunctive:

It's about time you had your hair cut.

It's high time we left.

'It is time' may be followed by an infinitive and makes reference to a real activity: *It's time to go.*

The FORMS of the SUBJUNCTIVE ARE USED: After 'suppose' any of the three forms of subjunctive:

Present 1 Subjunctive, to refer to present or future:

Suppose I be chosen, what can I do? **Present 2 Subjunctive**, to refer to present or future: *Suppose I were chosen, what could I do?* **Past Subjunctive**, to refer to the past:

Supposed I had been chosen, what could I have done?

After **if only** and **would to God**

Present 2 Subjunctive, for reference to the **present or future**:

If only he were a better student. **Past Subjunctive**, for reference to the **past**:

Would to God he had been a better husband.

383

The Verb

|

jlllllll

llflll

llllil

ll

.....

384

1111111:

flit?!!!!

Wm&âm

^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^ ^

.....

Mmmm.....

..... : i

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.25. THE IMPERATIVE

FORM:

In the second person singular and plural, the imperative has the same form, as the infinitive without 'to':

Come in and have a seat! A **negative form** is obtained by adding an initial 'don't'

Don't come in now! **In the first and third persons** it is preceded by 'let' and an **accusative**:

Let's go to the cinema.

I can't see him just now, let him wait!

A **negative form** is obtained by inserting 'not' after the pronoun following 'let':

Let's not go to the cinema!

'Don't' is heard in imperatives with 'let': **In informal speech**:

Don't let's go! **When the subject is an indefinite pronoun**:

Don't let anyone come in!

A **progressive form** is very rare:

Be preparing the dinner when he comes in!

DOUBLE IMPERATIVES

Two imperatives together are joined by 'and' not 'to'.

Go and buy yourself a new pair of shoes. or they are not joined at all:

Go buy yourself a new pair of shoes.

The imperative form of the verb 'try' admits connection to another imperative also through 'to' *Try and help* or *Try to help*

CORRESPONDING SUBJECTS:

The following can act as subjects for the imperative statement:

Proper names: *John, eat up your dinner!*

Personal pronouns. The most common is '**you**' in the singular and plural.

The rest of the personal pronouns can be used in constructions with '**let**'.

Indefinite pronouns.

385

The Verb

'YOU' as SUBJECT

The subject of the imperative is in most cases **you**, explicit or implicit, in the singular or plural.

POSITION:

When 'y^{ou}' is added, it is placed: **At the beginning** of the imperative: *You go and do it!*, **After it:**

In a few stock expressions preserving the former positioning in the language:

Mark you! Mind you!

In the form of a reflexive pronoun. In the singular the form is '**yourself**' and in the plural

'yourselves' :

Behave yourself /yourselves! **In a tag question** attached to the imperative: *Be quiet, will you?*

The tag-questions that can be attached are: **will you?, won't you?, can't you?** to express annoyance

would you?, could you? can you?, to express neutral requests

will you?, won't you?, why don't you? to express friendly offers: *Take a rest, why don't you?*

MEANING:

'You', when expressed, in most cases connotes **Contrast** (= not some other person):

Tom, you go!

You take that piece and I'll take this. **Threat, superior-knowledge or well-meant advice:**

You mark my words! It's a certainty.

It'll never work. - You wait and see! Annoyance: *You keep quiet!* **Added emphasis** in negative sentences:

Don't you dare (to) say I'm not telling the truth.

A

When 'you' is used markers of politeness can't be added.

386

A Practical English Grammar

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS as SUBJECT

POSITION:

• Indefinite pronouns as the subject of the imperative, such as **everybody', 'somebody', 'someone'** may be placed either **before or after:** *Go somebody! Somebody go and do it!*

USAGE:

The imperative always refers to **The future** or:

A change when expressed in the form '**have**' or '**be + past participle of verb connoting change**' (i.e., change and the resultant condition, respectively):

Have done with such nonsense!

Be gone!

Study your failures and be instructed by them!

Don't be swayed by such considerations!

The IMPERATIVE IS USED:

To give orders or commands which can sound harsh unless **toned down by:**

Markers of politeness, which may be placed at **the beginning or the**

end of the imperative statement: *Please, shut the door.*

Turning the command into a question or a statement: *Will you shut the door, please? I wonder if you would be kind enough to shut the door.*

By **using 'do'** to obtain a more polite statement *Do help yourself!*

'Do' is not used only to make an imperative more polite, but also to make it more urgent: *Do hurry up!*

387

The Verb

The IMPERATIVE IS USED:

To **make requests**. The requests may be:

An entreaty:

Spare a penny, sir, for a starving man. Help! Help! I'm drowning!

An instruction:

To get to the Shakespeare Theatre, turn to the right at the river and keep straight on.

An invitation.

Come inside and meet my wife! Have a cigarette!

A suggestion:

"Where can I find Mr. Smith?" "Try his office or ring up his house."

A condition, replacing an if-clause:

Do that again and I'll call the police!

Suppose you had a million pounds, how would you spend the money?

The imperative with '**and**' is used instead of an if-clause in the affirmative:

If you do that again, I'll call the police. => Do that again and I'll call the police.

The imperative with 'or' is used instead of an if-clause in the negative:

If you don't stop at once, I'll tell dad. =>

Stop at once or I'll tell dad!

The IMPERATIVE IS USED

»

To express a wish, in conversation:

Have a good holiday!

Enjoy yourself and come back quite well again!

To express a warning

Look out! A bus is coming!

To prohibit, by using the negated form:

Do not walk on the grass!

388

68£

!E

S|.....sgillli'irfllll^

iiiiifi

qst|§ug

The Verb

ASPECT: SIMPLE VS. CONTINUOUS FORMS

The progressive aspect generally has the effect of surrounding a particular event or moment by a temporal frame. That is, within the flow of time, there is some point of reference from which the temporary actuality indicated by the verb can be seen stretching into the future and into the past. With the present progressive, the point of orientation is normally identical with 'now', the present moment of time. In the progressive past and future other definite points of reference must be assumed. Often this point is made explicit by an adverbial phrase or clause:

This time last year I was travelling round the world.

Tomorrow at seven I will be flying to London.

When no event or point of time is in question, however, the framing effect does not occur:

They were watching a football match on Sunday afternoon. Here a temporary occupation is related to a period.

Another case where there is no frame is that where two progressive past verbs are put next to one another:

While she was working hard in the kitchen, her husband

was watching a football game on TV. The aspect will be dealt with as follows:

6.3.26.1. verbs used with the progressive

6.3.26.2. verbs seldom used with the progressive

6.3.26.3. verbs that can be used either in the progressive or simple forms in free variation

390

A Practical English Grammar

USAGE:

To distinguish the progressive aspect from the simple form it is necessary to stress three aspects of meaning: The progressive (continuous) form indicates:

Duration.

I am raising my arm vs. I raise my arm.

Limited duration.

I am living in London (temporary residence) vs. I live in London (permanent residence).

That the happening need not be completed.

The man was drowning (but I jumped into the water saved him) vs. The man drowned.

The PROGRESSIVE IS USED:

To express habit in existence over a limited period.

I'm taking dancing lessons this winter.

In those days we were getting up at seven o'clock.

In these cases the progressive concept of limited duration is not applied to the individual events that make up the series, but to a series as a whole.

To refer to repetition of events of limited duration:

Whenever I visit him, he is mending his car. Don't call on them at seven; they're usually having dinner.

Here the notion of limited duration is applied not to the habit as a whole, but to the individual events of which the habit is composed.

With a special idiomatic meaning, marked by the absence of the temporary element of the normal progressive meaning:

Day by day we are getting nearer to death. The sense here is one of persistent or continuous activity. The durational element overrides the temporary element. The uninterrupted nature of the activity is usually underlined by the presence of adverbs or adverbial phrases such as '**continually**', '**for ever**' and '**always**':

I am continually forgetting people's names.

391

The Verb

6.2.27.1. VERBS used in the PROGRESSIVE ASPECT

The progressive aspect varies its effect according to the type of meaning conveyed by the verb.

The PROGRESSIVE IS USED:

For repeated action for momentary verbs, 'hit', 'jump', 'knock', 'nod', 'tap', 'wink', etc. refer to happenings so momentary that it is difficult to think of them as having duration. Consequently, the progressive form, in attributing duration to them, forces one to think of a series of events, rather than of a single event: *He was nodding* (= a repeated movement) * vs. *He nodded* (= a single movement).

Someone was firing a gun at me (= several shots) vs. *Someone fired a gun at me* (= a single shot).

The PROGRESSIVE IS USED:

Indicating an approach for transitional event verbs, 'arrive', 'die', 'fall', 'land', 'leave', 'lose', 'stop', etc. are used with the progressive to indicate an approach to the transition, rather than the transition itself: *The train was arriving. The plane was landing. The old man was dying.*

We could even argue that a different meaning of the verb comes into play in the switch from simple past to progressive past:

He was dying indicates a **process** that ends in death.

He died

pin-points the actual moment of transition, the completion of the process..

THE PROGRESSIVE IS USED WITH:

Activity verbs: 'drink', 'eat', 'play', 'rain', 'read', 'work', 'write', etc.

These can also be used with the simple tenses in an *event* sense but they most usually occur with the progressive as they refer to a continuing, though bounded, activity:

What are you doing?

I'm writing a letter.

They are still eating their dinner.

392

A Practical English Grammar

Process verbs, 'become', 'come', 'fall', 'change', 'grow', 'mature', 'turn', 'slow down', 'widen', etc. These tend to go with the progressive as a process usually has duration, but not indefinite duration:

The weather is changing for the better.

They are widening the road.

It's growing dark.

'Grow' may also be used as a semi-auxiliary:

I grew to like the place we had moved to.

In this case although the verbal form is not a progressive one it refers to action that took place over a period of time **until** it reached completion.

Other verbs may be used in fixed phrases to denote a process: 'come true', 'fall ill', 'go bad', 'run dry', 'turn sour'. These expression can be used either in the simple or progressive form; anyway they refer to an action of duration.

The verbs 'make' and 'become' may be followed by nouns: *She will make a good nurse someday.*

iiiis

^

^

393

The Verb

6.3.26.2. VERBS SELDOM USED IN THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT

Difference must be made between stative and dynamic verbs: **Stative verbs** are verbs referring to 'states'. These normally do not accept a continuous form due to the fact that they express no progress or development of what-so-ever:

She loves her baby.

Dynamic verbs refer to actions in progress, that have a beginning point and an end. These verbs can have simple or progressive forms:

I often bake cakes.

I am baking a cake. There are verbs that have both static and dynamic uses as follows:

I weigh 65 kilos, (stative)

I'm weighing myself, (dynamic)

THE VERB 'TO BE'

The VERB 'TO BE' IS NOT USED IN THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT: When it expresses a state:

I am happy that you are well again.

The VERB 'TO BE' IS USED IN THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT: When it expresses temporary behaviour: He is being naughty again.

In '*She is being kind*', kindness is understood as a mode of outward behaviour over which the person has control, rather than as an inherent trait of character.

She is being kind (= she is acting kindly towards someone),

She is kind (= she is constitutionally good natured.)

When it suggests a temporary or deliberate act or for mime and pretence: *I am being an aeroplane.*

When it is used to build up the passive progressive of other verbs: *New houses are being built in this district. The baby is being washed.*

394

VERBS OF PERCEPTION

The following VERBS ARE NOT USED WITH THE PROGRESSIVE: 'see', 'hear', 'smell', 'taste', 'feel', 'recognize', 'notice', etc.: / see Mary cross the street.

Verbs such as 'read', 'tell' and 'find' referring to the result of communication may also be placed in this class:

John tells me... (— I understand as a result of John having told me ...)

I find it hard to believe that he is having difficulty adapting.

Verbs for which the grammatical subject is the object of perception: *That sounds like Mary's voice. You look tired.*

As the type of the perception expressed is *inert* rather than *active*, the progressive is generally excluded.

'Look' is an exception to the rule: it is possible to say both *You look very well* and *You are looking very well* perhaps because of an analogy with *I feel/am feeling well*.

The VERBS OF PERCEPTION CAN BE USED IN THE CONTINUOUS FORM:

When implying deliberate employment of these senses For the verbs 'feel', 'taste', 'smell': *I'm smelling the coffee. The coffee smells good.*

'Feel' can be a verb of cognition as well as a verb of perception:

I feel that some action must be taken immediately.

For verbs having this function that replace the verbs 'hear', 'see'. These are 'listen to', 'look at', 'watch':

I'm listening to the radio.

I hear the radio in the background.

When referring to a developing condition:

I'm not seeing very well these days. (= my eye-sight is getting worse)

395

The Verb

When verbs belonging to this group are used with special meanings they can have continuous forms:

SEE: to interview

The producer is very busy now. He is seeing

someone who wants a part in the play. to see about (= to arrange, to put right):

I'm seeing about tickets for tonight. to see a lot (= to see a great deal of a person):

Mary is seeing a lot of Jane these holidays. to see somebody home (= to escort somebody home):

Who was seeing you home yesterday. to see somebody off (who is starting on a journey):

Peter is seeing his cousin to the airport. to see (with reference to the near future):

I'm seeing it tonight. HEAR: to give an audition:

The leader of the orchestra is hearing a pianist. receive news of:

I have been hearing the most dreadful things.

VERBS OF EMOTION

The following VERBS ARE NOT USED WITH THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT:

'like', 'dislike', 'love', 'hate', 'adore', 'care', 'prefer', 'mind', 'forgive', 'want', 'wish', 'desire', 'refuse', 'abhor', 'detest', 'despise', 'loathe', etc.: *I prefer the theatre to the cinema.*

Some of these VERBS ARE USED IN THE CONTINUOUS FORM: When expressing enjoyment or lack of enjoyment: *How are you liking your new job.*

When expressing a gradual development of enjoyment or lack of enjoyment: *While talking to her, he felt he was liking her more and more.*

When they indicate a deliberate employment of the will:

Her sister is minding the baby tonight while they are out.

I

396

VERBS OF THINKING AND KNOWING

The following VERBS ARE NOT USED WITH THE CONTINUOUS

ASPECT:

'know', 'understand', 'mean', 'remember', 'forget', 'believe', 'hope', 'doubt', 'suppose', 'imagine', 'think (that)', 'feel' (=think), 'see' (=understand), 'recall', 'recollect', 'trust' (= believe), 'expect', 'consider' (= be of the opinion):

I see that you 've got that job.

I think that he is a very thoughtful person.

I trust you will be comfortable in this room.

A limitation on the duration of the state may be implied, but still the simple form is used: *I think that they are coming.*

I believe we have already met.

As the examples suggest, verbs with this type of meaning are frequently followed by a noun clause.

Some of these VERBS ARE USED IN THE CONTINUOUS FORM: When expressing deliberate actions :

Surely you are imagining things. (= entertaining yourself with illusions.)

I'm thinking about the present I shall give my son for his birthday.

'Think' is used in two basic senses. It functions differently in

He is thinking about Mary.

He thinks that Mary is a nice girl.

In the first sentence 'think' is *a.process* and in the second a *stale*.

'Know' is characteristically followed by the progressive in sentences like:

John knows he is talking nonsense. The state of knowledge and the activity of talking are here concurrent; the time spans are comparable and therefore we might expect two progressive forms, but 'know' does not accept this form.

Some of these VERBS ARE USED IN THE CONTINUOUS FORM: When used as polite forms:

I'm hoping you 'll give us some advice.

We're wondering if you have any suggestions.

