H. V. GEORGE

101 Substitution Tables for Students of English

TEACHERS' & ADVANCED STUDENTS' GUIDE

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

Paul Nation

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Mr **J.** G. Bruton prepared the lists of verbs which fit into constructions shown in the verb-scheme. I am grateful for his permission to reproduce them, so making the verb-scheme printed in this book uniform with that of *The English Verb in Context.*

THE TABLES AND THEIR USE

The student working alone and the students in large classes have one need in common: the opportunity to practise the construction of *correct* sentences, according to useful sentence patterns.

The Substitution Tables in the accompanying pupils' book permit the construction of many thousands of different sentences, all correct, and the set of tables as a whole has the somewhat novel feature of guaranteed usefulness, for the vocabulary has been checked against the standard word lists, and the verb-forms appear in the tables in roughly the same proportions as in average contemporary English.

One current recommendation for foreign language work is that constructions are presented through a minimum vocabulary; and in fact each table allows the production of sentences with very simple words. It is a mistake, however, to think that the average student could be induced to practise seriously with a set of Substitution Tables the vocabulary of which was confined to words of the *book-pen* kind. A construction which is useful and frequent is so because of the variety of contexts in which it occurs; in other words, a useful construction supports a large vocabulary. The total of over r,800 words ensures that there is always something to interest and provide incentive to practise; and it is hoped that the set of tables will serve as a complete, balanced and 'mistake-proof' Revision Course in a handy format.

USING THE TABLES

Work with the tables is simple. In most of them, the reader chooses any item from column r, then any item from column 2, and so on till he reaches the last column. In a few tables, horizontal bars restrict the use of items to certain sections of two or more columns. Specimen sentences appear before each table.

The arrangement of the tables The central feature of each table is the use of one or more verb-forms, and the tables are grouped according to the simplest form ! classification. Tables r-36 illustrate the uses of the stem form *(return, submit),* Tables 37-67 the uses of stem +-ed *(returned, submitted),* Tables 68-77 the uses of to+stem *(to return, to submit),* and Tables 78-90 the uses of stem+-ing *(returning, submitting).* Irregular forms are included with their regular counterparts, and stem +-s *(returns, submits)* appears with comparable stem form items. Tables g r-ror are supplementary, and illustrate if-clauses.

The tables include finite occurrences (e.g. *we return, we submitted),* and non-finite ones (e.g. *we must return, it has returned, it was submitted, the plan submitted yesterday, in submitting this plan,* ...).

English is remarkable for the number and variety of its verb-groups *(has returned, is submitting, was submitted, has been submitted,* etc.). When a verb-group

includes a finite item *(Do . . . submit? . . . has submitted, will return, was submitting,* etc.) it is often called a tense. This is understandable, for the group may correspond to a tense in another language. However, there are advantages in a formal description of such verb-groups, according to the items which constitute them. If, for example, we note all the occurrences of *do* in verb-groups, we gain awareness of a consistent feature of the language, in a way successive references to 'Negative Imperative', 'the question form of the Simple Present tense', and so on would fail to give. In the commentaries, both formal descriptions and the customary tense names appear, and both are listed in the Register.

With each table there is an indication of the frequency of occurrence of the verb-forms in the table. Very frequent forms are marked by three stars (***), less frequent ones by two stars(**), and by one star(*). A general idea of what the stars mean is as follows. Three stars mean that one is likely to find this form at least four times on a page of a book one happens to read; two stars mean that the form may appear more often than once (but less often than four times) on a page; one star means less often than once on a page but more often than once in two pages. No star means that the form is less frequent than this.

The commentaries A commentary is provided for each table, dealing with the main grammatical features and giving notes on pronunciation, and on words and phrases whose use by some groups of foreign learners differs from their use by English people.

Obviously such commentaries cannot be expected to provide a systematic grammar: they are not intended for use separately from the tables. It will be found, however, that the basic features of English have been touched upon. Probably all teachers have followed some formal exposition of English grammar, if only when they themselves were at school. Often it has not made a firm impression, perhaps because the proportion of explanation to exemplification was too high. It is hoped that a teacher who studies each commentary as he WORKS with each table will find his grasp of the language strengthened.

The commentaries are intended to help the teacher to make thoughtful use of the tables. How much of the information should be presented in the classroom depends on the circumstances. If the mother-tongue parallels English, e.g.

He has a factory
Hij heeft een fabriek

the class can be spared comment on *has* and *a.* If the mother-tongue and English are not parallel, e.g.

He has a factory
'To him'-'factory',

then the teacher himself needs to have studied with some care the CONCEPTS represented by *has* and *a;* he cannot direct his students' practice towards formation of these concepts until he has grasped them himself. However, this does not mean that he must pass on the whole commentary. Every teacher needs far more knowledge than he gives to his students; to be able to permit questions, and so

assess and respond to the needs of his class, he must feel sure of his ground. In general terms, the teacher will give only enough information to make his students' practice reasonably intelligent: for the student, the course is and should remain a practice course.

No attempt has been made to use any of the terminologies of the various schools of linguistics, if only for the reason that the commentaries should be understandable anywhere. Generally speaking, technical terms are compatible with those used most widely, e.g. in R. W. Zandvoort's *Handbook of English Grammar.*

Classwork with the tables Teaching is very much a personal matter, but an account of general class procedure might be useful.

Whenever there is a large enough blackboard it should be used, even if the whole table cannot be written on it; a shortened version of the table is often better for practice in any case. If the blackboard writing can be done before the class comes in, so much the better; if not, the table may be made with a few items to begin with, and more items added from time to time while work is in progress. There is rarely need for preliminary explanation, for the students understand explanation better when they are familiar with the table. The teacher starts by reading sentences from the table, choosing items which are easy to follow and reading slowly, but without halting at the columns. When most of the items have been used the teacher increases the speed and begins to take items from widely separated positions.

At this stage the teacher brings out a good student. As the teacher reads, the student points with a ruler at each item in turn. Following is not too easy if speed and range of items increase as the student becomes more proficient. One tries to keep the student under pressure without actually causing him to break down. Of course the other students are watching to see whether he does, and their interest is maintained. One or two students have a turn, then a student may replace the teacher, himself be replaced and so on.