397

The Verb

In idiomatic colloquial speech, this apparently unaccountable usage is often preferred to the regular use of the simple present tense: *I hope..., we wonder...* The reason for this preference seems to be that the progressive is a more tentative, and hence more polite form of expressing a mental attitude.

CERTAIN MISCELLANEOUS VERBS

The following VERBS ARE NOT USED WITH THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT:

'matter', 'consist of', 'call', 'possess', 'own', 'fit' (= be of the correct size), 'belong to', 'suit', 'concern', 'seem', 'appear' (= seem), 'look' (= appearance), 'hold' (= contain), 'keep' (=continue), contain etc. *Now that she has lost weight, the dress fits her.*

Some of these VERBS ARE USED IN THE CONTINUOUS FORM:

With adverbs of frequency to express emotional colouring:

He is always complaining. When the speaker represents the action as if it were going on before his eyes:

While playing golf I was liking her more and more.

He is resembling his father more and more as the years go by.

I

Hi.

A Practical English Grammar

^MMMMM'Bi

^^\$^^^0^^^..^^^W^^B:Mm^M

S.....lilli

THE VERB 'TO HAVE'

The VERB 'TO HAVE' IS NOT USED IN THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT When it expresses a state, showing possession.

/ *have a car.*

It can be used in the continuous when expressing a state only with future meaning.

/ *am having a car.*

The VERB 'TO HAVE' IS USED IN THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT In compounds to indicate an activity, 'have a walk' (Am.E. 'take a walk'), 'have a cigarette', 'have a bath' (Am.E. 'take a bath'), 'have a good time', 'have breakfast/lunch/dinner', etc.:

/ *can't talk to him now as I'm having dinner with a friend.*

You can't imagine the dull time I have been having here with the rain pouring down incessantly.

399

The Verb

II

.....

j^

.....PvIII

.....^TM'1""^

Verbs which are generally not used in the continuous aspect may be used in this aspect when accompanied by an adverbial of frequency to give some emotional colouring. The speaker represents the action as if it were going on before his eyes. Most often than not, this construction expresses annoyance or irritation: *He is constantly complaining.*

^^

,

.7}'

400

A Practical English Grammar

||!s;£!S^

6.3.26.3. VERBS that can be used either with THE PROGRESSIVE or A SIMPLE FORM IN FREE VARIATION

The following VERBS ARE USED EITHER WITH THE PROGRESSIVE OR THE SIMPLE FORM:

'Ache', 'feel', 'hurt', 'itch', etc. There is apparently a free choice, without change of meaning between the two forms:

I feel hungry. I I'm feeling hungry.

A difference should be noted between this meaning of 'feel', which is a question of **internal** sensation and the meaning of 'feel' as a verb of perception, denoting **external** sensation: / *(can) feel a stone in my shoe.*

401

The Verb

^^

402

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.27. THE INFINITIVE

The present infinitive is the basic verbal form, but it does not in itself indicate time. The temporal

aspect of it is determined by the element governing the infinitive, or by the context.

FORM:

The infinitive is used with or without the particle 'to'. It may have different forms:

The active infinitive: *to work*

The passive infinitive, *to be worked*

The active perfect infinitive, *to have worked*

The passive perfect infinitive, *to have been written*

The continuous infinitive: *to be working*

The perfect continuous infinitive: *to have been working*

FUNCTION:

The infinitive with and without 'to' corresponds in the main to the two sides of the infinitive, the **nominal** and the **verbal**; thus, the **infinitive with 'to'** is found in positions similar to nouns, adjectives and adverbs:

/ want to take a walk

in days to come

I came to see you.

On the other hand, the **infinitive without 'to'** is generally closely connected with an auxiliary verb and forms a single unit with it as regards stress and intonation:

/ shall go.

403

The Verb

The INFINITIVE MAY ACT: As the subject of the sentence:

Placed BEFORE the verb:

To obey is a soldier's duty.

To work hard is all he wanted from me.

To have made the same mistake twice was unforgivable.

Placed AFTER the verb:

It is very common in sentences with an introductory 'it':

It is possible to win the competition if you work hard. It took me over an hour to fly from Paris to London.

As a nominal part of a predicate:

His favourite activity is to sit in the village pub and chat the time away.

In the expression '*He is to blame*' the active infinitive has a passive meaning.

As an object, completing the meaning of the verb: */ can't afford to lose more money.*

USAGE:

The infinitive may be used to refer to different temporal aspects:

Present infinitive is used to refer to: **The present:**

It does him good to take long walks. The future:

/ wish we had an invitation to dine out. The past:

How very foolish of you to do it.

Perfect infinitive is used to refer to:

What has preceded; expressing anteriority with reference to the action expressed by the main verb:

This palace is said to have been built in three years. I rejoice to have finished it so soon. The

hypothetical:

/ thought it wrong to have helped her. The perfect infinitive is used with modal verbs, (see 6.1.13.)

404

A Practical English Grammar

I

The continuous infinitive is used:

After the verbs 'seem' and 'appear': *He seems to be working hard.*

After auxiliary verbs:

You should be studying now.

After certain verbs when used in the passive, 'think', 'know', 'believe', 'understand', 'report', 'say', 'suppose'

You were supposed to be helping him.

Perfect continuous forms are also possible with the above-mentioned verbs: *You should have been studying.*

THE INFINITIVE IS USED WITH 'TO' after:

Full verbs such as 'learn', 'remember', 'forget', 'promise', 'agree', 'swear', 'refuse', 'propose', 'regret', 'try', etc.

I agreed to go with her to the movies.

I regret to have done such a stupid thing. **The verbs: 'to appear', 'to happen', 'to seem':**

He happened to be at home at the moment.

They seem to have expected us (=I think they expected us)

The full verbs 'discover', 'wonder', 'find out', 'understand', 'know' and 'explain' when used with 'how'

Will you explain to me how to get there.

The auxiliaries 'be', 'have' :

I have to go to the market.

The modal verbs 'ought', 'used': *I ought to go to the market.*

405

The Verb

THE INFINITIVE IS USED WITH 'TO': In the expressions:

Or, to put it another way, every aspect has to be taken into consideration.

To tell you the truth, I don't know what the answer is.

To hear him talk, you would think he was the president of the bank.

To cut a long story short, I made a fool of myself.

The use of the **split infinitive** (= the placing of a word or words between the 'to' and the verb) is often condemned by grammarians. This form dates back to the thirteenth century but it is still very common in modern English:

Our object is to further cement trade relations.

This will tend to firmly establish good relations between them.

The idiomatic expressions 'to think fit' and 'to see fit' cannot be split:

They thought fit to blame everything on Tom.

THE INFINITIVE IS USED WITHOUT 'TO':

After full verbs such as 'hear', 'see', etc. and 'watch', 'make', 'let', 'bid':

I heard him sing in the bathroom.

After the modal verbs 'can', 'may', 'must', 'shall', 'will', etc. *I can go there if you like.*

After the constructions: 'would rather', 'would sooner', 'rather than', 'sooner than', 'had better':

I'd rather stop now than when it's too late.

I'd rather you have stopped him, than...

In the expressions:

My uncle was said to have let drop this remark. She had to make do with one maid.

go hang

hear say

let go

make believe

let drive

hear tell

let slip

let fly

406

A Practical English Grammar

THE INFINITIVE IS USED WITH OR WITHOUT 'TO' after:

'Need' and 'dare' are followed by the infinitive without 'to' when used as modal verbs:

I dare not wake him.

You needn't have said anything.

When they are conjugated with **do** or **will/would** they are followed by the infinitive with **to**:

You won't need to say anything.

I wouldn't dare to interrupt him.

'Have (= experience, cause)' may also be followed by an infinitive without **to**:

Who would not feel proud to have this happen to him. **'Help'** may be followed by the infinitive with or without 'to':

He helped push the car.

He helped to push the car.

The verbs 'make', 'bid' and 'let' are followed by an infinitive without 'to':

They made me go with them.

However, in a passive construction they are followed by an infinitive with 'to', except **let** which may be used without 'to':

I was made to go with them.

I was let go.

The second of two co-ordinate infinitives is used **with or without 'to'** according to the form of the first.

There is nothing to do except to wait.

You can't do better than go.

SffS

stupid than you are?

407

The Verb

THE INFINITIVE IS USED AFTER VERBS

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

With the verbs mentioned under 'usage with and without 'to'.

With idiomatic expressions containing verbs: *I made up my mind to study.*

In the construction verb + (object) + infinitive:

After these verbs: 'want', 'wish', 'like', 'prefer', 'ask', 'help', 'expect', 'love', 'hate': *I want to go. I want him to go. I asked to speak to the manager. I asked her to speak to the manager.*

Kg?° Note the difference:

I expect to be there. (= I think I shall be there)

I expect him to be there. (I think it is his duty to be there/I will be annoyed if he is not there.)

!3?" 'Love' and 'hate' are used with object + infinitive only in

colloquial speech:

I'd hate her to find out what I have done.

Otherwise:

I'd love to go there.

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

In the construction verb + object + infinitive; (the object is compulsory): **After such verbs: 'think', 'cause', 'order', 'appoint',** the object being rather the subject of the infinitive and the whole group being considered as the real object of the main verb:

The firemen ordered them to leave the building.

After verbs of asking, making, ordering and wishing ('tell', 'invite', 'oblige', 'compel', 'allow', 'permit', 'teach', 'instruct', 'warn', 'urge', 'advise', 'tempt', 'encourage', 'request', 'forbid', 'show how', 'remind').

I persuaded him to come with me. I made him change his opinion.

408

A Practical English Grammar

Many of the above-mentioned verbs occur in a passive construction maintaining the particle 'to':

The Board was asked to investigate the problem.

He was forced to abandon boxing altogether.

He was made to give up that reckless idea.

In passive constructions the sentences may begin with an introductory 'it':

It was proposed to leave early the next morning.

^

S

iii||^^

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

In the constructions expressing future 'be + infinitive' and 'be about + infinitive'(see 6.3.8.3.)

In the construction 'object + to be'

After verbs like 'appoint', 'name', etc.:

He appointed him to be his secretary.

After verbs like 'think', 'believe', 'consider', 'know', 'feel', 'understand', 'suppose':

He is believed to be a good writer.

409

The Verb

'**Suppose**' when used in the passive often conveys an idea of duty. *You are supposed to know the rules of the*

school. (= it is your duty) '**Suppose**' + **perfect infinitive** need not convey this idea:

They are supposed to have discovered America.

(= it is thought that they did)

You are supposed to have finished by now. (= You should have finished)

THE INFINITIVE IS USED AFTER NOUNS /PRONOUNS modified or not by ADJECTIVES

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

After nouns: *The decision to go back to school was taken after a stormy night*

A refusal to comply with the requests was at the origin of all his subsequent troubles.

After nouns or pronouns in the accusative, preceded by 'with':

He knew that with him to help her, she could succeed.

After nouns and pronouns to show how they can be used or what is to be done with them:

I have a book to write.

I would like something to drink.

In the combination 'for + noun/pronoun + infinitive': Meaning 'it is the task of.

It is for you to decide. After the first thing', 'the last thing':

The first thing for you to do is to help him. As a prepositional object to verbs normally construed with '**for**':

They waited patiently for Tom to return. With verbs that can have 'object + infinitive':

The scheme provided for young people to be trained

abroad. After 'it + is/was + adjective:

It was dreadful for him to find himself alone in the forest. In sentences with 'enough', 'sufficiently', and 'too':

It happens sufficiently often for the credulous to think these things normal.

410

A Practical English Grammar

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

After 'it/that + is/was/would be + adjective + noun':

That's a very strange place to begin an investigation. That would be a very nice thing to say.

Some of the adjectives that can be used with this construction are: **'strange', 'stupid', 'crazy', 'mad', 'odd', 'funny'** (= odd), **'extraordinary', 'astonishing', 'amazing', 'pointless', 'ridiculous'**.

Comments of this kind can also be expressed in exclamations:

What a nice place for a picnic!

The adjective is often omitted in expressions of criticism or disapproval:

What a (mad) idea to go out in such a storm!

After 'it +is/was + adjective + of you/him ...':

// was nice of you to come and see me.

It is better to have said nothing than to have said something stupid.

Other adjectives that can be used in this way are: **'good', 'wise', 'kind', 'honest', 'generous', 'cowardly', 'selfish', 'silly', 'stupid', 'wicked', 'careless', etc.**

THE INFINITIVE IS USED AFTER ADJECTIVES /AD VERBS

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

After the construction 'it +is/was + adjective':

It is lovely to see you.

It was dreadful to find oneself alone in the forest.

411

The Verb

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

After adjectives like **'easy', 'hard', 'difficult', 'awkward', 'impossible', etc.** The subject may be a noun:

The exercise is easy to solve.

His actions are impossible to justify. Sometimes a **'for + noun'** construction may be added:

It is easy for John to solve the exercise.

After adjectives denoting a feeling or state of mind: *He was anxious to meet his friends. I am surprised to see so many people in the room.*

^

THE INFINITIVE IS USED: After **'too (= excess) + adjective/adverb +infinitive:** With an active sense: *is too rfrerf to do the room.* With a passive sense:

The coffee is too hot to drink.

After **adjective/adverb+'enough' (= sufficiency) +infinitive:** With an active sense:

He is tall enough to reach the ceiling.

You are old enough to know better. (- You should know better) With a passive sense:

The soup wasn 't hot enough to eat. In some cases **for + noun/pronoun** could be added:

The soup wasn't hot enough for us to eat.

412

A Practical English Grammar

'Enough' may be followed by a noun:

He doesn 't make enough money to support himself.

He doesn't have enough time to do it properly. **'Have'+ 'enough'+ noun** can often be replaced with **'have + the + noun'**. The above-mentioned sentence becomes:

He doesn't have the time to do it properly.

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

After 'sufficiently' + adjective/adverb+infinitive. This construction can replace the one with **'enough'**

He is sufficiently tall to reach the ceiling.

After 'so/such +adjective/adverb+ as +infinitive' if the subject of the main verb is also the subject of the infinitive:

His demeanour was so cold as to be inhuman. He was so foolish as to leave the money behind. This is an alternative construction to the one with **'enough':**

He was foolish enough as to leave the money behind. This construction is mainly used in formal request:

Would you be so kind as to forward my letters.

lp|lp|j

413

The Verb

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

With constructions with 'likely', 'certain' and 'sure' :

The rain is certain to delay their arrival.

Jk

If the infinitive is **modified by an adverb**, the adverb may come before or after the infinitive:

It is nice to be able conscientiously to admire things that are so beautiful.

Her eyes are too dim to see the keyhole clearly. In passive constructions the adverb follows the infinitive:

It was easy to charge him formally for theft.

THE INFINITIVE AND OTHER ELEMENTS

THE INFINITIVE IS USED:

After the prepositions 'as', 'but', 'except' and 'than':

We have no choice but (to) start everything from the beginning.

We never did anything else but work.

After 'only' to express a disappointing sequel:

I hurried to the house only to find that it was empty.

£:,

The infinitive can be used as a connective link without **'only'** and **without the idea of misfortune**.