A lively use of the table is for the teacher to point a ruler at one item in one column, at the same time reading aloud an item from another column and pointing to (or naming) a student anywhere in the room; the student having to form a sentence which includes both the spoken item and the one pointed to.

Another brisk exercise takes the form of a 'chain': the teacher reads a sentence, and follows it immediately by any item from any column, at the same time pointing to any student or saying his name. The student then inserts the last item into the sentence, adds 'his own' item and names another student:

Teacher:	*The President visits the College next Friday* (pointing to a student) *the day after tomorrow.*
Student:	*The President visits the College the day after tomorrow* (naming another student) *addresses the Council.*
2nd Student:	*The President addresses the Council the day after tomorrow* (naming a third student) *Nly cousin,* and so on.

A set of tickets numbered r to 40, or according to the number of students, can be passed around, each student having one or more. The chain is by numbers instead of by names, the added attraction being that, to begin with, one does not know who has which number. When one's students can keep a chain going without looking at the printed table they may be considered to have mastered the construction.

The Substitution Table is intended to be worked from rather than talked about, but the grammatical features should be dealt with briefly, and knowledge of the vocabulary should be checked. It is useful to try to place at least some of the sentences in a plausible context, for instance by asking a question the reply to which is in the table. The vocabularies are by no means random and many tables can be used as bases for oral and written expression.

A lot of written work is desirable. It is not necessary to mark the sentences, but a check here and there is advisable, to make sure nothing has gone wrong and that punctuation marks are not omitted. A minimum of 250 sentences a week is reasonable; and in countries where paper is expensive many teachers will not mind what quality is used, or even object to paper written on twice, once with pencil and once with ink.

For revision, tables do not have to be written on the blackboard. The teacher reads from his copy and the students follow the sentences in their own copies, then students may read aloud. Five or six minutes on two or three tables at the beginning of a lesson is time well spent.

When a student's written work shows a mistake on a point covered by a table, the number of the table and a figure (say 50) in the margin will indicate the remedial task. Of course, all such sentences should be written *as sentences-almost* any student will get the idea of putting five items from column r, then five items from column 2, and so on. Co-operation is essential, and students should be reminded frequently that the table is material for habit formation; and that habit formation is not a punishment.

Reference facilities The tables offer many opportunities for cross reference and repetition, and since good teaching depends on use of such opportunities the following reference facilities are provided:

r. A register of grammatical and other items
2. A survey of the 'prepositional verbs' and 'phrasal verbs' occurring in the tables
3. A verb-scheme which gives a fairly comprehensive outline of verb-form usage and gives lists of verbs which can be used in constructions illustrated by particular tables
4. A vocabulary
5. A list of specimen sentences from each table in turn, with indication of acceptable sentence intonation.

A note for the private student The private student should realize that the tables are the raw material for his work, and he should try to give variety to his use of

this material. He can construct sentences silently, he can read them aloud, and he can write them. Quantity of repetition is important, but the student has to make sure that the repetition is meaningful. When he knows a table well, he should take the items in the columns one by one and check that he is certain of their meaning in the table; he should then make more sentences, trying to think of each individual meaning as he reads or writes. He should look up any words he is doubtful about. After some time, he may find it useful to cover the table and try to recall each item in one of the columns, and then give special attention to any that he may have forgotten. He may take sentences he has constructed and try to place each in a conversational context (for example as an answer to a question) which he imagines for it. The great advantage of the Substitution Table is that one cannot make a wrong sentence, and therefore one cannot practise wrong English. The drawback of the Substitution Table is that one easily imagines that repetition *is* practice; repetition alone may produce a certain amount of learning, but it is repetition of effort which effects striking advances in ability, and the private student has to see that his practice is indeed repetition of effort.

COMMENTARIES TO THE SUBSTITUTION TABLES

1

IMPERATIVES This table shows the stem form of the verb, functioning as the Imperative. The word *imperative* means *in the nature of a command,* and the Imperative is used to give orders or commands: *Wait outside. Stay there.*

An Imperative may be modified to become a request, or an entreaty: *Please sit down. Father, help me with my homework please.*

It may represent advice: *Work at least three-quarters of an hour a day with a dictionary and a grammar.*

It may be a warning. The word *you* before the stem sometimes gives emphasis *(You watch this!),* but often goes with a warning: *You be careful!*

It may be a threat or a challenge: *You come one step nearer....*

The last sentence, *You come one step nearer...* can be continued with the word *and: You come one step nearer and I'll hit you on the nose!* The sentence is no longer a simple sentence. The Imperative *come* now stands in a relationship to the verb *hit;* the relationship is conditional: *If you come one step nearer...* This kind of subordination is not confined to threats and challenges: *Ask me and I'll tell you the answer. Work hard and you're bound to succeed.*

The correct expressions for drawing the attention of someone to what you are going to do are: *Watch me! Please watch me!* or *Look here! Please look this way!*

REPORTING IMPERATIVES \When an Imperative is a command, the reporting verb is *tell. Be quiet!* is reported as *He told them (me* etc.) *to be quiet.* When the Imperative is a request, the reporting verb is *ask. Please come and help me* is reported as *He asked me (her* etc.) *to come (go) and help him.* To tell someone to do something is to give an order; to ask someone to do something is a polite request. The verb *request* is a rather formal equivalent to *ask.*

2

IMPERATIVES This table shows the verb stem as Imperative, or, if the second item in column 1 *(do)* is used, it shows the stem after Imperative *do.*

Do The verb *do* sometimes has the meaning *bring about* or *be busy with: do something.* However, it is often used without this, or any other particular meaning; it is then known as 'formal *do',* it precedes the stem form of a verb, and is associated with certain ways of speaking sentences. Formal *do* may be spoken forcibly, and is then known as 'strong formal *do',* or it may be spoken without

stress, and is then known as 'weak formal *do'*. In sentences from this table, strong formal *do* makes the Imperative an appeal, or a pressing request: *Do listen to us!*

The stem is sometimes preceded by *You dare...* or *Just you dare...* : *Just you dare show it to the Principal!* This is a threat intended to dissuade anyone from the named action.

The stem is sometimes preceded by *Let's* or *Do let's...* : *Do let's suggest that to the Principal.* It represents an urgent suggestion or encouragement.

Only the stem Imperative is at all frequent.

The correct expression for drawing the attention of someone to what you are saying is *Listen to me!* (or *Please listen to me. Listen to me, please).*

You *see* all the time your eyes are open. To give attention to some object or action in the field of vision is to *look at* it (*Look here! Look at this!).* If an action is about to begin, or continues with changing phases, you *watch* it (*Watch me! Watch what happens now!).* You *hear* all the time your ears are open. To give attention to some particular sound which is about to occur or which is occurring is to *listen to* it.

3

NEGATIVE IMPERATIVES This table shows the Negative Imperative or verb stem after strong formal *Do (n't)* and the stem after *Let's (not).* Largely through intonation, the Negative Imperative is an order, a recommendation, an entreaty, and so on. It may be made more mild by a preceding *please* or *now.* (The word *now* is often used, without any time reference, to give various tones of expression to a sentence.)

NEVER The Imperative *Don't* may be replaced by *Never...* : *Never be unkind. Never mind* is an expression used to give consolation to a person who is upset, or who has done something unfortunate and is worried about it.

Imperative *Don't* may be strengthened by a following *you* and a verb stem: *Don't you boast about it!* The plain stem *dare* may be followed by a further stem, the expression then serving as a warning: *Don't you dare say that.*

LET's NOT Just as *Let's* comes before a stem as a mild way of urging someone to take part in what is proposed, *Let's not* appears before a stem to form a discouraging suggestion: *Let's not take any notice. Let's not be alarmed.*

After practising this table with a good class, the teacher can give instructions such as: *Tell someone not to be sad. Tell someone, gently, not to cry. Warn someone not to go there. Warn someone in a threatening way not to go there. Plead with someone not to be angry. Suggest that you and another person should not be alarmed (should not worry, should not take any notice),* and so on.

4

SIMPLE PRESENT TENSES This table and the next ten tables illustrate Simple Present Actual. The word *actual* means now, at this moment; and referring to the present moment is the most frequent use of the Simple Present. The Simple Present is also used when no particular time is referred to; it is then called Simple Present Neutral. This is also a frequent use of the Simple Present, and eight tables illustrate it (it appears in others too). The Simple Present is used to refer to habitual or recurrent (iterative) happenings; it is then called Simple Present Iterative. Though this is often given as the most frequent use of the Simple Present, its frequency of occurrence is not high. The Sinlple Present is also used to refer to future events.

The Simple Present Actual is very frequent in ordinary conversations, and all the sentences of Substitution Table 4 could be heard when someone calls at a house, and speaks to or is answered by a member of the family.

At home and *in bed* are idiomatic, or peculiar, in not having any article *(a* or *the)* between the preposition and the noun. Sometimes *at home* means *willing to meet visitors,* and *not at home* means *not willing to be disturbed by callers.*

In means *in the house,* and *up* means *not in bed.*

Many countries have taken the word *sick* and other expressions (*to fall sick, to be sick, to ask for (request) sick leave)* from the British army. A dictionary tells you that in modern usage to be sick and to feel sick mean to vomit or to feel about to vomit. I fan Englishman does not mean this, he does not use the word *sick* (except in the army!); he uses one of the expressions in the substitution table: *ill, not very well.*

Ill and *well* are usually called adverbs. However, in the sentences of the substitution table, these words refer to the subject of the sentence. See also Table 6.

Working with the table, the questions should be answered, with *Yes* and *No (Yes, he's in. No, she's not asleep).*

5

The tense of the verb in this table is Simple Present Actual, and column 3 is a list of complaints. All the sentences could be spoken in reply to the question *What's the matter with him (her)?* It is understood that the patient has the complaint temporarily, that is, at this actual moment.

There is a surprising inconsistency in the items of column 3, in article usage: *a cold, a sore thumb,* but *earache, pneumonia.* There is no useful reason for this. We observe that the more technical words are used without a preceding article; the more familiar and terrible ones of the past by *the: the plague, the falling sickness.* Modern names, whether for serious or for trivial complaints, are without articles: *tuberculosis, halitosis.*

We can say someone *is suffering from* one of the complaints of column 3, but it is more usual to say *has.*

6

The tense of the verb in this table is Simple Present Actual.

ITEMS IN PREDICATIVE POSITIONS In the sentences made from this table, all the items from column 2 are said to be predicative. Each of them predicates, or states, something about the subject of the verb; like all the items in column 3 of Substitution Table 4. These items can be called predicative adjuncts to the sentence subject.

Most of the items in column 2 are adjectives. *Eady* is usually an adverb. *Tired* and *annoyed* are parts of the verb *tire* and *annoy,* and *He is annoyed* implies that something occurred to bring about the state of annoyance. At the same time, the present state is most in our mind, and *tired* and *annoyed* are called participles of state. They are very like adjectives which describe a state: *I'm sleepy. I'm tired.*

We observe in column 2 that many parts of speech are substitutable: adjective, adverb, past participle; we could also substitute *a* and a noun: *He's a foreigner.*

The verb, *is, are, am,* has a grammatical function (it shows person, number and tense), but it has no semantic function: it is meaningless. Whatever the individual classification of an item in column 2 (e.g. adverb), the item itself refers to the subject of the sentence.

ACTUAL AND NEUTRAL When we say *He's ready,* we refer to now, the present moment. The sentence *He's jealous* may refer to a person's reaction, to a temporary state; but the same sentence *He's jealous* may be used to describe a person's permanent disposition; it may mean *He's a jealous kind of person.* In that case, we would classify *is* as Simple Present Neutral (that is, neutral for time, not referring to any particular time).

This table can be supplemented by substituting in column 3: *a teacher, a clerk, a shopkeeper, a farmer, a foreigner, a factory worker, an office worker.* The questions should be answered.

7

The verb in column r is Simple Present Actual, that in column 4 Simple Present Neutral.

COMPOUND SENTENCES The sentences formed from this table are no longer simple. In *I imagine he's a friend of yours,* the whole sentence *he's a friend of yours* is the object of the verb *imagine.* The total sentence is a compound sentence, and *he's a friend of yours* is called an object clause.