He returned home to learn that his daughter had

just become engaged. This usage is confined to verbs like **learn, find, see, be, told.**

- ' V.; i-'Wtt.; V-'MSr'- '■'"■-■■■ ~f&.;■ ■■■!■ '■;■. W,'M W'iM-., W&SMM

414

A Practical English Grammar

L

THE INFINITIVE IS USED AS A REPLACEMENT FOR SUBORDINATE CONSTRUCTIONS

THE INFINITIVE IS USED INSTEAD of 'THAT'-CONSTRUCTIONS After **'be sure'** either an infinitive or a that-construction can be used, but there occurs a difference in meaning:

*He is **sure to** come to **the** party.* (= the speaker believes this) *He is **sure that** he will come to the party.* (= he believes this himself)

After 'think', 'believe', 'consider', 'know', 'feel', 'understand', 'suppose' + object+ 'to be' either an infinitive or a that-construction can be used. **In the active** the that-construction is more popular:

I consider him to be the best man for the job. I consider that he is the best man for the job. **In the**

passive the infinitive construction is more popular:

She is considered to be a wonderful and caring girl. It is considered that she is a wonderful and caring girl.

THE INFINITIVE IS USED INSTEAD of PURPOSE CLAUSES

They went to the market to buy fruit. It may be preceded by **'in order', 'so as':**

I invited him to my place in order to discuss with him the details of the trip.

We left the house so as not to disturb him.

In a negative sentence the finite verb is negated not the infinitive: *We didn't go to France to learn.*

The infinitive is negated to indicate an alternative:

/ went to France not to learn Spanish but French.

After an imperative it is not usual to put an infinitive of purpose, this generally transformed into an imperative in such contexts:

Go and help him.

not **Go to help him* The verb '**to see**' makes exception from this rule:

Come to see us sometime.

or *Come and see us sometime.*

415

The Verb

ilE^ x^iiiiiii^i^fiiiiiii;

777£ INFINITIVE IS USED INSTEAD of RELATIVE CLAUSES.

He is interested in everything to do with marine life.

The relationship between the noun and the infinitive may also be that between a verb and its object:

He had many scathing remarks to make about the matters

discussed. The noun may be preceded by an adjective:

This was the most pleasant way to spend the afternoon.

JL

When there is a preposition the construction alternates with one with a relative pronoun:

She must have a man to whom to cling to.

After 'the first', 'the second', etc., 'the last', 'the only' and sometimes after superlatives the infinitive replaces a relative clause:

He loves parties; he is always the first to come and the last to leave.

He was the only one to understand the difficulty of the situation.

416

A Practical English Grammar

3^

III ■• lilP- lil; iipf i: i l

6.3.28. THE GERUND

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS:

The forms of the gerund have both **substantival** and **verbal** features.

The verbal character of the gerund may be seen from the fact that this form may:

Be combined with adverbial members:

Our chance of ever knowing the truth is very slight. **Have an object or predicative complement:**

She was proud of being his daughter. **Have a subject:**

I don't mind Tom borrowing my books, but I'd like him to

bring them back. **Be inflected in the perfect and the passive:**

This saved him from being hurt.

There is a possibility of his having arrived.

417

The Verb

The **substantival features** of the gerund are as follows: **It may take the plural inflection -s:**

Such goings-on **It may take the inflection of the genitive.**

We are walking for walking's sake. **It may be preceded by articles:**

There was a gentle tapping on the door. **It may be modified by attributes:**

There was much coming and going. **It may be used to form compounds in the same way as a noun:**

a walking stick

blotting paper **It may be co-ordinated with nouns:**

Travelling and hotel accomodation is always first class.

lll'lllllllp-lli;^

FUNCTION:

The gerund may have the following functions: **Subject:** *Dancing is always so much fun.*

Object: *He does a lot of reading.*

The complement of a preposition. *What can you do besides digging?*

418

A Practical English Grammar

USAGE:

iy THE GERUND IS USED AFTER PREPOSITIONS

THE GERUND IS USED: After prepositions:

Without saying a word, he left the room.

Since retiring I've done nothing.

After verbs that take obligatory prepositions: 'succeed in', 'insist on', 'stop from', 'rely on', 'prevent from', etc.:

He insisted on doing all the work alone.

After the combination 'be + adjective + preposition': 'be amazed at', 'be disgusted by/with', 'be deficient in', 'be afraid of', 'be capable of', 'be sick of', 'be bent on', 'be keen on', 'be addicted to', 'be used to', 'be inclined to', 'be indignant at', etc.:

He is good at telling lies.

She is fond of playing the piano.

llllli lffllfl

^

■BMffStBBBB^BMBfBBBBBg,

WMSMBMBMBBMBBMMÍBBBM

THE GERUND IS USED AFTER VERBS

THE GERUND IS USED:

After the following verbs: 'stop', 'finish', 'dread', 'detest', 'prevent', 'avoid', 'risk', 'admit', 'deny', 'recollect', 'resent', 'delay', 'postpone', 'defer', 'enjoy', 'fancy', 'imagine', 'forgive', 'pardon', 'excuse', 'suggest', 'keep (= continue)', 'understand', 'mind (= object)', 'miss', 'involve', 'resist', 'save (= save oneself the trouble)', 'anticipate', 'endure':

I couldn't avoid meeting him.

He enjoys listening to music.

419

The Verb

S^

lllltiB^^

11111111^ lEl^

mi

When the subject of the gerund is different from the subject of the sentence the following constructions may be used:

Verb + direct object + gerund

After the verbs 'hear', 'keep', 'start', 'watch'

When are you going to start him working? After the verbs 'catch', 'find', 'leave', 'notice', 'observe', 'perceive', 'see'. These are always accompanied by the direct object:

I'd better not catch you doing that again!

Verb + possessive + gerund

After the verbs 'appreciate', 'delay', 'avoid', 'consider', 'defer', 'enjoy', 'postpone', 'risk', 'suggest':

We appreciate your helping John.

Verb + direct object / possessive + gerund

After the verbs: 'detest', 'dislike', 'escape', 'excuse', 'fancy', 'forgive', 'hate', 'imagine', 'it involves', 'like',

'love', 'mention', 'mind', 'miss', 'pardon', 'prevent', 'resent', 'resist', 'understand', 'can't bear', 'can't face', 'can't help':

/ can't imagine my mother approving.

I can't imagine my mother's approving.

420

A Practical English Grammar

^

^

1

421

The Verb

THE GERUND IS USED AFTER/IN THE EXPRESSIONS:

THE GERUND IS USED:

After the expressions 'to look forward to', 'to take to', 'to get/be accustomed to', 'to get/be used to', 'to object to':

I'm looking forward to meeting you.

I am used to getting up early.

'To' that follows these expressions is a preposition that requires the use of the gerund. **It** is not the **particle** of **an** infinitive **that** follows.

After the expressions: 'it's no use', 'it's no good', 'it's useless', 'can't stand', 'can't help', 'it is/is not worth':

It's no use crying over spilt milk.

I can't help laughing.

If a thing is worth doing at all it is worth doing well.

The gerund may form a unit with such adverbs as in, on, out, up, **etc.:**

Satisfaction is derived from reading the newspaper and listening-in.

S

llli:SS

422

A Practical English Grammar

THE GERUND IS USED:

In the expressions: 'keep someone waiting/working/standing', etc. and

'catch someone doing something wrong':

He kept me waiting for more than an hour in heavy rain.

I caught them cheating. In the constructions: 'spend/waste time/hours/minutes/days +-ing

He wasted two hours of his time just looking at the ceiling. In the expression:

Seeing is believing. In short prohibitions:

No parking.

No trespassing.

If the prohibition involves an object the gerund cannot be used and it is replaced by an imperative.

Don't step on the grass! /Keep off the grass!

;!:@^^^

S

423

The Verb

6.3.29. THE PARTICIPLE

English has two participles

6.3.29.1. the present participle

6.3.29.2. the past participle Another aspect is:

6.3.29.3. the present participle vs. the past participle

6.3.29.1. THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE

FORM

The present participle ends in **-ing**: *writing* and it is found in the progressive tenses of the verbs. It may have different forms:

Present participle in the active: *writing*

Present participle in the passive: *being written*

Perfect participle in the active: *having written*

Perfect participle in the passive: *having been written*

FUNCTION:

All words in **-ing**, although derived from verbs, do not necessarily denote that something is being done; they may designate a state of a quality and have almost become adjectives; some of them have corresponding adverbs: *The very variety is confusing.*

The adjectival character of the present participle can be seen from the fact that it can be found:

Attributively:

He has a captivating manner. **Predicatively:**

He was visibly sinking. **Substantially:**

The dying were being heaped on top of the dead. **Adverbially**, both with and without the adverbial suffix: *boiling hot / piercing cold*

A

The present participle can be used in combination with some adjectives as follows:

/ **am** busy. *I am working.*

become / *am busy working.*

424

Practical English Grammar

The verbal character of the present participle can be seen when this form is combined with the same sentence members as the corresponding finite verbal expressions:

Adverb:

The landscape was continually changing.

Object:

He walked for about ten miles pushing the cart.

Predicative complement:

The great majority, being shy, were left behind.

Subject:

Being cold, he put on his coat.

USAGE:

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE IS USED:

In absolute constructions that have as their implied subject the subject of the sentence's finite verbal form:

Walking through the park, we saw a lovely show of daffodils.

Standing on the church tower, we could see the whole village below us.

Compare the sentences above with

* *Walking through the park, the daffodils made a lovely sight* or

* *Standing on the church tower, the whole village could be seen.*

These sentences are unacceptable because the subjects are mis-related.

425

The Verb

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE IS USED:

When two actions by the same subject occur simultaneously; in this case one of them will be expressed by a present participle:

He left the room laughing.

When one action is immediately followed by another by the same subject; in this case the first action can often be expressed by a present participle. The participle must be placed first:

Opening the door, I took a cautious step forward.

The perfect form is used only when the simple one might lead to ambiguities:

Eating his sandwich, he rushed out of the diner. (= he left the diner while still eating his sandwich),

Having eaten his sandwich, he rushed out of the diner (= he first ate his sandwich and then he left the diner)

The perfect form active is used to show that an action has been performed before the action described by the finite verb.

426

A Practical English Grammar

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE IS USED:

When the second action forms part of the first or is a result of it; in this case one can express the second action by a present participle: *She went out, slamming the door. Having opened the door, he now came in.*

To indicate different temporal relations between two actions having the same subject.

Arriving home, I realized that I had forgotten to buy bread (time) **POSITION:**

The time concept attached to the more independent present participle forms may depend upon the position: when they **precede** the finite verb of the sentence, the present participles express an action more or less simultaneous with that expressed by the predicate:

Arriving in London at ten, I'll go by train to Manchester. When **placed after** the finite verb they are not limited in time this way:

I'll go by train, arriving in London at ten.

To indicate the relationship of 'cause' between two actions having the same subject:

*Being an old friend of the family, you can tell them the **truth*** (reason).

To indicate the relationship of 'condition' between two actions that don't necessarily have the same subjects.

Weather permitting, we'll start tomorrow morning.

'Being' at the beginning of a sentence will normally mean **'as**

he/she, etc. is/was':

Being a student in history, he was naturally interested in the antiquities of Greece.

y|S;::?:3

427

The Verb

^^

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE IS USED:

In nominative absolute constructions; here the subject of the present participle differs from that of the finite verb, or it is to be stressed. In this case the subject of the participle is stated:

Christinas day being a holiday, the shops were all closed.

The weather being fine, nobody wanted to stay at home.

After verbs of perception ('see', 'hear', etc.) In this case the subject of the participle may be expressed by a **noun or pronoun in the accusative**:

I saw them crossing the street.

I could hear them playing in the garden.

This construction has also a passive equivalent: *They were seen crossing the street.*

In a number of idiomatic expressions; here the participle may be found unattached and not logically related to the subject.

Generally speaking.....

By the way, talking of.....

Considering the position as a whole.....

Allowing for extras.....

Strictly speaking.....

Judging by.....

^

S

|gg|£;^

428

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.29.2. THE PAST PARTICIPLE

FORM:

The past participle, ends in **-ed** with the weak verbs or is formed in other ways with the strong verbs..

FUNCTION:

The past participle is also either **adjectival or verbal** in character. **With the adjectival value it may be:** **Attributive:** *lost property* **Predicative:** *My faith is gone.* **Substantival:** *the bereaved*

No clear distinction can be drawn between the past participle used adjectivally and adjectives formed from nouns with the suffix **'-ed'**:

a clouded sky, a floodlighted square

With verbal value it is found:

In the present and past perfect: *I have/It ad worked* **In the passive:** *Battles were lost and won.*

Jk

There is rarely any difference between the two main usages of the past participle. Where there are two forms of the past participle in the irregular verbs the distinction between them generally lies elsewhere:

melted/molten, drunk/drunken, etc. (see 6.1.17.)

429

The Verb

USAGE:

THE PAST PARTICIPLE IS USED:

After the verbs 'want', 'make', 'have', and 'like' + direct object:

I want this text translated.

He soon made his presence felt and his wishes known.

I'd like this matter settled immediately.

I had my hair cut. (see 6.3.24.)

|||||^fS |

THE PAST PARTICIPLE IS USED:

To replace a 'subject + passive verb' construction:

She enters, accompanied by her daughter.

Aroused by the crash, he leapt to his feet. **POSITION:**

Like ordinary adjectives, participles, if they are adjuncts of a noun, usually precede it; but when the participle is modified by a prepositional phrase it follows the noun it modifies:

The torn sail of a ship

but *The ship came into port, its sails torn by the gale.*

The perfect participle passive (7*av/«i* *been* + *past participle*) is used when it is necessary to emphasize that the action expressed by the participle happened before the action expressed by the next verb:

Having been bitten twice, the postman refused to deliver our letters anymore.

430

A Practical English Grammar

6.3.29.3. *THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE* vs. *THE PAST PARTICIPLE*

The present participle has an active meaning:

He found the fire burning brightly. The past participle has a passive meaning:

He found the house burned down.

The past participle is active in such examples: *a retired teacher the fallen angels an escaped prisoner*

The present participle is used to replace constructions of the type 'subject + active verb':

He opens the door and looks inside. => *Opening the door he looks inside.*

The past participle is used to replace constructions of the type 'subject + passive verb':

She enters and she is accompanied by her daughter. =>

She enters, accompanied by her daughter.

He was aroused by the crash and leapt forward. =>

Aroused by the crash, he leapt to his feet. In nominative absolute constructions

The present participle is used if the absolute phrase is active:

Christmas day being a holiday, the shops were all closed.

The weather being fine, nobody wanted to stay at home. The past participle is used if the absolute phrase is passive:

All things considered, I think we should start immediately.

This done, they packed up their tools and went home.

mfmsii

431

The Verb

ffi

6.3.5ft *THE INFINITIVE* vs. *THE GERUND*

The choice of using the infinitive or the gerund is determined by grammatical elements, lexical combinations or the meaning conveyed.

†P* **GRAMMATICAL ELEMENTS**

After the verbs: 'need' and 'want':

The infinitive, is used with an active sense:

/ need to go to the doctor. **The gerund**, is used with a passive sense:

He needs encouraging, (from somebody else) It wants mending. **After 'permit', 'allow', 'advise', 'recommend'**

The infinitive is used if the person concerned is mentioned:

/ don't allow him to smoke a pipe. **The gerund** is used if the person is not mentioned:

/ don't allow smoking.

After verbs of perception 'hear', 'feel' either the infinitive without 'to' or the gerund can be used:

I felt the house shake/shaking.

After the verbs: 'attempt', 'begin', 'can't bear', 'cease', 'continue', 'intend', 'omit', 'start'

both can be used with no change in meaning: */ intend to go/going to the party.*

THE GERUND IS NOT USED:

After the progressive forms of 'begin', 'cease', 'continue', 'start':

/ am beginning to work. **After stative verbs like 'know', 'understand' following 'begin', 'cease', 'continue':**

/ began to understand the problem.

432

A Practical English Grammar

LEXICAL ELEMENTS

After 'come' and 'go'

The gerund is used with outdoor activities: **'climbing', 'driving', 'fishing', 'riding', 'sailing', 'skiing':**

We are going skiing tomorrow.

Instead of the infinitive used to express purpose the imperative is used:

Go and bring me some milk, (not * *Go to bring me milk.*)

KF* SHADES OF MEANING

After 'love', 'like', 'hate', 'mean', 'intend' and 'it wants (=requires)' one can use:

The infinitive to refer to a future event:

/ hate to go to the market tomorrow. I hate to disturb you. (but I'm going to) **The gerund** to refer to a situation in general. */ hate going to the market. I hate disturbing you.* (in general)

When expressing purpose both the infinitive and the gerund can be used, but the gerund conveys the notion of general purpose:

The knife is for cutting, (general use)

/ want a knife to cut with, (particular use)

With the function of subject, either the infinitive or the gerund can be used: **The infinitive** is used when referring to a particular situation:

To hesitate would have been fatal. but it can also refer to general situations:

It always proves fatal to hesitate.

The gerund is used when the action is being considered in a general sense:

or

Hesitating always proves to be fatal.

The infinitive is used having theoretical connotations:

To learn French is more difficult than to learn English.

The gerund implies the fact that the speaker has had direct experience:

Learning French is more difficult than learning English.

433

The Verb

DIFFERENCE IN MEANING:

After the verb 'MEAN'

The infinitive is used to convey the meaning **'intend':**

He had never really meant to write that letter. **The gerund** is used to convey the meaning **'signify', 'have as a consequence':**

This meant getting up early and leaving in a hurry.

After the verb 'TRY'

The infinitive is used to convey the meaning **'to make an attempt to do something':**

One of the students tried to explain the meaning of that paragraph.

The gerund is used to convey the meaning **'to experiment with a new process or a new method':**

He says he intends to try practising some winter sports.

After the verb 'PROPOSE'

The infinitive is used to convey the meaning **'to intend':**

I propose to start tomorrow. **The gerund** is used to convey the meaning **'to suggest':**

I propose waiting till the police get here.

After 'GO ON'

The infinitive is used when the speaker continues talking about the same topic but introduces a new aspect of it:

He began by showing us how he put together the engine

and went on to show us how it works. **The gerund** is used to convey the meaning 'to continue':

He went on talking about his plans.

After the verb 'FORGET'

The infinitive is used to convey the meaning 'fail to remember'.

I'm afraid he will forget to write to me. **The gerund** is used to convey the meaning 'lose the memory of':

I shall never forget seeing the Swiss Alps for the first time.

After the verbs 'REMEMBER', 'REGRET'

The infinitive is used to refer to the present or future:

Remember to post the letter. **The gerund** is used to refer to the past:

I remember posting your letter. 434

•un

E^KSiSS^A^A^SS8

sir

.....

Smtfuiw dots

o\ pgsn si

fUufof

asodind ssgjdx a\ pasn si aAitmjui

<dOJS<

The Verb

6.3.31. THE INFINITIVE vs. THE PARTICIPLE

Verbs of sensation 'see', 'hear', 'feel', etc. may be followed by: The infinitive to imply that the action is not complete.

I felt the ice melt from the heat of my hand. (= I held it in

my hand until it completely melted) The present participle for both complete and incomplete actions:

I felt the ice melting from the heat of my hand. (= I didn't

wait for it to completely melt or = I waited for it to melt.) The infinitive is used to emphasize that the action has been performed

After 'have' + object

The infinitive without 'to' is used to cause someone to do something for us. The stress is on 'someone' :

Have John bring the car. (imperative) or in the expression with 'know' and 'believe':

I'll have you know that I'm the head of the company. The past participle is used for the causative (6.3.24.), to have something done by somebody. The stress is on something:

I had the car fixed.

The present participle is used to refer to intended results and unintended consequences:

I'll have you speaking English in no time.

You 'll have the neighbours complaining.

t. n (bring)

3.

. ihv

liSfS

iiiiiiiiitiii

436

A Practical English Grammar

l||i:ig|;:l||l||l iiSi

Sll;^AAAA

AAAA

piiiiiyiiiiipii^^^ IR

ppşp

iiiiP:~"-!iiii

i:~?.....liiiipiiiiiii^iis

||li||li|K

ijsijSug JBOUCJEIJ y

The Verb

l i

^AAAA^

.....^

l.....mm.....1.....

.f.....

.....mmmm

mmm.....!Slîl

440

iiiiili

iiiiE:»

qsijSug

y

The Adverb

7. THE ADVERB

Adverbs will be discussed as follows:

7.1. Types of adverbs

7.2. Modification of/by adverbs

7.3. Comparison of adverbs

7.4. Adverbs and adjectives (see also 2.5.2.)

7.1. TYPES OF ADVERBS

There are the following types of adverbs:

7.1.1. Adverbs of manner

7.1.2. Adverbs of place

7.1.3. Adverbs of time

7.1.4. Adverbial phrases of duration

7.1.5. Adverbs of frequency

7.1.6. Adverbs of degree

7. /. 1. AD VERBS of MANNER

DEFINITION

The adverbs of manner indicate the way in which something happens:

kindly , badly, well, fast, nicely, quickly, etc. An adverb of manner can usually be paraphrased by 'in a ... manner'

or 'in a ... way' with its adjective base in the vacant position. When an adverb form exists, it is usually preferred over such a corresponding cognate prepositional phrase with **'manner' or 'way'**:

He always writes carelessly, (preferred to *He always writes in a careless manner*).

The periphrastic form (in a ... manner/way) is preferred where the adjunct requires modification.

Successive -ly adverbs are avoided:

He runs incredibly carelessly. = *He runs in an incredibly careless manner.*

442

A Practical English Grammar

Adverbs of manner answer to the question **'How?'**:

"How was your boy dressed up?" "Oh, cowboy-style."

A

12° Other units as manner adjuncts can serve as responses to how-questions:

"How should I write to him?"

"As a friend would write."

It should be noted, however, that how-questions usually elicit means or instrument adjuncts:

"How did he clean his room."

"With a vacuum cleaner."

An answer like **Carefully* might be awkward. This is so because **'how'** is only rarely expected to elicit a manner adjunct.

FORMATION:

Adverbs of manner are usually formed by adding '-ly' to an adjective:

wonderful ^ *wonderfully*

Other, less common, derivational suffixes are:

-wise: *clockwise*

-fashion: *schoolboy-fashion*

-ways: *sideways*

-style: *cowboy-style*

RULES FOR FORMING -LY' ADVERBS

Adjectives ending in 'consonant + -le' form adverbs by replacing '-le' with

'-ly': *simple* => *simply*

Exception *whole* => *wholly*

1

1

1

1

1

1

	In adjectives ending in a 'consonant + y', 'y' is usually replaced by 'i' before '-ly': <i>happy => happily</i> K^° In some cases there exist alternative spellings: <i>dry^> drily/dryly, sly^> slily/slyly;</i> In other cases, -y is kept in the adverb: <i>spry=> sprily, wry => wryly</i> Kjp Note the spelling in the following adverbs ending in -y preceded by a vowel: <i>coy=>coyly, but gay=>gaily, due=>duly, true=Xruly</i>
MM	443

The Adverb

Adjectives ending in both '-ic' and '-ical' have corresponding adverbs in 'ically':

economic/economical ^economically,

tragic/tragical => tragically

Exception: *publics publicly*

Past participles form adverbs in **-edly** with the pronunciation [idli]: *marked^* markedly learned=> learnedly assuredly assuredly*

Adjectives in '-ary' form adverbs in **-arily** with shift of stress to the antepenultimate syllable:

secondary^*=> secon 'darily

'primary => primarily

It appears that '-ly' adverbs are not formed from typically stative adjective classes, such as adjectives denoting: **dimension** (*big - *bigly, tall - *tally*) **colour** (*red - *redly, blond - *blondly*) **age** (*old - *oldly, young - *youngly*).

POSITION

AD VERBS OF MANNER ARE PLA CED: After the direct object, if there is one

They speak English flawlessly. After the verb, if there is no direct object:

He was walking slowly.

If the direct object is long or is determined by a prepositional phrase of a relative clause, it comes after the adverb of manner:

They were carrying carefully a big vase decorated with beautiful flowers.

Before the verb, when this is in the **passive**:

Discussions have been tentatively begun.

Tear gas was indiscriminately sprayed on the protesters.

444

A Practical English Grammar

However, this position before the main verb is odd for **means and instrument adverbials** even in the passive, presumably because they have a higher priority for information focus than does the accompanying verb:

These linguistic units should be separated intentionally.

The specimen was examined microscopically.

;SljQ:3

.....^K

!IK^

Unmodified '**well**' when preceded by '**can**', '**could**', '**may**', or '**might**' must be in a positive declarative clause; the effect is to imply **probability** where the auxiliary alone connoted only possibility:

It may/might/can/could well be true that he beat her. (= it is quite likely to be true).

7. 1. 2. AD VERBS of PLACE

DEFINITION:

Adverbs of place indicate position:

here, there, in the room, on the table, etc. They answer to the question: '**Where?**'

445

The Adverb

FORM

Most of the adverbs of place are simple adverbs:

here, there But adverbs of place may be formed with the suffix '**-wards**':

south => southwards

The adverbs '**south**', '**southwards**', '**southward**' (Am.E.) correspond to the prepositional phrase **towards the south/east, etc.:** *The window faces south/southwards.*

POSITION

AD VERBS OF PL A CE ARE PL A CED:

After the direct object if there is one:

Mary brought her brother here. **After the verb**, when there is no direct object:

I looked everywhere, but I couldn't find my glasses. **After an adverb of manner**, if this exists in the sentence:

The children were playing happily in the garden.

USAGE of SPECIAL PLACE ADVERBS

'**SOMEWHERE**', '**ANYWHERE**' are used in the same way as '**some**' and any': *I saw your glasses somewhere.*

Did you see my glasses anywhere?

I didn't see your glasses anywhere. '**NOWHERE**' is chiefly used in short answers:

Where are you going? Nowhere.

7.1.3. ADVERBS of TIME

DEFINITION

Adverbs of time indicate the time at which something happened:

then, yet, still, now, today, in the afternoon, etc. They answer to the question: '**When?**'

POSITION

ADVERBS OF TIME ARE PLACED:

At the very beginning of the clause:

Last night I went to the Opera.

Then they went home.

At the very end of the clause to which they belong. The end position is more usual:

Tom yesterday.

He is watching TV now. 446

r

A Practical English Grammar

USAGE

The days of the week can be used without last', 'next' or 'on':

I'm seeing him Monday. (= this/next/on Monday) / *saw him Monday.* (= last/on Monday)

They are used with the definite article only when a specific Monday is in question:

The Monday he came was the Monday of the exam.

The definite article is never used with '*last/next Monday*'.

When '*this morning/afternoon/etc.*' is used reference may be made to:

The present:

I feel terrible this morning. (= now) The past:

I talked to him this morning. (= earlier) The future:

I'll speak to him this morning. (= later on) Note the phrases:

tomorrow night and *last night* (not * *yesterday night*) *the day before yesterday* and *the day after tomorrow*

^^

.....■"::llll|i::i:'i|-

447

The Adverb

'**YET**' AS AD VERB OF TIME

MEANING:

'**Yet**' means **up to the time of speaking.**

Used with the negative-interrogative '**yet**' usually expresses surprise or impatience:

Aren't you ready yet?

POSITION:

'**Yet**' should be placed **at the end** of a sentence: *He hasn't answered yet.*

USAGE:

'**Yet**' is chiefly used with the negative:

He hasn't finished yet and interrogative

Has Tom come yet? It is not normally used with the affirmative.

t^ '**STILL**' AS AD VERB OF TIME

MEANING:

'**Still**' means **during the time of speaking.** If '**still**' is stressed in speech, it expresses **surprise or**

irritation: *He is 'still in the bathroom.*

POSITION:

'**Still**' is usually placed:

Before the main verb:

He still studies to become a doctor. **After** the verb '**tobe**':

He is still abroad.

USAGE:

'**Still**' is used to emphasize that the action or state continues:

He is still abroad.

'**Still**' is chiefly used with the affirmative, but it can be used with the negative also to emphasize the continuation of the negative state or action:

He still doesn't understand.

448

r

A Practical English Grammar

^^S^BS^B^A^A^A^A^A^B

3

7.1.4. ADVERBIAL PHRASES of DURATION

DEFINITION

Adverbial phrases of duration indicate the period over which a certain activity evolves.

USAGE

Adverbs of time can be combined with the following elements to express

duration:

'**SINCE**' + an adverb indicating a point in time: / *haven't seen him since January.* Phrases with

'**since**' mark a period lasting till now.

Period of time + 'AGO':

I talked to her 5 minutes ago. Phrases with 'ago' mark the start of a period going back from now.
449

The Adverb

'FOR' + a period of time:

I haven't seen him for 5 years. Phrases with 'for' can refer to: **The past:**

/ worked in the US for 5 years. **The future:**

We will be staying therefor two weeks. **A past action lasting up to the present:** */ haven't seen her for three days.*

lililiffi t

'TILL' or 'UNTIL' + point of time:

/ will wait till 5 o'clock.

Phrases with 'till' or 'until' are used to refer to any time before and not later. They are used:

With continuity verbs: 'learn', 'He', 'rain', 'sleep', 'wait', 'work' :

/ will lie down till in the afternoon.

With point of time verbs: 'arrive', 'come', 'finish', 'leave' only in the negative:

/ will not finish till tomorrow.

'BY' + point of time:

/ will be there by 5 o'clock.

Phrases with 'by' are used to refer to any time before and not later. They are used :

With point of time verbs in the affirmative and the negative: *She will arrive by 5. She won't arrive by 5.* 450

A Practical English Grammar

A

13 ^{s*} Phrases w by' ar neve u with continuity verbs. ith e r sed
--

'DURING' in combination with a noun can mean: **'From the beginning till end':**

ff<2 enjoyed ourselves during the holidays. **'At some point during a period of time':**

/ will fix the lock during the weekend.

'During' may also appear in combination with a noun referring to an activity or event:

We watched a movie during the football game.

'IN' may also be used to refer to time:

We enjoyed ourselves in the holiday.

but it can't be used to refer to an activity.

Plillfpllt®

7.1.5. AD VERBS of FREQUENCY

DEFINITION

Adverbs of frequency indicate the frequency with which an action is performed:

often, sometimes, seldom, always, rarely, never, ever, etc.

451

The Adverb

Frequency can sometimes be conceived in absolute terms without concern for the period of time or implied span of time. In other words, frequency responds to **'How often?'**

Apart from non-numerical expressions of frequency (such as whenever-clauses) and some prepositional phrase patterns, time adjuncts of frequency are mostly realized by noun phrases or by adverbs. There are two major subclasses of time adjuncts of frequency: those showing definite frequency and those referring to indefinite frequency.

DEFINITE FREQUENCY

USAGE:

ADVERBS OF DEFINITE FREQUENCY express:

Explicitly the times by which the frequency is measured 'hourly', 'daily', 'nightly', 'monthly', 'yearly', 'biennially', 'twice a week/month etc.', 'every other week/month etc.':

I shall be in my office every other day.

Committee meetings take place weekly.

Occasional frequency 'once', 'twice', 'three times', 'on five occasions', 'a time or two', etc.):

Bob phoned twice today.

I visit England three times a year.

POSITION:

THE DEFINITE FREQUENCY ADVERBS ARE PLACED:

At the end of the sentence like all adverbs of time.