If the object clause is a statement, a conjunction is optional, and for that reason the conjunction, *that,* in column 3 is placed in brackets. If the conjunction is used, is must be given its own pronunciation /5Jt/ and not the pronunciation of the demonstrative pronoun /5a':t/ (as in *I don't like that!).*

IMPERSONAL STATEMENTS :t\1any statements are made in a direct, personal manner, but there are often matching impersonal statements. So we have ***I***

recollect (above the bar in column r) and an impersonal counterpart *It occurs to me* (below the bar).

In *It occurs to me. . .,It* is the grammatical subject. Having no meaning, it is called 'formal *it*', distinguishing it from the pronoun *it* (*I've lost my hat. It. . .*).

In *I imagine he's afriend ofyours, he's afriend ofyours* is the object of *imagine.* In sentences beginning with formal *it,* for instance in *It seems he's afriend ofyours,* we cannot consider the clause *he's afriend fyours* as the object of the verb *seems,* nor is it the subject of this verb. It is possible to consider *he's afriend ofyours* as the main clause and give a special name to *seems,* calling it a parenthetical verb, a verb 'in brackets'. One feature of parenthetical verbs is that the clauses in which they appear may take various positions in the sentence: *He is, it seems, afriend* of *yours. He's afriend ofyours, it seems.*

Here is a note about the items in column 6. We cannot say *She's a mother of mine,* since a person does not have several mothers; we say, *She's my mother.* \Vhen we say *She's my sister,* we need not be entirely strict and imply having only one sister. However, *She is myfriend* definitely suggests ONE friend. *Afriend ofmine* or *one ofmyfriends* are the expressions generally used.

8

The verb in column r is Simple Present Actual. The verbs in column 3 refer to present or future time, or to habits.

The sentences in this table are compound. The whole sentence *you know the answer* is part of the object clause *whetheryou know the answer.* The object clause is interrogative; it represents the question *Doyou know the answer?* The word *whether* implies two possible replies: *I know the answer. I don't know the answer.*

In object clauses which are statements, like those of Table 7, the conjunction is optional. In object clauses which represent questions, the conjunction may not be omitted. The conjunction *if* is often used instead of *whether* in sentences of this kind: *I do not know whether he will take my advice* or *I do not know if he will take my advice.*

In the sentence *There will be a big audience,* the grammatical subject is *there.* Like *it* in *It occurs to me, there* does not have any meaning. The name 'formal *there*' distinguishes it from the adverb *there* in, for instance, *Please put it there.*

9

This table presents a small group of verbs with an important function, the statement of needs. The tense is Simple Present Actual.

A slight change could make these statements examples of Simple Present Neutral: we might say, for example, *Students need help.* The indefinite plural subject *students* means *all students at any time* and the verb *need* now means *at any time;* that is, it becomes neutral with respect to time.

10

This table shows Simple Present Actual *(do)* followed by the sentence subject *(you)* and the verb stem (column 3); or the 'question form' of the Simple Present.

STRONG AND WEAK FORMAL *DO* In Substitution Table 2 we had *Please do show it to me,* and in Table 3 *Don't be afraid.* These imperative sentences showed the use of strong formal *do. Strong* refers to the strong stress, and *formal* distinguishes this use of *do* from its use as a notional verb (as in *I do a lot of work).*

In Substitution Table 10 we have examples of weak formal *do.* It is used in straightforward verbal questions, like *Do you need it?* and in pronominal questions, like those of the table.

In all the sentences from the table, *you* (column 2) is the sentence subject. When the pronoun which begins a sentence is itself the sentence subject, for instance, *Who* in *Who says that?,* weak formal *do* is not used.

How many asks for a statement of quantity.

What asks for choice from an indefinite number of things.

Which invites choice from among definite things.

Which one specifies the choice of *one* thing or one alternative.

What . . . for means for *what reason,* or *why.* No matter how long a question is, if we wish to use *what . . . for, what* must be at the beginning, *and for* at the end: *What did he want to go down to the river and play with those boys for?*

11

Using items above the bar in column 3, this is Simple Present Actual *do, may* followed by *not* and the verb stem (column 4). *Do not* followed by the stem is called the 'negative statement form' of the Simple Present. Using items below the bar in column 3, we make the items in column 4 Simple Present Actual.

IMPERSONAL STATEMENTS It is always human beings who do the thinking, judging, approving, disapproving, selecting and rejecting of things and persons and ideas. Often we do not want to see that thoughts and feelings are personal, and we try to attribute to the things, persons and ideas the thoughts and feelings we have about them. We say the *thing* is good, or the *person* bad.

In Substitution Table 7, we had impersonal ways of expressing recollection, and belief: *It seems that . . . It appears that . . . It occurs to me that . . .* side by side with the personal ones: *I think . . . I understand* and so on.

In Table 8, we had *It is doubtful whether. . .* as an alternative to *I doubt whether . . . .*

Table 11 offers an impersonal way of saying *We don't want your new accessories; they aren't good enough: The new accessories do not meet our requirements.*

In Substitution Table 10, we had the use of weak formal *do* in questions. This

table shows the use of strong formal *do,* together with *not,* to express negation. The usual pronunciation is /dount/. By pronouncing *do* and *not* separately and stressing *not,* one makes a strong expression of disagreement with a statement, in an argument for instance.

12

Taking items from column 4 above the bar, this table shows Simple Present Actual. Taking items from below the bar, we have Simple Present Actual *does* followed by *not* and the verb stem, or the negative statement form.

IMPERSONAL STATEMENTS If a girl asks *How do you like my new dress?* the reply may be: *I like it very much.* Suppose a more general opinion is wanted, that is, not a statement of the personal opinion of the friend but that friend's guess at what people in general will think. The question becomes: *How does my new dress look?* and the reply: *It looks very nice.* The verbs of this and the next two tables express judgements in this impersonal way.

Please note that for the tense to be classified as Actual, the context must be actual. In Table 12, the actual context is given through the items in columns 1 and 2. If we say, for example, *Blouses do not suit her,* we make a general statement, and the tense is Simple Present Neutral.