INDEFINITE FREQUENCY

USAGE:

ADVERBS OF INDEFINITE FREQUENCY may indicate:

Usual occurrence: 'usually', 'commonly', 'generally', 'invariably', 'normally', 'ordinarily', etc.:

He generally leaves home at seven.

We normally go to bed before midnight

Continuous frequency, 'always', 'constantly', 'continually', 'continuously', 'permanently', 'perpetually', etc.:

He is continually complaining about the noise.

They are perpetually in debt.

452

A Practical English Grammar

'Always' when preceded by **'can'** or **'could'** must be in a positive declarative clause:

You can always sleep on the floor. (= you can certainly...)

ADVERBS OF INDEFINITE FREQUENCY may indicate: **High frequency:** 'frequently', 'often', 'regularly', 'repeatedly':

I have often told them to relax more.

Low frequency 'occasionally', 'periodically', 'rarely', 'seldom', 'never' etc.:

We very

seldom see our elder son these days.

POSITION:

THE INDEFINITE FREQUENCY ADVERBS ARE PLACED:

After the simple tense of 'be':

He is never careful with the things he borrows. **Before the simple tenses of all the other verbs:**

We sometimes have guests for dinner. **After the first auxiliary with tenses consisting of more than one verb:**

She can never understand.

'Used to' and **'have to'** prefer the adverb in front of them: *You hardly ever have to remind him.*

Adverbs of frequency are often placed before auxiliaries when these are used alone, in addition to remarks or in answer to questions:

Can you park your car here? Yes. I usually can.

I know I should take more exercise but I never do. When the auxiliary is stressed, the adverb of frequency is usually placed before the auxiliary:

She hardly ever 'has met him.

For emphasis the adverb is placed at the beginning of a sentence: *Normally, we don't worry if they are late.* The above-mentioned sentence may also imply that the situation is at the moment of speech contrary to the usual situation: *7V0/7Ma(y we don't worry but now we are worried.* This can be opposed to the neutral positioning of the adverb: *We don't normally worry.*

453

The Adverb

iiiiis

Certain adverbs and adverb phrases, mostly with a restrictive or negative sense, can be placed for emphasis at the beginning of the sentence and are then followed by the inverted form of the verb. The

most important of these are:

'never', 'seldom', 'scarcely', 'ever', 'scarcely ... when', 'no sooner ... than', 'nowhere', 'in no circumstances', 'on no account', 'only by', 'only then', 'only when', 'only in this way', 'hardly', 'not only', 'so', 'neither', 'not', 'at no time': *Hardly had I moved when he woke up. At no time will he be allowed to do this.*

The adverbs 'in', 'out', 'up', 'down', 'round', 'over', 'back', 'forward', etc. when placed at the beginning of a sentence are followed by **verb + subject** in that order:

In came Tom.

Down fell half a dozen apples. If the subject is a pronoun there is no inversion:

In he came.

Back he went again.

^

454

A Practical English Grammar

7.1.6. AD VERBS of DEGREE

DEFINITION

Adverbs of degree make the word they modify weaker or stronger in meaning: *almost, nearly, quite, just, too, etc..*

The meaning can vary with intonation. **Adverbs of degree** may be:

7.1.6.1. *emphasizers*

7.1.6.2. *intensifies*.

In 7.1.6.3. some adverbs of degree will be discussed separately.

USAGE

ADVERBS OF DEGREE ARE USED to modify:

Adjectives: *He is quite a shy boy.*

Adverbs: *The dress looks quite well on you.*

Verb; the following adverbs can modify verbs '**almost**', '**nearly**', '**quite**', '**hardly**', '**scarcely**', '**barely**', and '**just**'

POSITION

ADVERBS OF DEGREE ARE PLACED:

Before the adjective or adverb it modifies: *The play was fairly interesting.*

Our team played extremely badly; it's no wonder they lost. **Before the verb or after the first auxiliary in case of compound forms:** *I quite understand. I am just going.*

'Enough' follows the adjective or adverb that it modifies: *He is tall enough to reach the ceiling.*

455

k

The Adverb

7.1.6.1. EMPHASIZERS

Some *emphasizers* are: 'actually', 'certainly', 'clearly', 'definitely', 'indeed', 'obviously', 'plainly', 'really', 'surely', 'for certain', 'for sure', 'of course' (all these imply that what is being said is true), 'frankly', 'honestly', 'simply', 'literally', etc. (these convey the speaker's assertion that his words are the unvarnished truth).

'Necessarily' is an *emphasizer* when preceded by 'must': *A school teacher who wishes to be honest must necessarily prepare her/his lessons.*

DEFINITION:

These adverbs are concerned with expressing the semantic role of modality. They have a reinforcing effect on the truth value of the clause or part of the clause to which they apply. In addition to the force of a constituent, *emphasizers* do not require that the constituent concerned be gradable. When, however, the constituent emphasized is gradable, the adverbial takes on the force of an intensifier:

He really may have injured innocent people.

(= emphasizer)

He may really have injured innocent people.

(= emphasizer)

He may have really injured innocent people. (= intensifier).

When some emphasizers are used with gradable verbs they may also have a scaling effect akin to that of boosters:

He really likes her. (= he likes her very much)

I indeed appreciate your help. (= I greatly appreciate your help)

He definitely impressed them. (= he impressed them greatly)

Other emphasizers tend to have a scaling effect more readily with gradable words that are adjectives and nouns:

She is certainly intelligent. (= she is very intelligent) *He's obviously a fool* (= he's a big fool)

456

A Practical English Grammar

POSITION

Most emphasizers precede the item they emphasize:

Joan will certainly object and so will Mary.

'For certain' and 'for sure' are, nevertheless, placed at the end: *They don't know for certain. I can't tell you for sure.*

In general, the emphasizers do not appear with imperatives, but some people use 'actually', 'definite', and 'really' with imperatives:

Don't actually hate him for it - it was a mistake.

Definitely buy one now.

Make an effort this time; but really make an effort.

IH[^]

7.1.6.2. INTENSIFIERS

DEFINITION:

Intensifiers are broadly concerned with the semantic category of degree. An intensifying adverb indicates a point on an abstractly conceived intensity scale; and the point indicated may be relatively low or relatively high. They apply to a predicate or to some part of the predicate. The verbs in question are largely expressive of attitude. They may be amplifiers and downtoners.

457

The Adverb

Amplifiers can also be subdivided into:

Maximizers, which can denote the upper extreme of the scale '**absolutely**', '**altogether**', '**completely**', '**entirely**', '**extremely**', '**fully**', '**perfectly**', '**thoroughly**', '**totally**', '**utterly**':

They fully appreciate our problems.,

Boosters, which denote a high degree '**badly**', '**bitterly**', '**deeply**', '**enormously**', '**highly**', '**intensely**', '**severely**', '**strongly**', '**terribly**', '**well**', '**a great deal**', '**a good deal**', '**a lot**', '**by far**':

They greatly admire his music. They resent him deeply.

I3B

^^^

ffi

iS

Downtoners have a generally lowering effect on the force of the verb or predication and many of them apply a scale to gradable verbs. They can be divided into four groups:

Approximators: 'almost', 'nearly', 'practically', 'virtually', 'all but':

/ *almost resigned.*

Compromisers: 'kind of', 'sort of', 'rather', 'enough', 'sufficiently', etc.:

/ *kind of like him.*

458

A Practical English Grammar

Diminishers: 'partially', 'partly', 'slightly', 'somewhat', 'to some extent', 'a bit', 'least of all', 'only', 'merely', 'simply', etc.:

I partly agree with you.

It was merely a matter of finance.

Minimizers: 'in the least', 'in the slightest', 'at all', 'a bit', 'little', 'hardly', 'barely', etc.:

/ *didn't enjoy it in the least.*

She barely knows me.

ilS

^

^

7.1.6.3. Some ADVERBS of DEGREE

THE AD VERB 'ONLY'

'Only' is supposed to be placed next to the word to which it applies, preceding verbs, adjectives, and adverbs and preceding or following nouns and pronouns. In spoken English, however, it is usually put before the verb, obtaining the required meaning by stressing the word to which 'only' makes reference:

He only had 'six apples. (= he had only six apples)

He only lent the car to 'me (= not to anyone else)

/ *only believed 'half* (= I believed only half of what he said)

459

The Adverb

THE ADVERB 'QUITE'

'Quite' is a confusing word because it has two meanings:

It means **completely**:

When it is used with a word or phrase which can express the idea of completeness: 'full', 'empty', 'finished', 'wrong', 'right', 'all right', 'sure', 'certain', 'determined', 'ready', etc.

The bottle was quite empty.

When it is used with a very strong adjective/adverb such as 'perfect', 'amazing', 'horrible', 'extraordinary':

It's quite extraordinary. It means **less than**:

When used with other adjectives/adverbs, so that *quite good* is less complimentary than *good*:

How did you enjoy the play. Oh, well, it was quite good.

(= moderately good)

This is valid when the intonation is neutral, but 'quite' may vary in strength and meaning according to specific stress:

The play was quite\ good. (= I enjoyed it on the whole)

The play was quite-l good. (= I didn't enjoy it)

THE ADVERBS 'FAIRLY' and 'QUITE'

'Fairly' often goes with 'good' adjectives: 'good', 'nice', 'well', etc., being less complementary than 'quite':

"How is her English?" "Excellent" -very complementary "Good" -neutral "Quite good"-

complementary "Fairly good"- less complementary

THE ADVERBS 'FAIRLY', 'PRETTY', 'RATHER'

These adverbs can be used as intensifiers for certain adverbs that convey a favourable meaning:

It's fairly warm in here. (= warm enough).

It's rather warm in here. (= too warm)-implies that the room is warmer than we desire

It's pretty warm in here. (= stating a fact)

460

A Practical English Grammar

With adjectives/adverbs such as: '**fast**', '**slow**', '**thin**', 'thick', 'hot', 'old', etc. which do not exhibit explicitly the favourable or unfavourable quality, '**Fairly**' is used to express **approval**:

The tea is fairly hot. (= the speaker likes it hot) '**Rather**' is used to express **disapproval**:

The tea is rather hot (= the speaker implies that it is too hot for him/her) '**Pretty**' is used to express **neutrality**:

The tea is pretty hot. (= it simply states a fact)

'**Rather**' differs from '**pretty**' and '**fairly**' in that it alone can intensify:

Comparative or 'too'-constructions:

rather better

rather too small

Certain noun phrases denoting adjectival qualities:

rather a pity

rather a fool

rather a crowd

Certain verbs: 'enjoy', 'like', 'dislike', 'object', 'annoy', etc.:

It rather annoys me that she is always late.

I rather like the smell of petrol.

With other nouns, '**rather**' alone has variable position in relation to the indefinite article:

a rather difficult task

or *rather a difficult task.*

'**Rather**' can be used before '**alike**', '**like**', '**similar**', '**different**', etc. with the meaning 'a little or slightly':

Siamese cats are rather like dogs in some ways.

'**Rather**' can be used before adjectives/adverbs that exhibit explicitly favourable quality: '**good**', '**well**', '**pretty**', '**clever**', '**amusing**', etc. but its

meaning changes, becoming nearly equivalent to '**very**', and the idea of disapproval disappears:

She is rather clever.

461

The Adverb

'**Rather**' used to mean 'very' is obviously much more complimentary than '**fairly**'. So if we say

It's a fairly good play we discourage others from going to see it, but

It's a rather good play is definitely a recommendation.

filllffiiss

iiillife?:s jliip: ^

THE AD VERBS 'HARDL Y', 'BAREL Y', 'SCARCEL Y'

They are very similar. They have a negative meaning.

'**Hardly**' is chiefly used with '**any**', '**ever**', or the verb 'can': / *have hardly any money* (= very, very little) / *hardly ever go out* (= I very, very seldom go out) / *can hardly see the mark* (= I can see only with difficulty).

'**Barely**' means '**no more than**' and is often used with adjectives such as '**enough**' and '**sufficient**':

He had barely enough to eat (= he was often hungry) *She was barely sixteen* (= only just sixteen) / *can barely see it* (= I can hardly see it).

'**Scarcely**' combines the meanings of '**hardly**' and '**barely**'.

462

A Practical English Grammar

THE ADVERBS 'CERTAINLY' and 'SURELY'

'**Certainly**' takes the same position as the adverbs of frequency and has the meaning '**know for a**

fact', 'it is definite'.

I'm certainly not going out in this rain.

He'll certainly not forget to bring it. 'Surely' can replace 'certainly', but is rarely found with this meaning.

Coming at the beginning of a sentence, or less frequently at the end, or immediately after the subject if it is a pronoun, it has the meaning 'I firmly believe', 'I very much hope this to be true', 'it's not certain', 'but I feel confident it will probably happen'.

Surely, you are not going out in this rain (= I should be very much surprised if you did).

He surely won't forget to bring it (= I hope not).

|||[^]

7.2 MODIFICATION OF/BY ADVERBS

7.2.1. Premodification by adverbs

7.2.2. Premodification of adverbs

463

The Adverb

l»

7.2.1. PREMODIFICATION BY ADVERBS

An adjective may be premodified by adverbs. Most commonly, the modifying adverb is an intensifier (an **amplifier** or a **downtoner**) or an emphasizer:

Amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm:

awfully sorry, downright ridiculous, sharply critical, totally unacceptable, amazingly calm, entirely free, highly intelligent, perfectly reasonable, etc.

Downtoners have a generally lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm:

a bit dull, almost impossible, nearly dark, barely intelligible, hardly noticeable, somewhat uneasy, etc.

In informal speech, '**kind of**' and '**sort of**' are used as downtoners for adjectives and adverbs:

He's sort of clever.

She spoke kind of proudly.

The following intensifiers are typical of informal speech (especially AE):

real nice, plain silly, awful good, mighty helpful. '**Sure**' is similarly used in informal AE:

That's sure kind of you (= certainly).

Emphasizers, add to the force of the adjective:

She has a really beautiful face.

The play is very good indeed.

He looked all confused.

That's just impossible.

Unlike intensifiers, emphasizers co-occur with non-gradable adjectives, but the effect is often similar to that of intensifiers:

You are certainly welcome (= very/most welcome).

An adverb may be premodified by another adverb. Similar sets of intensifiers are used for adverbs and adjectives:

I expect them pretty soon.

He spoke extremely quickly.

464

r

A Practical English Grammar

Particles in phrasal verbs, as well as prepositions, or prepositional phrases may be premodified by a few intensifying adverbs, particularly 'right' and 'well':

He knocked the man right out.

The nail went right through the wall.

He made his application well within the time.

Indefinite pronouns can be premodified by intensifying adverbs: *Nearly everybody came to our party.*

Predeterminers can be premodified by intensifying adverbs:

He received about double the amount he expected. **Cardinal numerals** can be premodified by intensifying adverbs:

Over two hundred deaths were reported.

As many as fifty candidates had applied for the job.

Ordinals and superlatives can be premodified by intensifying adverbs: *We counted approximately the first thousand votes.*

Noun phrases may be premodified by a few intensifiers. These precede the determiner in doing so.

The most common of these are '**quite**' and '**rather**':

We had quite a party.

It was rather a mess.

With '**kind of**' and '**sort of**' there are several possible constructions in informal style:

This must be a sort of joke.

This must be sort of a joke.

This must be a sort of a joke.

This must be a joke, sort of. (most informal)

Only a few adverbs premodify nouns within the noun phrase: *an away game* *an inside job*

in after years *an outside door*

inside information *the then chairman* *an outside line*

A number of adverbs signifying place and time function as complement of a preposition:

Come over here.

Do you live near here?

How do we get out of here.

465

The Adverb

7.2.2. PREMODIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

Noun phrases may premodify:

The following gradable measure adjectives '**deep**', '**high**', '**long**', '**old**', '**tall**', '**thick**', and '**wide**' when these are used as adverbs:

Peter can jump five feet high.

They stayed up all night long. Adverbs such as the following :

The lake is two miles across.

The tree is six feet around.

7.3. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

FORM

Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives: '**fast**', '**hard**', '**late**', '**long**', '**quick**', '**high**', '**far**', '**deep**', '**near**' take the inflections '-er' for the comparative and '-est' for the superlative. They follow the same spelling and phonological rules as for adjectives:

You have to work harder/faster/longer. The birds flew higher.

Sometimes the comparative '-er' form of the adjective can function as the comparative of the adverb:

That's easier said than done (= more easily).

Speak clearer! (= more clearly).

Speak louder! (= more loudly).

Normally adverbs of two or more syllables form the comparative with '**more**' and the superlative with '**most**':

She danced more gracefully than the other girls. The comparative of equality is formed with *as ... as* (with an affirmative verb) and *as/so ... as* with a negative verb: *He worked as slowly as he dared. He doesn't snore as/so loudly as you do.*

466

A Practical English Grammar

For a small number of adverbs, the inflected forms used for comparison are the same as those for adjectives:

<i>badly</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>well</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less (lesser)</i>	<i>least</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i>
	<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i>
<i>much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>

'**Worse**' as the comparative of '**badly**' is used in:

He behaves even worse than his brother. With '**need**' and '**want**' the periphrastic form is required in BE:

I really need that job more badly than you. Here '**badly**' is not a process adverb, as also indicated by position:

I badly need that job. But we cannot say

**He badly behaves.*

Compounds of '**well**' and '**ill**' + **participle** have both types of comparison:

well-behaved, better-behaved, best-behaved or more well-behaved, most well-behaved.

7.4. ADVERBS and ADJECTIVES

Some words can be used either as adjectives or adverbs without '-ly':

It was a fast train, (adj.)

The train went fast, (adv.) Other examples are: *better, best, early, hard, high, last, late, monthly, near, wide, worse.*

Some of these when adding '-ly' to them change their meaning: '**HIGHLY**' is used only in an abstract sense:

He was highly placed.

They spoke highly of him. '**LOWLY**' is an adjective meaning '**humble**'.

467

The Adverb

'**LATELY**' means **recently**'. '**NEARLY**' means **almost**'. '**PRESENTLY**' means **soon**'. '**SHORTLY**' means **briefly**' or '**soon**'

DEEPLY, '**WARMLY**', '**HOTLY**', '**COOLLY**' and '**COLDLY**' are used mainly in an emotional sense: *I/e was deeply hurt.*

He denied the accusations hotly.

She welcomed me warmly. '**JUSTLY**' means '**fair**'. There are adjectives that end in '-ly':

friendly, lively, lovely, motherly, silly.

If we want to use these words as adverbs we use the construction '**in a ...manner/fashion/way**':

That was a cowardly thing to do; you acted in a cowardly way.

The verbs of perception '**smell**', '**taste**', '**feel**', as well as the verbs '**look**' and '**sound**' which do duty for '**see**' and '**hear**' are followed by:

An adjective if they describe the subject (i.e. the grammatical subject is the object of perception):

The flowers look wonderful.

I feel fine.

You look tired. **Adverbs of manner** when these verbs indicate activities:

He was tasting cautiously the coffee.

He opened the door and looked carefully around the room.

The verb '**seem**' behaves in a similar way:

He seems contented with the situation.

t^ Strangely, '**look**' is an exception to this rule; it is possible to say both:

You look well.

You are looking well.

This may be due to an analogy with *I feel-am feeling well.*

r

s

There may be approximation between an adjective attached to an object and an adverb, in cases such as:

He did his sums wrong(ly)

in that the last word in this sentence may be regarded either as the result of the verbal action's effect on the object or as a description of the course of the action. Similar cases are:

She cut the bread thin.

God created men and women different.

The loose attachment of such phrases makes it possible to regard these as either adjectival or adverbial in value. The adverbial form is more usual:

Naturally, she would marry in the end.

Adjectives are used in a few cases of this kind:

But doubtless his position was not an enviable one.

I shall doubtless see you tomorrow (= probably). For the full value, '**undoubtedly**' is used now:

He is undoubtedly guilty.

'SURE' is very common in the phrases '**sure enough**', '**as sure as**': *I said it would happen, and sure enough it did. There will be another war, as sure as fate.*

469

The Adverb

'**LIKELY**' is common in the phrases 'very likely', 'most likely', 'as likely as':

He will very likely refuse.

I shall most likely tell you some day.

He will succeed as likely as not.

After 'as' and 'than', we find 'usual', and not 'usually', where it can be regarded as an abbreviation of 'as is/was usual, than is/was usual':

He felt more faint than usual.

A large number of adjectives + prepositions have become prepositional phrases and are found unchanged also where not attached to a noun, even though the adjectives in question otherwise add -ly when used adverbially:

Every known precaution has been adopted, regardless of expense. These expressions are:

'according to'

'contrary to'

'exclusive of'

'preparatory to'

'pursuant to'

'regardless of'

REVISION

i!i!!113!;S

III!

470

8. SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

The following clauses will be taken up for discussion:

- 8.1. Direct object clauses and the sequence of tenses
- 8.2. Clauses of place, time and manner
- 8.3. If-clauses
- 8.4. Clauses of purpose
- 8.5. Clauses of result
- 8.6. Clauses of concession
- 8.7. Clauses of contrast, exception, and sentential relative clauses
- 8.8. Clauses of reason and comparison

Relative clauses have been the subject of subchapters 4.7.1., 4.7.2.

8.1. DIRECT OBJECT CLAUSES and SEQUENCE OF TENSES

The **sequence of tenses** refers to the relationship established between the tense-form of the verb in the main clause and the tense-form of the verbs in the subordinate clauses dominated by the main clause.

The following rules refer only to finite verb forms.

Main clause: PRESENT, PRESENT PERFECT or FUTURE, Subordinate clause: the tense form required by the LOGICAL meaning:

/ think that it will rain.

Now he realizes that he has made a mistake.

Mary says that she feels miserable.

Main clause: PAST

Subordinate clauses: a tense referring to the PAST

/ thought that it would rain.

He realized that he had made a mistake.

472

A Practical English Grammar

The past tense used in the subordinate clause depends on the relationship between activities expressed by the verbal forms. The verb in the subordinate clause may indicate an activity that is **simultaneous** with, **anterior or posterior** to the activity in the main clause:

Simultaneity:

Main clause: PAST

Subordinate clauses: PAST TENSE SIMPLE or CONTINUOUS

He told me that he was a student in the first year. Anteriority:

Main clause: PAST

Subordinate clauses: PAST PERFECT

Thomas told me that he had already graduated. Posteriority:

Main clause: PAST

Subordinate clauses: FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST / *knew he would leave the next day.*

EXCEPTIONS TO THESE RULE

If the activity or state expressed by the verb in the subordinate clause describes a **general activity or a universal truth** the verb in the subordinate clause may be in the present tense regardless of the fact that the verb in the main clause may be in the past: **Main clause: PAST Subordinate clauses: can be PRESENT TENSE:**

The teacher told us that the Earth moves round the Sun. The stationmaster told us that the train leaves at 4.37.

Non-finite tense forms are not affected by the rules above:

He wants to go to London. He wanted to go to London.

In relative clauses (see 4.7.1., 4.7.2.) the tense is not affected by these rules because the verb in the relative clause is not in a relationship of dependency with the main verb. The relative clause is dominated by a noun or pronoun in the main clause. If the verb in the main clause is in the past the

verb in the relative clause may take any tense required: **Main clause: PAST**

Relative clause: ANY TENSE REQUIRED BY THE MEANING *Yesterday I met the man that lives/will live/has lived next door.*

473

Subordinate Clauses

In comparative clauses following a main clause that has the verb in the past a present form can be used because we can compare a present activity with a past activity:

Main clause: PAST

Comparative clause: can be PRESENT

Last year he worked more than he works this year.

||||

mm

|||

|||||||

474

111

ill

A Practical English Grammar

8.2. CLAUSES OF PLACE, TIME and MANNER

CLAUSES OF PLACE are introduced by 'where', 'wherever', 'anywhere' and 'everywhere':

The dog follows me wherever I go.

CLAUSES OF TIME are introduced by 'when', 'after', 'as', 'as

soon as', 'before', 'by the time that', 'once', 'since', 'until', 'while': *I lost a lot of weight when I was ill*

In time clauses referring to the future the simple present is used: *John will move to a new flat when he gets a promotion.*

CLAUSES OF MANNER are introduced by (in) the way (that)',

'(in) the same way', 'as if', 'as though':

Type this again in the way I showed you.

He was acting so stupid as though he wanted deliberately to make me angry.

8.3. IF-CLAUSES

The central uses of conditional clauses express a direct condition, i.e. they convey that the situation in the main clause is directly contingent on that of the conditional clause. This means that the truth of the statement in the main clause is a consequence of the fulfilment of the condition in the conditional clause.

There are three kinds of conditional sentences:

8.3.1. Real condition:

He'll get to the station in time if he gets a taxi.

8.3.2. Improbable condition:

If I knew his address, I'd give it to you.

8.3.3. Impossible condition:

If he had driven more carefully, he wouldn't have had that horrible accident. Other important aspects concerning the conditional clauses are:

8.3.4. Replacements for 'if'

8.3.5. Peripheral uses of the conditional

475

Subordinate Clauses

8.3.1. REAL CONDITION

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

To express a real condition we use the combination:

Main clause: Any indicative tense required by the meaning. If- clause: Any indicative tense

required by the meaning EXCEPT THE FUTURE.

If you left (= past) your books at school, you 'll find (= future) them tomorrow.

If you liked (= past) the picture postcards, why didn't you buy (= past) some.

I'll give (= future) him the book if I meet (= present for future) him tomorrow.

If you don't like (= present) your job, why don't you change (= present) it?

THE IMPERATIVE and IF-CLAUSES USES of REAL CONDITION

The imperative may be used in the main clause:

If you see him, tell him to write to me.

The imperative may replace the if-clause in order to comment, threaten or request. In this case the clause containing the imperative will be placed at the beginning: *Finish your homework and you may go out.*

When the if-clause that is being replaced is in the affirmative the original main clause and the clause containing the imperative will be connected by **'and'**: *If you fail to pay they 'll cut off the electricity.*
=> *Fail to pay and they'll cut off the electricity.*

When the if-clause that is being replaced is in the negative the original main clause and the clause containing the imperative will be connected by **'or'**:

If you don't stop borrowing money, you 'll be in trouble. => *Stop borrowing money or you 'll be in trouble.*

fl

il;::^ A;§I11I^
476
,

A Practical English Grammar

THE SUBJUNCTIVE and IF-CLAUSES USES of REAL CONDITION

The present subjunctive is sometimes used for open conditions in conditional clauses, instead of the normal present tense:

If any vehicle be found parked on these premises without written permission, it shall be towed away at the expense of the vehicle's owner.

This use is mainly confined to formal, legal, or quasi-legal contexts.

THE USE OF MODALS WHEN EXPRESSING A REAL CONDITION

WILL/WON'T

'Will' can be used in conditional clauses, as a modal verb, not as the mark of the future to mean **'be willing'**:

If you will look after my luggage I'll buy the tickets (= if you are willing to...).

If he will listen to me, I'll give him some useful advice

(= if he is willing to ...) **'Will'** can also be used in a conditional clause to express **'insistence'**:

If you will put handfuls of salt into everything you eat, no

wonder you are always thirsty (= if you insist on putting.) 'Won't' can be used when it means **'refuses'**:

If he won't come, we'll ask someone else (= if he refuses)

In all these sentences **'will'** can be replaced by a simple present, but the modal shade is lost:

If you look after my luggage...,

If he listens to me...

SHOULD

'Should' can be used in this type of conditional clause to point out that the action expressed by the verb in the subordinate clause, though possible, **is not likely to happen**:

If anyone should call while I'm out, tell him to wait. If this machine should at any time fail to give complete satisfaction please post the enclosed card.

When we have this kind of construction '**should**' is often placed at the beginning of the sentence and '**if**' is omitted:

Should anyone call while I'm out, tell him to wait.

477

Subordinate Clauses

'Should' may be used in the main clause after if + present tense with the meaning of giving advice:

If you suffer from vertigo, you shouldn't look over the edges of cliffs.

MUST

'Must' may be used in the main clause after if + present tense with the meaning of giving advice:

If you don't feel comfortable with the situation, you must not accept it.

CAN and MAY

'Can' or 'may' may be used in the main clause after if + present tense, to express:

Possibility.

If he starts now, he may be on time. Permission

If you are in a hurry, you can take my car.

.....KŞİK

Bsna

478

A Practical English Grammar

IIIIIIIIIIkS IIIIIIIIIIS

IMPROBABLE CONDITION

The improbable condition-clause may be used instead of the real condition-clause to describe something that is reasonably possible. *If you go by train, you'll get there earlier.* (reasonably possible)

If you went by train, you would get there earlier.

(more tentative)

SEQUENCE OF TENSES:

To express improbable condition, we use the combination:

Main clause: present conditional (= should/would + short infinitive) **If-clause: subjunctive 2**

present (= identical to the simple past tense

indicative):

I would give you his address if I knew it. The temporal reference is made to **the present** or **future time**.

'**Can**', '**may**', and '**will**' have the forms '**could**', '**might**', and '**would**' both for **present conditional** and **present subjunctive**:

I would if I could I could if I would.

Mainly in British English, if the supposition is contrary to known facts, 'be' has the form '**were**' for all persons:

If I were you, I would leave immediately. If '**were**' is used in the subordinate clause, it can be placed first for emphasis and 'if' is omitted:

Were I to go there, I would leave immediately.

479

Subordinate Clauses

THE USE OF 'WOULD' IN EXPRESSING AN IMPROBABLE CONDITION

'Would' can be used in the if-clause with a modal value:

If you would let me have an answer by return, I should be very grateful.

If you would kindly wait a moment, I'll ask the manager to speak to you.

'Would like' and 'would care', which are equivalents of 'want' and 'wish', can be used with a future or present form in the main clause:

If you would like to come, I'll get a ticket for you.

$$\begin{array}{l} f_{\rightarrow}^{<\wedge\wedge}\\ \geq \quad ,f_1^{\prime},?_2,\text{'t}_k\text{' }\\ 8I'di..., '\text{'}; \blacksquare; \blacksquare : < ;' ; \text{ } _x "I \text{ } , \text{ } \blacksquare \\ \text{' } r'; \blacksquare \blacksquare \text{' } \blacksquare \blacksquare j t . \sim ?? ! W ; 2' 22' 22 - ' L' f i' V' , ! \text{ } . \quad \backslash , \text{ } . \backslash' \text{ } , \text{ } " , \text{ } " ! " " ! \\ : \\ < ^{+9} \text{ } - \text{ } " \text{ } ' \text{ } ' \text{ } \\ " I ; H f ; j ; \dots ; \dots ; \wedge ; v i ; || \end{array}$$

fa

480

A Practical English Grammar

i^A

IMPOSSIBLE CONDITION

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

To express impossible condition, we can use the combination:

Main clause: past conditional (should/would + perfect infinitive) If-clause: past subjunctive (= the form is identical with the past perfect indicative):

If I had known about your arrival, I should have met you at the airport.