Her in column 1 is called a possessive adjective by some grammarians; others call it a possessive pronoun. *Her* in column 4 is a pronoun. Pronouns in English allow much ambiguity by comparison with those of other languages. We have an instance in this table. In the sentence *Her sister's dress suits her,* the second *her* may refer to the same person as the first (corresponding to *My sister's dress suits me).* It may also refer to the sister (corresponding to *My sister's dress suits her).*

Dress Both men and women may use *dress* as a verb meaning *put on one's clothes: I dressed myself quickly. I got dressed in a hurry.* The participle *dressed* can refer to a man or a woman: *He was dressed smartly, a well-dressed man, a shabbily-dressed woman.* We cannot be so free with the noun *dress,* however, for *a dress* is a lady's garment. Men do not wear *dresses.* A man has *clothes.* He would say: *I put on my best clothes.*

13

This table shows Simple Present Actual followed by *not* and the verb stem (the negative statement form).

Like the sentences from Table 12, those of Table 13 are expressions of judgement. Please note that it is the context which determines the classification of the verb as Simple Present Actual. If we say *Blue does not suit her complexion,* we are thinking not of a particular dress at a particular time but of blue coloured things in general, and the verb is Simple Present Neutral.

In these sentences, the nouns of column 2 refer to individual, particular things. Strictly, a *model* is an object or type of object for copying. In the table, the word *model* is used to mean a particular *example* of a model. Similarly, *that kind* means *an example of that kind.*

The words *this* and *that* make it clear that *that model, this colour* and so on mean *specimens* of that model and this colour. These words are called demonstrative pronouns, though some grammarians prefer to call them demonstrative adjectives when, as in the table, they are used attributively, i.e. before a noun. To demonstrate is to point out, and *this* and *that* often refer to an object which is present or near and visible or audible.

14

This table shows Simple Present Actual, and Simple Present Actual *does* followed by *not* and the verb stem (the negative statement form).

There is nothing new in this table, as far as the pattern is concerned. Let us note the pronunciation of the items in column r: sister's, aunt's and niece's. The addition of apostrophe *-s* produces three pronunciations: /z/ /s/ /ɪz/.

In written English, *-s, -'s, -es* are added to word stems to mark plural and possessive forms of nouns *(dogs, dog's, Joxes, Jox's)* and make the third person form of the Simple Present tenses of verbs *(looks, goes).* The suffix in spoken English is /ɪz/ when the word stem ends with the sound /s/ *(miss),* /z/ *(rise),* /f/ (splash), or /ʒ/ (bridge); /z/ when the word stem ends with a vowel sound or voiced consonant (other than /z/ and /ʒ/); and /s/ when the word stem ends with an unvoiced consonant (other than /s/ and /f/).

15

The table shows Simple Present Neutral, a very frequent tense.

In a sense, all our faculties and all our possessions are ours only for a limited period of time; death removes them. This is a dismal thought, however, and in practice we think of our possessions as being ours indefinitely; or at least this is how we speak of them.

If we wish to express the idea that an activity or state has, or had, existence only for a limited period of time, we use the stem + -ing form of the verb. It follows that we do not use the stem + -ing form when we make statements of possession: *she has a scooter* (not *is having).*

The word *possesses* is in brackets. We do not use it unnecessarily; it is a more formal, or legal word for *has* or *owns.*

NOUNS **In** some languages, nouns have gender, and possessive adjectives change according to the gender of the noun they accompany. In English, the third person possessive adjectives change according to the sex of the person

referred to by the possessive adjective. You see this most clearly when you make *her* come before a noun referring to a man *(her father, her brother),* or, as in the table, *her uncle,* and when you make *his* come before a word referring to a woman: *his aunt, his sister* and so on. A teacher whose students have difficulty here can add items such as *His mother, His aunt, His sister, His niece, Her father, Her brother Her nephew* to this table and to many others.

English uses *a* (*a* scooter, *a* shop) to refer to one specimen of the class of objects represented by the following noun. *A scooter* is a particular example of the class of objects named *scooter.* This use of *a* is called its individualizing use; and the kind of noun which can follow *a* is called a class noun. Since *a* means *one,* it can be used only before nouns which represent things which can be counted; this is why 'class nouns' are often called 'countable nouns'.

Except when it means *a country,* inhabited by *a nation, land* is not a specimen of a class of objects, so we may not say *A1y uncle has a land.* Nevertheless, though for an Englishman land does not exist as a number of separate items (like scooters), men do in fact divide land into units. To deal with this situation English has a useful device, a noun group with ef: *a piece* ef *land, a piece of information, a piece* ef *news.*

One noun in column 3 has unusual stressing, for English: /hou 'tel/. It is a loan word, from French, and keeps the French word stress. Incidentally, in England as in France, a hotel is a place where you pay to sleep. You may pay to eat there too, but a place where you can pay only to eat is not a hotel, but a restaurant or a cafe. Both these words are French, and their pronunciation is not easy; many people stress the last syllable. Older people may also stress the third word in column 3 on the second syllable: /gx'ra:3/. This is another import from France. The usual compromise is to give English first-syllable stress, but keep a French pronunciation for the second syllable: /'gxra:3/. Many younger people pronounce it /'gxred3/ or f'gxrid3/.

16

This table shows a use of Simple Present Neutral.

The verbs in column 2 may be considered as specialized alternatives to *have.* It may be noticed that *consist* is not followed by a direct object; but *comprise* is: *It comprises all these things.*

In Table r5, reference was made to noun groups with ef: *a piece of land, a piece* ef *news.* The noun group allows us to speak of units and numbers of units where the noun, through its meaning, does not permit division into units. There is a similar group in Table r6: *a set of* Its use is the opposite of that of *a piece of.* vVe are shown that the coloured pictures, for instance, are not only separate items, but form a unit.

Just as *piece* enables us to use numbers in contexts which otherwise would not allow it (J *have three interesting pieces of news for you), set* enables us to give a number to groups formed from many individual items: *ten sets* ef *photographs.*

This table shows Simple Present Neutral *do, does, can* followed by a pronoun and the verb stem (column 2) ; using *do* and *does* we have the 'question form' of the Simple Present.

Once you have learnt how to swim, you cannot forget how to swim. When we speak of a person's skills or abilities, we use the Simple Present Neutral, because particular times do not come into consideration.

Can denotes 'characteristic ability' in this table, so that it can be classed as Simple Present Neutral too. *Can* has a high frequency of occurrence, for a single verb, coming as it does about once in every four pages of average reading.