MODAL VERBS IN EXPRESSING IMPROBABLE CONDITIONS

'Might' and 'could' can replace the auxiliary **'should/would'** in the main clause and are followed by the **perfect infinitive** of the main verb: *We could have saved his life if we had had a car.*

Normally, the modal verbs in the subordinate clause must be replaced by equivalents:

/ should have helped you if I had been able to. However, especially in American English, the forms **'could'**, **'might'**, or **'would'** can be used in the subordinate clause followed by a perfect infinitive:

If I could have saved him the trouble, of course, I should have done it.

'IP can be omitted and the auxiliary **'had'** moves in front of the subject. If the conjunction is omitted, the subordinate clause is normally placed first:

Had I known you were in town, I should have tried to get in touch with you.

481

A Practical English Grammar

8.3.4. REPLACING THE CONJUNCTION 'IF'

i

'If + negative verb' in a real condition can be replaced by 'unless + affirmative verb':

If you don't leave at once, I'll call the police. => Unless you leave at once, I'll call the police.

With 'unless' there is a greater focus on the condition as an exception (= only if... not). There are therefore contexts **in** which the unless-clause cannot occur:

I'll feel much happier if he doesn't come with us but not:

**I'll feel much happier unless he comes with us.*

If can also be replaced by **provided/providing (that)**, **'on (the) condition (that)'**, **'so long as'** when there is a rather stronger idea of **limitation or restriction**. *She may go, as long as he goes with her.*

You can camp in my field provided you promise to leave no mess.

'If' can also be replaced by '**supposing**'/ '**suppose**' and '**assuming**': *Supposing we are late, what can we do? Assuming that the movie starts at eight, shouldn't we be leaving now?*

'**If-clauses**' can also be introduced by: '**even if**':

Even if you paid me, I still wouldn't do it.

Other conditional subordinators are: **given (that)**, **in case**, **in the event that**, **just so (that)**:

He doesn't mind inconveniencing others just so he's comfortable.

In case you want me, I'll be in my office till lunchtime.

'**If only**' + **present tense** or '**will**' expresses **hope**. *If only he comes in time. If only he will listen to me.*

483

Subordinate Clauses

S:&

.....■'f'::\;;S|li|>:..:::

itl|ISIB

'**If it had not been for**' can be replaced by **but for**':

If it hadn't been for the storm, we should have arrived earlier.

=> *But for the storm, we should have arrived earlier.*

8.3.5. PERIPHERAL USES OF CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

INDIRECT CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

These clauses express an **indirect condition**, i.e., the condition is not related to the situation in the main clause:

She's far too considerate, if I may say so.

In conventional politeness, the speaker is making the utterance of the assertion dependent on obtaining permission from the hearer, though the fulfilment of that condition is conventionally taken for granted:

She and I are good friends, if you understand me.

THE CONDITIONAL CLAUSE MAY: Be a conventional expression of politeness:

If you don't mind my saying so, your slip is showing.

If I may be quite frank with you, I don't approve of any concessions to ignorance.

Be a metalinguistic comment. It explicitly or implicitly calls for the hearer's agreement:

His style is florid, if that's the right word.

She is resigning, if you know what I mean.

484

A Practical English Grammar

Other examples include:

if I may put it so *if that's the correct term*

if that's the word for it *if you see what I mean*

if I may phrase it delicately/loosely/figuratively/crudely if you like, etc.

THE CONDITIONAL CLAUSE MAY:

Express uncertainty about the extralinguistic knowledge required for a correct interpretation of the utterance:

I met your girlfriend Caroline last night, if Caroline is your girlfriend.

The war was started by the other side, if you remember your history lessons. Other examples include:

if I am correct *if I understand you correctly*

if we can believe the experts *in case you don't remember* *in case you don't know* *if you've not forgotten already*

if you know what I'm referring to

Express the condition under which the speaker makes the utterance: *If you're going my way, I need a lift back.*

RHETORICAL CONDITIONAL CLAUSE USES

These give the appearance of expressing an open condition, but they actually make a **strong assertion**.

There are two types of rhetorical if-clauses, conveying the following

meanings:

If the statement in the main clause is absurd, the meaning of the conditional clause is **false**:

If they 're Irish, I'm the Pope.

If you believe that, you 'll believe anything.

If the statement of the main clause is true, the meaning of the conditional clause is also **true**. This type is used with measure expressions:

He's ninety if he's a day.

The package weighed ten pounds if it weighed an ounce.

485

Subordinate Clauses

8.4. CLA USES OF PURPOSE

PURPOSE EXPRESSED BY AN INFINITIVE

Purpose is usually expressed by an infinitive if **the subject of the main verbs is identical with the subject of the activity expressed by the infinitive**: *He went to the market to buy fruit.*

I left early to catch the train.

When there is a **personal object** of the main verb, this infinitive will refer to this and not to the subject:

He sent his son to the town to buy wine. If the purpose refers to the **subject 'so as'** is used:

Peter sent his son into the garden so as to have some

peace. If the infinitive refers to a personal object, this is preceded by **'for'**:

They left the door open in order for me to hear the baby.

'So as' is also used when the purpose is less immediate:

We joined the library so as to have plenty to read. **'So as'** is also used to express negative purpose:

He came in quietly so as not to wake the child. **In order to** can also be used:

She learned how to type in order to help her

husband with his work.

PURPOSE EXPRESSED BY CLA USES OF PURPOSE

Clauses are necessary when the person to whom the purpose refers is mentioned instead of being merely understood.

INTRODUCTORY WORDS

'So that', the most common conjunction to express purpose:

I took many driving lessons so that I might pass my driving test.

'In order that' or **that + may/might** or **shall/should** are used in formal contexts:

We carved their names on the stone in order that future generations should/might know what they had done.

486

A Practical English Grammar

In case and **lest** having a negative meaning and being followed by **'should + infinitive'** irrespective of the tense of the main verb:

He left early lest he should miss the train.

He doesn't dare to leave the house in case he should be recognized.

Usually **'in case'** is followed by a simple present or past tense:

He doesn't dare to leave the house in case he is recognized.

'For fear (that)' conveys the meaning of apprehension and requires a modal auxiliary, but **'in case'** need not have a modal auxiliary:

They left early for fear (that) they would/should meet him.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

Main clause: PRESENT, PRESENT PERFECT, FUTURE or IMPERATIVE Purpose clause: **will/may + infinitive of the verb:**

He studies hard so that he will pass the exam.

If the verb in the clause of purpose is a **verb of perception**, **can + infinitive** is used:

Come closer so that I can see you better.

Main clause: PAST

Purpose clause: would/might, or could:

They wrote the notices in several languages so that foreign tourists could understand them.

If **'that'** is omitted from purpose clauses with **'can/could'**, the idea of purpose disappears:

He took my shoes so that I couldn't leave the house (= purpose).

He took my shoes so I couldn't leave the house (= consecutive).

487

Subordinate Clauses

NEGATIVE PURPOSE CLAUSES

Normally, negative purpose clauses are made by placing the negation between the auxiliary (usually **will/would** or **should**) and the main verb:

He wrote his diary in cipher so that his wife wouldn't be able to read it.

Negative purpose can be **replaced** by: **'prevent + noun/pronoun + gerund':**

He dyed his beard to prevent us recognizing him. 'avoid + gerund':

He dyed his beard to avoid being recognized.

8.5. CLAUSES OF RESULT

Clauses of result are introduced by **'so (that)'**.

The difference between a result clause and a purpose clause which it resembles is that result clauses are factual rather than putative: both express result, but in the result clause the result is achieved, whereas in the purpose clause it is yet to be achieved:

We paid him immediately, so (that) he left contended.

(= result)

We paid him immediately so that he would leave contended. (= purpose) 488

A Practical English Grammar

Result clauses can only appear finally:

I took no notice of him, so he flew into a rage. Unlike the purpose clause, the result clause introduced by **so** is separated by comma.

In one type of comparative clause, the clause expresses result. This type has the correlatives **'so ... that'** or **'such ... that'** and follows the usual rules of the sequence of tenses. **'Such'** is an adjective and is used:

In front of a noun preceded by an adjective:

It was such a hot day that nobody wanted to go out. **'So'** is an adverb and is used: In front of adverbs:

The snow fell so fast that our footprints were covered up in a few minutes.

In front of adjectives which are not followed by their nouns: *The day was so hot that nobody wanted to go out.*

'Such' is never used in front of **'much'** and **'many'**.

'So' is used even when **'much'** or **'many'** determine nouns. *There were so many people in the market that I couldn't find Tom.*

There was so much dust that we couldn't see what was happening.

!!!!B:!!!!jll|::: 'lillli^ JllltF⁵%««■;; \ 'Skii::Ji

489

Subordinate Clauses

8.6. CLAUSES OF CONCESSION

Concessive clauses indicate that the situation in the main clause is contrary to expectation in the light of what is said in the concessive clause.

INTRODUCTORY WORDS

Clauses of concession are introduced by **'although'** or the more informal **though**, as well as **'however + adjective/adverb, 'whatever', 'no matter', 'even if, 'while', 'as' or 'though'** in the combination **"adjective + as' or though + subject + be', 'whereas', 'even though':**

Although he had just joined the company, he was treated exactly like all the other employees.

Like conditional clauses, concessive clauses sometimes have unusual syntactic orderings when the subordinator is **'as' or though**:

Genius though she was, she was quite unassuming.

'That' is also used concessively with the same obligatory ordering as **'as'**, but in American English only a noun phrase functioning as subject complement can be fronted:

Fool that he was, he managed to evade his pursuers. **'Although'** and the more informal **'though'** are the most versatile of the subordinators:

Though it was late, we stayed to finish the work. **'While'** and **'whilst'** are more restricted, but they may relate clauses in which the concessive relationship arises from a contrary expectation:

While he has many friends, Peter is (nevertheless) often lonely.

'Whereas' is the most restricted, requiring antithesis between two situations:

Whereas it would be naive to maintain that inflation is no longer of concern, (nevertheless) all the economic indicators suggest that the money supply can now be safely increased.

'Even though' and **'even when'** are more emphatic forms of **'though'** and **'when'**, the modifying **'even'** also expressing unexpectedness:

Even though you hate him you should hear him out 490

A Practical English Grammar

Except for **'when'** and **'whereas'**, the concessive subordinators may introduce **-ing, -ed** and verbless clauses:

While not wanting to seem obstinate, I insisted on a definite reply.

Though well over seventy, he can walk faster than I can.

These clauses may also express concession without a subordinator:

Not wanting to give offence, they did so all the same.

Trained in karate, he nevertheless used a gun to defend himself.

Concession may also be expressed by several **prepositional phrases** followed by a relative clause:

'despite', 'in spite of, 'irrespective of, 'regardless of, 'notwithstanding + the fact (that)'

In order to express an **ideal concession, may/might'** is used in the concessive clause:

However carefully you might drive, you 'll have an accident eventually.

However frightened you might be, you must remain outwardly calm.

491

Subordinate Clauses

8.7. CLAUSES OF CONTRAST, EXCEPTION, AND SENTENTIAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

CLAUSES OF CONTRAST are introduced by several of the

subordinators that introduce concessive clauses: **'whereas', 'while', and 'whilst'**: *Mr. Larson teaches physics, while Mr. Corby teaches chemistry.*

I ignore them, whereas my husband is always worried

KF° *CLAUSES OF EXCEPTION* are introduced by several subordinators: 'but', 'that', 'except (that)'; less frequently 'excepting (that)' and *save that*:
/ *would pay you now, except I don't have any money.*

THE SENTENTIAL RELATIVE CLAUSE, unlike adnominal relative clauses, which have a noun phrase as antecedent, refers back to the predicate or predication of a clause:

He walks for an hour each morning, which would bore me.

Colin married my sister and I married his brother, which makes Colin and me double in-laws.

A Practical English Grammar

CLA USES OF REASON AND COMPARISON

'For' and 'because' have almost the same meaning. It is safer to use 'because', as there are some restrictions imposed on the use of 'for':

Because it was wet ¹ he took a taxi (for is not possible) A for-clause cannot be preceded by not, but or any conjunctions:

She was angry for she didn 't know French.

I^{\wedge}\backslash Y: \blacksquare :: \blacksquare \blacksquare Mr^i r^{\wedge} Y3: AA :: XX''' -' \blacksquare --' \blacksquare' \blacksquare' \blacksquare'' Y

 $\sim' \quad \sim' \quad \sim' \quad \sim' \quad \sim'$

9. t-a ^ , , j t0rAXXW'h • / ■ ■ - ■ ' ' • ; ; ; v : ? • ' ' ; r . ' - j 'uncaza..
 10 Eh '■ ■ > '■ ' , ~ t era ■

CLA USES OF COMPARISON may use **like** and **as/than**'.

'**Like**' can be followed by noun/pronoun or gerund. It should not be followed by subject + verb:

There was a terrible storm; it was like the end of the world.

'As ... as, not so/as ... as' are used with the positive form of an adverb or an adjective. '**Than**' is used with the comparative form:

I can run as fast as he can. He runs faster than me/I do.

'As/than' can be followed only by a noun or pronoun, the verb being understood:

She is taller than her brother (is).

When pronouns are used in this way after '**than**', they are put into the accusative: *He is older than me.* Very often the verb cannot be omitted:

This is not so easy as I thought it would be.

494

A Practical English Grammar

'**As/than**' can be followed by an infinitive or a gerund:

It is better to say too little than (to) say too much.

The infinitive is used if the verb before '**as/than**' contains an infinitive. When '**as/than**' is preceded by an infinitive without 'to', it is followed by an infinitive without '**to**':

I'd rather go to the movies than wait for you three hours.

%.:^

^ ^

;s^ i:y||:|l|:;;|

|^'^|t ililii.....liisill

495

Direct and Indirect Speech

9. DIRECT and INDIRECT SPEECH

There are two ways of relating what a person has said:

9.1. direct speech

9.2. indirect speech

9.3. free indirect speech, which is a mixture of the two.

9. L DIRECT SPEECH

In direct speech the words spoken by someone are stated exactly as they were originally expressed; they are placed between inverted commas, and a comma or colon is placed immediately before the remark: *He said, "I'll bring you the book tomorrow."*

In direct speech we normally start a new paragraph with each change of speaker. In reported speech this is unnecessary:

"I shall go if I can ", said Claire.

"I shall too", said Kate. In reported speech this exchange becomes:

Claire said she would go if she could and Kate

added that she would also go.

Direct speech is found in conversations, in **books, in plays, and quotations**. In a narrative, however, (and particularly in oral narratives) the continual use of direct speech can be clumsy, and gives an impression of immaturity in style.

Some important aspect about the direct speech are:

9.

9. 9. 9.

. 1. Short answers and responses

.2. Expressing agreement

.3. Expressing disagreement

.4. Additions to remarks made

.5. Contrary additions to remarks made

.6. Question-tags

496

A Practical English Grammar

U 9.1.1. *SHORT ANSWERS and RESPONSES*

The contracted form of the auxiliary or modal used in the question is repeated in the short answer after *Yes* or *No*:

Do you like lobster? Yes, I do. No, I don't.

Can you swim? Yes, I can. No. I can't.

.....
"

^ |||||

The auxiliaries are widely employed when answering questions introduced by **interrogative pronouns or adverbs**. In this case 'Yes' or 'No' cannot be used: *Who told you that Mary wasn't coming? John did.*

^^^

9.7.2 *EXPRESSING AGREEMENT*

Auxiliaries and modals are also used in responses when we agree with someone. If there is no auxiliary or modal in the question '**do/does/did**' is used in the short answer.

497

Direct and Indirect Speech

'Yes' is used for **simple agreement**.

It's very stuffy in here. Yes, it is.

I can do it tomorrow. Yes, you can. 'So' is used to express **surprise**:

Your coat has a hole in the back. So it does. '**Of course**' is used to mark something obvious.

They say we shall get the first prize. Of course we shall. Other introductory phrases for this type of response are:

obviously *indeed*

undoubtedly *you can see*

it's quite clear, etc

. *EXPRESSING DISAGREEMENT*

To express disagreement with someone's statement we use 'No' or 'Oh, no' followed by the appropriate auxiliary/modal:

The door is open. No, it isn't. '**But**' may be used for disagreeing with a question or assumption:

Why are you so fussy. But I'm not.

To express disagreement with a negative statement, we use the auxiliaries/modals preceded by '(oh) **but**' or '(oh) yes':

You can't eat all that. Oh yes, I can or Oh, but I can.

IKfIM-;

∴:S

498

A Practical English Grammar

IS^

9.1.4. *ADDITIONS to REMARKS MADE*

Affirmative additions are made by using the appropriate auxiliary/modal introduced by 'so' which is followed by the inverted form of the verb: *Tom speaks English well. So do I.*

They must all go. So must we.

Negative additions are made by using the appropriate auxiliary/modal introduced by '**neither**' or '**nor**' followed by the inverted form of the verb:

He can't speak Japanese. Nor/Neither can I. If the negative form of the auxiliary/modal is preserved,

9.2.4. Reporting commands

9.2.5. Reporting specific constructions

9.2.1. INTRODUCTORY WORDS

'SAY' and 'TELL'

Indirect speech is mainly **introduced by 'say', 'tell' and 'ask'** (in the case of questions).

"I am coming" said John.

=> *He said he was coming.*

When the transformation occurs either 'say' or 'tell' will be chosen as the introductory word according to the direct speech statement:

If the **person spoken to is mentioned**: Direct speech: 'say' Indirect speech: 'tell'

"Fetch the newspaper, Spot!", Philip said.

=> *Philip told Spot to fetch the newspaper.*

If the **person spoken to is not mentioned**: Direct speech: 'say' Indirect speech: 'say'

Helen said, "I will be back in half an hour."

^ *Helen said (that) she would be back in half an hour.*

502

A Practical English Grammar

I

'SAY' is used in **both direct and indirect speech**:

When the indirect object has a special importance and needs to be

stressed: *What he said to you was very different from what he said*

to us. When the reported sentence is a one-word sentence, which is quite rare:

He suddenly said stop to his son who was shouting.

When the verbs used in direct speech cannot be used in reported speech and have to be expressed with 'say + adverb of manner':

to sneer = to say derisively

to snap = to say brutally, etc.

'TELL' is used in **direct speech** when it means 'to inform' and **only** if there is an indirect object.

lilS llllR

IIlK^

OTHER INTRODUCTORY WORDS

When an imperative statement is being reported *other introductory* words may be used. These match the function of the imperative and are often more expressive and precise in describing the action than the two rather neutral verbs: Such introductory verbs may be: 'advise', 'remind', 'request', 'beg', etc.:

"Please, come with me."

=> *She begged me to go with her.*

"Don't walk on the ice. It isn't safe!"

=> *He warned them not to walk on the ice because*

it wasn't safe.

503

Direct and Indirect Speech

ifis

^

9.2.2. REPORTING STATEMENTS

There are cases when changes occur or when changes don't occur in the transformation from direct to indirect speech.

KF° CHANGES THAT OCCUR

TENSE TRANSFORMATIONS

According to the tense of the introductory verb the tense of the statement will change as follows. This change is called back-shift. **Introductory word: PRESENT, PRESENT PERFECT, or**

FUTURE Reported verb: NO CHANGE IN TENSE IS NECESSARY:

Jane: "It has begun to rain."

=> *Jane says (that) it has begun to rain.*

Sam (to me): "You are very late."

=> *Sam has just told me I'm very late.*

Mr. Ash: "John will be late, I think."

=> *Mr. Ash thinks (that) John will be late.*

504

A Practical English Grammar

Introductory verb: **PAST**

Reported verb: PRESENT TENSE => PAST TENSE

"The third word is spelt wrongly", explained the teacher

=> *The teacher explained to his students that the third word was spelt wrongly;*

PRESENT PERFECT=> PAST PERFECT

"You have helped us more than we deserve, Mary", said

Mrs. Jackson.

^> *Mrs Jackson told Mary that she had helped them more than they deserved.*

FUTURE TENSE => FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST

"I will write tomorrow" said Mary.

=> *Mary said she would write the day after.*

PAST PERFECT does not change:

"I had already arrived by 8 o'clock. "

=> *He said he had already arrived by 8 o'clock.*

Modal verbs change in the same way, where it is possible: *"It may be wet and then I shan 't go", said Joe => /o said it might be wet and then he wouldn 't go.*

If the modal verb is in the subjunctive, present conditional or past no change is necessary:

Mary said, "I might do it." => Mary said she might do it.

The back-shift rule applies not just to indirect speech in the strict sense, but also to *reported feelings and thoughts*. In fact it applies more regularly with verbs such as '**know**', '**think**', '**realise**', '**forget**' than with verbs such as '**say**' and '**tell**': *I forgot you were listening.*

I didn 't know he was a student.

PRONOUN/ADJECTIVE TRANSFORMATIONS

Pronouns and possessive adjectives change as follows.

If the introductory verb is in the **third person**, the pronoun will change accordingly:

"Your camera is better than mine, Mary", said Tony => Tony told Mary that her camera was better than his.

505

Direct and Indirect Speech

Sometimes a noun must be inserted to avoid ambiguity: *Tom said, "He came in through the window."*

=> *Tom said the man/the burglar/the cat had come in through the window.*

If the introductory verb is in the **first or second person**, the changes are, of course, different:

/ told Mary that her camera was better than mine. You told Mary that her camera was better than yours.

Pronouns and possessive adjectives do not change when the speaker reports his own words:

/ said, "I like my new house."

=> */ said I liked my new house.*

When the speaker says **'you'** and **the person spoken to is not identified**, you may assume that the remark was made to yourself. Then **'you'**=>**I/we**:

"You can use my typewriter", he said, said I could use his typewriter.

When **'y^o'** stands for **'one'** (impersonal), it is repeated unchanged:

"You can't bathe in this lake", he said, "its water

^>He said that you couldn't bathe in that lake as its water was polluted.

"Take this parcel with you ", said Tom => Tom asked me to take that parcel with me. **'These'**
=> **'those'**:

506

TRANSFORMATIONS REGARDING TIME EXPRESSIONS Expressions of time change in the following way:

in two days

very busy today.

ADVERB TRANSFORMATION The adverb 'here' => 'there'.

$$\dots \mathbf{i} - ; :: ; : : : : \mathbf{ii}^j || | \mathbf{l} | | \mathbf{Hi} |$$

"I must remind you that gas expands when it is heated",

added the teacher.

=> *The teacher added that he had to remind them that gas expands when it is heated.*

THE PAST TENSE

In theory the past tense changes to the past perfect, but in spoken English it is often left unchanged, provided this can be done without causing confusion about the relative times of the actions:

He said, "Ann arrived on Monday." => He said Ann arrived (had arrived) on Monday but He said, "I loved her"

=> *He said he had loved her.*

508

A Practical English Grammar

Past/past continuous tenses **in time** clauses do not normally change: *He said, "When we were living/lived in London, we often went to the British Museum."*

=> *He said that when they were living/lived in London, they had often gone to the British Museum.*

The main verb of such sentences can either remain unchanged or become a past perfect:

He said that when they were living/lived in Paris they often went (had often gone) in the park.

A past tense used to describe a **state** of affairs which still exists when the speech is reported remains unchanged:

She said, "I decided not to buy the house because it was opposite a cemetery."

=> *She said that she had decided not to buy the house because it was opposite a cemetery.*

MODALS

'**Would**', '**should**', '**might**', '**could**' (except when it means 'was **able**'), '**ought to**', '**used to**' normally remain unchanged in statements:

He said, "I might be there"

=> *He said that he might be there. 'Must' remains unchanged if it indicates: Prohibition or permanent ruling.*

"You mustn't cross the road against the red light", said his mother.

=> *His mother told him (that) he mustn't cross the road against the red light. Deduction:*

"I'm always running into him; he must live near here."

=> *She said she was always running into him and that he must live quite near. Strong intention.*

"I must tell you about a dream I had last night."

=> *She said that she must tell me about a dream she had*

had the previous night. Otherwise, it is changed into the required form of 'have to'.

509

Direct and Indirect Speech

CONDITIONALS and **SUBJUNCTIVES** Conditionals and subjunctives do not normally change:

He said, "if my children were older I would emigrate."

=> *He said that if his children were older he would emigrate.*

He said, "I wish I knew."

=> *He said he wished he knew.*

^

||3|;^

^

S

S

510

A Practical English Grammar

When reporting questions the following changes occur:

change as in statements:

SPECIFIC CHANGES

"What is your name?" Mrs. Jones asked the boy.

If the introductory verb is 'say', it must be changed into a verb of inquiry: ask', 'want' 'to know', 'inquire', 'wonder'.

He said, "What have you got in your bag." => He asked me what I had got in my bag.

He said, "When is the next train?"

or He asked the station-master when the next train was.

General questions **requiring a yes/no answer** will be introduced by '**whether**' or '**if**':

=> *She asked him whether/if it was raining.*

=> I asked my colleague if/whether he knew the lecturer.

In positive indirect questions 'do' or '**did**' disappears, but in negative indirect questions they are preserved: *"Don't you like swimming, Bob?" asked Jack. => Jack asked Bob if he didn't like swimming*

'Yes' and 'No' answers are usually expressed in indirect speech by the subject + appropriate auxiliary/modal:

He asked her if she liked it and she answered that she did.

l"vs"?sşfill
|Ş|||::sş:S:::s:Ş

 $\therefore F$

A Practical English Grammar

She said, "Wliat do you want?"

|||||

||||f|K

.....;:iB|i|P

SHALL=FUTURE

He said, "Shall I be in time?"

"Shall I bring you a cup of tea?" she said.

=> She asked me if she should bring a cup of tea

or *She offered to bring me some tea.*

$$^{\wedge}HALL=MODAL$$

|«>r instructions are reported by

Q *everything.*

^itldAvaşjo tell them

Suggestions are reoortpH k

A/Ia// We *meet at the theatre*» • ^

Invitation:

" be there tomorrow? »

Request:

me, ple_{ase?}, >

$$\Rightarrow He a>$$

.;llj::ll;lSli|üill;-!:lli

iiii|:|t:|^|||;;;<|||";||:|.....iiii||:|ii';e:||s||il:|||t||||||;|||:|^

■l:§Iglm.....mmmmmm^pmwmmm.....litl | |;t

A Practical English Grammar

|||||O|||||||i||:~!

9.2.4. REPORTING COMMANDS

When we report **orders or requests** the introductory verb 'say' changes to **'tell', 'ask (= demand)', 'order', 'command', 'demand', etc. + indirect object + infinitive:**

"Hurry up, Jane," said Mrs. Smith.

=> Mrs Smith told Jane to hurry up.

When it is a polite order or request, usually including *please*, the introductory verb is 'ask':

"Please, open the suitcase for me, John," said

Miss Dale

=>Miss Dale asked John to open the suitcase for her.

A favour that is pleaded for will be introduced by 'beg': "*Do take us to the Zoo, Aunt Jane, please do!*"

=> *The children begged their aunt to take them to the Zoo.*

Other verbs that can be used to introduce indirect commands/requests are: **'urge', 'remind', 'warn', 'advise', 'invite', 'recommend'**:

"Don't go near the lake, children," she said _____ => She warned the children not to go near the lake.

The negative infinitive (**not + to infinitive**) is used for a negative command:

"Don't tread on my flower beds, children," said the gardener.

=> The gardener asked the children not to tread on his flower beds.

515

Direct and Indirect Speech

^

^

|||||S

tB

An order may also be expressed by 'be to', 'have to' in a noun clause beginning with 'that'. The introductory verb is usually 'told' or 'said': *"Don't touch that money, Mary," said Mr. West. => Mr. West told Mary that she was not to touch the money.*

"Knock before entering, Jim," said his mother. => Jim's mother told him that he had to knock before entering.

A

This is particularly useful when the command is also accompanied by a time- or if-clause:

He said, "If she leaves the house follow her." => He said that if she left the house I was to follow her.

If the order is combined with advice 'should' can be used:

"Never lend money to your friends," said Mary.

=s> *Mary told his younger brother that he should never lend money to his friends.*

516

A Practical English Grammar

f:S^

9.2.5. REPORTING SPECIFIC CONSTRUCTIONS

'WHAT ABOUT' (= suggestion) is reported by 'suggest': *"What about having lunch together?" => He suggested having lunch together.*

'WHY DON'T YOU' (= suggestion or advice) is reported by 'suggest' or 'advise':

"I wonder if John has arrived," said Tom. "Why don't you ring him up?" I said.

=> *Tom wondered if John had arrived. I advised him to ring John up or / suggested ringing him up.*

'LET'S + infinitive' is usually reported by 'suggest + V-ing' or 'suggest that + subject + should' or 'urge/advise + subject + infinitive':

He said, "Let's do it now."

=> *He suggested doing it then*

or *He suggested that they should do it then*

or *He urged/advised them to do it then.*

517

Direct and Indirect Speech

In the negative we use suggest that + should not or be against + V-ing/noun/pronoun or the verbs oppose, be opposed:

He was against doing it

or *He was opposed to the idea of doing it*

or *He suggested that they shouldn't do it.*

'LET + THEM' is reported by 'suggest that + should' or 'suggest + V-ing':

He said, "Let them do it now."

=> *He suggested that they should do it then*

or *He suggested their doing it then. 'WOULD YOU MIND + V-ing' (= polite request) is reported in two ways:*

"Would you mind waiting?"

=> He asked me to wait

or He asked me if I would mind waiting.

'Let' (= allow, permit) is reported like any other imperative

by ask + infinitive:

"Let Tommy go to the movie this afternoon." => / asked my mother to let Tommy go to the movies that afternoon.

liySS ltitlS

^H^H^^H^^^B^H^^^

iiI:iiiiiIIII.S

518

A Practical English Grammar

EXCLAMATIONS

Some exclamations can be reported by merely adding a verb: "What a pity!" => He said that it was a pity.

Generally, they are emphatic and this can be shown by adding 'very' or 'exclaim':

"My goodness, your dress is lovely!"

=> He said that the dress was very lovely

or He exclaimed with delight that her dress was lovely.

Some expressions with 'exclaim' are:

to exclaim with delight/horror/surprise, etc.

to give an exclamation of delight/horror/surprise, etc.

SIISiIIIIItl

P. 5

INDIRECT SPEECH

Free indirect speech, a very common device, consists in reporting an utterance indirectly by back-shifting the verb whilst omitting the reporting clauses which are the conventional signals of indirect speech:

Why did they always had to pick on her?!

He knew he could do it.

He would start everything from the beginning and he would succeed.

519

Direct and Indirect Speech

The convention of free indirect speech is a more flexible medium for reporting than normal indirect speech; it also aids concision :

Could he he Imagining things? (= wondered Tom).

Free indirect speech can also include words such as 'here' and 'this', which are generally replaced by 'there' and 'that' in indirect speech proper.

REVISION

IIIIyillliiffi itiiKisiis