Realizing that the verbs in this table are neutral for time leads to an interesting distinction in the use of *a* before nouns in column 2. If we are not thinking of particular occasions of car driving, for instance, but of car driving as a skill, the *a* of *Do you drive a car?* does not imply that we have one particular car in mind; it refers to the whole class of objects named cars; its function is classificatory, and it is called 'classifying *a'*.

QUESTIONS There are two types of question.

One asks for information. The questions of Table JO are examples: *How many do you require? When do you need them? What do you need them for?* This kind of question is recognizable by the way it begins, by an interrogative pronoun *(what)* or by a pronominal adverb *(when, how marry).*

The other kind of question asks, not for information, but simply for the person addressed to answer *yes* or *no* or *perhaps.* This kind of question begins with a verb, to be exact, with one of the finite forms of the following: *have, be, do, dare, need, can, may, must, shall, will, ought.*

The two kinds of question are called *pronominal* and *verbal.*

Pronominal questions, those asking for information, end with a falling intonation. Verbal questions, those expecting the answer *yes* or *no,* end with a rising intonation.

The questions should be answered. Short answers (*Yes, I do. No, I don't. Yes, he/she does. No, he/she doesn't. Yes, I can. No, I can't)* are usual to such questions.

Verbal questions expect the answer *yes* or *no* (or *I don't know).* Here, however, are two questions from the table: *Do you know how to ride a bicycle? Don't you know how to ride a bicycle?* The second question can have only the same answer as the first. What is the difference?

The question *Do you know how to ride a bicycle?* simply asks for one of the answers. The second question, *Don't you know how to ride a bicycle?* shows the speaker's surprise, and perhaps displeasure. Negative verbal questions add some feeling to the literal meaning of the speaker's words.

The negative verbal form may be used as an exclamation. The feeling may not be displeasure; it may be admiration: *Doesn't he make good coffee! Isn't English an interesting language!* These exclamations are marked by a falling intonation at the end. *How* in *to know how to do something* cannot be omitted.

18

This table illustrates Simple Present Neutral (column 2), followed by *to* + stem and by stem+-ing (column 3).

As with our possessions, we human beings are accustomed to imagine that our feelings are permanent. When we hate, we do not consider our hatred as belonging to a particular or to a limited time; we do not realize, perhaps do not wish to realize that this feeling is almost certainly temporary. We use the neutral tense for expressing likes and dislikes as though these attitudes were as timeless as the nature of water to run downhill.

The construction verb+ *to*+ stem is frequent, the construction verb+ stem +-ing much less frequent. Both *to* + stem and stem +-ing occur in column 3 together with nouns *(icecream, sweets);* and their character is to that extent nominal. However, there are accompanying adverbs or adverbial phrases *(early, round the market),* or objects *(to solve puzzles, solving puzzles),* and their character in this respect is verbal.

In practising from this table, the teacher can have every second student opposing the previous statement: First student: *I love to sing.* Second student: *I hate to sing.* Third student: *I like icecream.* Fourth student: *I don't like icecream,* and so on.

19

This table shows Simple Present Neutral (column 2), followed by stem+-ing. We have also (columns 2 and 3) adjective and past participle *(fond, tired)* followed by *of* + stem+ -ing, a construction encountered about once in ten pages.

LIMITATIONS ON SUBSTITUTION We note the disappearance from this table of *to* + stem. As we saw in Table 18, one may like *to get up early,* and one may also like *getting up early. Like* may be followed either by *to* + stem or by stem +-ing. However, *dislike* is not usually followed by a *to* + stem construction. Similarly, *enjoy* fits into Table 19 but cannot go into Table 18, for we may *enjoy something* and *enjoy doing something,* but we do not follow *enjoy* by a *to* + stem construction. (Incidentally, we are not allowed to use the word *enjoy* without a following noun or reflexive pronoun or stem +-ing: *We enjoyed the party, we enjoyed being at the party, we enjoyed ourselves at the party,* but NOT *we enjoyed very much at the party.)*

There is no explanation for limitations on substitution; the student has to know which constructions are possible with each verb individually.

Some verbs which may be followed by a noun and also by *to* + stem or by stem +-ing, or by both, may be followed by an object clause with *will* or *would,* or *shall* or *should*+ plain stem; for instance: *He promised to go* or *He promised that he would go.* Shown opposite is a tabulation of the behaviour of some twenty common verbs.

followed by:	stem+-ing	*to+stem*	*that . . . would* (etc.) + stem
start	yes	yes	no
begin	yes	yes	no
cease	yes	yes	no
continue	yes	yes	no
go on	yes	(yes)[1]	no
stop	yes	(yes)[1]	no
finish	yes	no	no
resume	yes	no	no
propose	yes	yes	yes
intend	yes	yes	(yes)[2]
hate	yes	yes	(yes)[2]
like	yes	yes	no
enjoy	yes	no	no
dislike	yes	no	no
want	(yes)[3]	yes	no
need	(yes)[3]	yes	no
desire	no	yes	(yes)[2]
wish	no	yes	yes
hope	no	yes	yes
promise	no	yes	yes
decide	no	yes	yes
suggest	yes	no	yes

[1] *stop* and *go on* may be followed by to+stern when *to* means *in order to* (see Table 69). The equivalent to *He ceased to look* is *He stopped looking;* and the equivalent to *He continued to do it* is *He went on doing it.*

[2] The construction with the object clause is not allowed unless the subject of the object clause is different from the subject of the main clause: *I hated that he should feel disappointed.* Such sentences **are rare.**

[3] These verbs may be followed by stem+-ing when we mean that the action represented by the stem+-ing should be done to the subject of the finite verb: *He wants thrashing. He needs helping.* Used in this construction *want* means *lack* or *be deficient in;* not *desire!*

20

This table introduces the verb *appreciate.* The tense is Simple Present Neutral. The stem +-ing items in column 3 are used like adjectives in noun groups. This, in fact, is the most frequent use of stem +-ing. It is exemplified in Substitution Table 89 too.

Column r shows one use of the pronoun *one.* A statement beginning with this word is a general statement, but *one* means the speaker in particular as well as people in general.

Both *we* and *you* may be used to mean *the speaker* together with others when the statement is general.

In *we all, all* is said to be 'in apposition to' (which means 'placed next to') the personal pronoun. One can say *all of us* as well as *we all;* the individual character of the members of the group is suggested by *all of us,* compared with the general, collective character of *we all.*

21

This table shows Simple Present Neutral (weak or strong formal *do, does,* column 2) followed by a pronoun and the stem (column 3); the question form of the Simple Present. There are verb groups with *to* + stem and with stem + -ing, and one example of noun + *to* + stem *(permission to go).*

VERB GROUPS Obviously, in the verb group verb + stem + -ing there are two items, namely the finite verb and the non-finite stem + -ing. The item which is the more important from the point of view of meaning is called the 'dominant' item. Let us make a sentence with the last item in column 3: *How does one set about getting tickets?* The indispensable item in the verb group is *getting; set about* could be omitted, as it is in the simpler: *How does one get tickets?* In the verb group *set about getting, getting* is the dominant item.

The verb group verb + *to* + stem may be looked at in the same way. Taking the fifth item from column 3, we may make a sentence: *How do you get to know that?* In this sentence we have the verb group *get to know* and in the verb group the indispensable item is *to know,* which is called the dominant item.

This table also shows examples of close verb-adverb groups. In column 3, the third item consists of a verb *get* followed by an adverb *in.* In this group *get* has the usual meaning of *get,* and *in* has the usual meaning of *in.* The eighth item in the same column has a verb followed by a preposition: *go about.* Although these two words are written separately, and have separate functions elsewhere, here they function as a unit; and they have a meaning quite different from that of the word *go* followed by that of the word *about.* Some peculiar problems of grammar and comprehension are set by these specially close groups of verb + adverb or verb + preposition; and there are many of them. They are treated in some detail in the commentaries on Tables 57 and 58, and lists of occurrences are given on pages 70-72.

In the first item of column 3, *get* means *reach,* in the second item *get* means *obtain,* and in the fifth item *get* means *manage* or *be successful in the attempt.*

People (column 2) is used like *one,* as an indefinite pronoun.

Students may practise with both strong stressed and weak stressed *does* and *do.* Strong stress on *do, does* is accompanied by strong stress and highest pitch on the stressed part of the last word but one in the sentence, and a falling intonation at the end of the sentence; it suggests the speaker's annoyance that *he* is unable to do what other people succeed in doing.

22

This table illustrates a very frequent use of Simple Present Neutral, to make statements about natural phenomena. No particular time is thought of.

NEUTRAL FORMS Because no particular time is thought of, the *tense* should not be regarded as present, except in a *formal* way; that is, the verbs in these statements have the same form they would have if, in another context, they referred to present time.

Suppose some of the statements in the table were required as part of the description of a journey which took place in the past. Since the person narrating the journey uses the Simple Past Narrative tense for the narrative, and since the statements from Table 22 are neutral with respect to time, the narrator is most likely to use a past tense *form* for the statements from the table: *We flew low over Holland. Some rivers had artificial banks, some followed winding courses. . . . Flew* refers to a past event, but the artificial banks and winding courses are permanent features of the country, so that *had* and *followed* are neutral for time. The verbs in such statements cannot be regarded as past, except in a formal way; that is, they have the same form they would have if, in another context, they referred to past time. We see, then, that corresponding to a Simple Present Neutral we have a Simple Past Neutral, that is, a *past form* to make statements which have no reference to a particular time. There are examples of Simple Past Neutral in Substitution Table 48.

23

This table illustrates Simple Present Iterative, with a modest frequency of occurrence.

Iterative means recurrent, repeated, habitual. It is often said that the typical use of the Simple Present is to make statements of habitual occurrence. This impression is incorrect. For every occurrence of Simple Present Iterative we are likely to encounter eleven occurrences of Simple Present Actual and six occurrences of Simple Present Neutral.

In a way, the Iterative use is a special kind of Neutral use. *She is kind* makes a statement about her nature, and is neutral as far as time is concerned. *She is always kind* states the observations of kindnesses which provide the evidence for the general statement *She is kind.* It is clear that the iterative or habitual idea is communicated by the adverb, *always.*

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS Words restricting the area of meaning of a noun are called adjectives. Words acting in the same way for any word other than a noun are adverbs. In column 3, the words *extra* in *extra training, special* in *special food,* and *fried* in *fried food* are adjectives, whereas *hard* in *practise hard* is an adverb. An adverb adjunct is a group of words functioning like an adverb.

Except for the adverbs *sometimes* and *regularly,* all the items in column 4 are adverb adjuncts.

There is an important difference between the adverb *hard* in column 3 and the adverbs in column 2; *hard* restricts the meaning of one word, namely the sentence verb, *practise,* whereas *often* restricts the meaning of the whole sentence. The commonest sentence-qualifying adverb is *not.*

Some adverbs and adverb adjuncts can be complete sentences: *Indeed! Certainly. Really? No doubt.* When such adverbs occur in longer sentences they often keep their independent character; and then may be called sentence adverbs: *It was indeed a surprise to hear him say that.*

To work with Substitution Table 23, you take an item either from column 2 or from column 4. The adverbs in column 2 'occupy mid-position', and those in column 4 'occupy end-position'. Some adverbs are almost always used in mid-position: *always, still, often, just, never, generally, usually.*

A group of words forming an adverb adjunct usually follows the verb it modifies, or, if the verb has an object, it follows the object. The addition of *very* to the adverb *often* makes it into a **GROUP** of words *(very often)* and **ENABLES** it to appear in end-position. We are not obliged to use end-position however; *very often, almost always, quite often, most usually* and similar groups appear in mid-position too.

24

This table shows Simple Present Iterative *do, does* followed by *not (n't)* in column 2 and the verb stem (column 3), the negative statement form of the Simple Present. Using the adverb items in column 2 above the bar, we have Simple Present Iterative (column 3).

When we make statements of habits, we are concerned with *indrji,nite* repetition. This is usually apparent from any adverb which is used, or from the kind of noun or pronoun or the kind of article appearing with the noun in the sentence predicate. In column 3 we find 'uncountable' nouns representing 'materials' *(cheese, cream),* an uncountable, 'abstract' noun *(advice),* indefinite plural nouns *(eggs, dances, remarks),* an indefinite pronoun *(anyone),* and the indefinite article *(a, an).*

The two ideas, of indefinite repetition and of the use of uncountable nouns without a singular article, combine in the idiomatic expression *to bed* and in the idiomatic omission of an article before the names of games *(play tennis).*

25

This table shows Simple Present Iterative *do, does* (column 1) followed by *not,* the sentence subject, and the verb stem (column 3); or the negative question form of the Simple Present.

Strong formal *do* appeared before the stem Imperative in Table 2 and as part

of the Negative Imperative in Table 3. In Tables 11, 12, 13 and 14, strong stressed *do* appeared in negative statement forms. In Tables ro and 17, weak formal *do* appeared in questions, and in Table 2 1 both weak and strong formal *do* in questions. We can also use strong formal *do* in statements: *I 'do like icecream. We 'did enjoy ourselves!* In other words, we find strong formal *do* as a regular feature of English whenever emphasis or feeling come into the expression. We may summarize usage as follows:

strong formal *do*	weak formal *do*
(Do play!)	
Don't play!	
(I do play.)	
(I don't play.	
I I do not play.	
(Do you play?)	*Do you play?*
(Don't you play?	
lDon't you play well.'	

Did may replace *do,* except in the Imperative sentences. In the tabulation the less frequ'ent uses are in brackets. We commonly hear weak formal *do* in negative statements when the sentence subject is stressed: *'I don't mind.* Before the stem *know, don't* is usually weak stressed; many people not pronouncing *n't,* we hear something like *I dunno,* or *I dunno 'how to do it.*

In positive Imperatives and in positive statements, the stem (or stem+*-s* or *-ed)* is more frequent than the stem preceded by formal *do.* In positive questions, weak formal *do* is far more frequent than strong formal *do.*

The negative question form is often an exclamation, and may be written with an exclamation mark. *Don't you ever go to the library?* expresses astonishment, and reproach. *Doesn't she work hard!* is an exclamation of admiration, and approval.

All the questions from the table are verbal questions: they begin with the verb *do.* They are spoken with a rising intonation. The exclamations are spoken with a falling intonation.

26

This table exemplifies weak formal *do* (column 2) followed by the sentence subject and the verb stem (column 4); or the question form of the Simple Present. The meanings of the items in column 5 make us classify the tense as Iterative.

These are pronominal questions. They begin with a pronoun, *what,* or an adverb, *where.* They end with a falling intonation.

In the sentence *What do you do . . . ?* the first *do* is a weak formal *do;* the second *do* is called 'notional' *do* to distinguish it from the first.

Like *often, sometimes, rarely, generally* and *always, usually* is a mid-position adverb; as was *ever* in Table 25.

The questions should be answered.

27

This table shows the Simple Present *do, does* followed by the sentence subject and the verb stem, the question form of the Simple Present. The table illustrates the use of the Simple Present to refer to 'future' time, in main clauses.

English does not have any formal future tense, and reference to the future is made in many ways. The Simple Present accounts for over a third of all such references, and is, in fact, the most frequent means of speaking about events expected to take place.

In main clauses, the Simple Present is generally used for reference to occurrences that are scheduled: *We have an examination at the end of the course.*

Answering the questions practises the addition of *-s* to the stem. Suitable time indicators are *at six o'clock* (etc.) for items above the middle bar. Suitable time indicators for items below the middle bar may be taken from column 3 of Substitution Table 28.

28

This table shows the Simple Present referring to 'future' time, in main clauses.

These are statements about occurrences scheduled to happen; and it might be argued that the Simple Present refers to the present schedule, a future time reference being only implied, mainly through the items in column 3.

Questions may be derived in the form of Table 27: *When does the President visit the College?* etc., and answered by items from the table.

29

This table shows Simple Present Actual (column 2), followed by Simple Present referring to future time, in subordinate clauses (column 4).

Each sentence from the table consists of two clauses. Each main clause has a subject (column r), and a finite verb (column 2). Each subordinate clause has a subject (column 3) and a finite verb (column 4). The whole subordinate clause is the object of the verb *hope* of the main clause.

We could join the main clause and the subordinate clause by the conjunction *that: I hope I get permission to go* becomes *I hoffe that I get permission to go.* The word *that* is pronounced /fot/, and there is no break between the clauses, either in speech or in writing.

A common response to these statements is *I hope so too.* During some part of the practise, one student can be asked to make this response after each sentence from the table.

30

In this table we have the verb stem after *'ll, shall* and *will.*

All the sentences from the table refer to future time, and often the items in column 1 are said to constitute the 'future tense'.

However, in the sentences from the table, the future meaning may be said to come from the items in column 4. Suppose we consider some sentences without them: *I'll help you. We shall repay your aunt. I will meet your friends.* These sentences still refer to the future. The next thing to consider is whether the future reference may come from the *meanings* of the verbs themselves. *I'll help you* refers to the future, but so does *Let me help you. We shall repay your aunt* refers to the future; so does *We promise to pay your aunt.*

In fact, the stem form (or a non-past form) of any of the verbs in column 2 is likely, through its meaning, to refer to a future occurrence. *Want, promise, hope,* and very many other verbs suppose a future time context. To the items in column 1, we could add *may, can, might, could;* and the time reference would still be future.

For these reasons, most grammarians today have ceased to speak of *shall* and *will* as constituting a 'future tense'. It has sometimes been stated that there is a rule about the use of *shall* and *will, shall* being used after *I* and *we,* and *will* being used after *you, he, she, it* and *they*. Interchanging *shall* and *will* is supposed to change their meaning from 'future' to 'determination' on the part of the speaker. There is no firm evidence for this 'rule'. *Will* is more frequent than *shall,* and most speakers of English use *will* freely after all personal pronouns.

Some grammarians classify the stem after *will* as *(a)* expressing the will, wish, or consent of the subject of the sentence, and *(b)* referring to the future. *Shall* is classified as *(a)* expressing the wish, decision, promise, threat, warning of the person making the statement, and *(b)* referring to the future.

This description of the contexts for the occurrence of *will* and *shall* is useful, but it is not easy to apply these classifications exclusively. We have to judge from each context whether there is a sufficient element of will, wish, consent and so on to justify classification accordingly; and often there is a mixed context.

The third item in column 4 is a clause. It indicates when the action referred to by an item in column 2 will take place, so it is adverbial. *Next time* is a conjunction.

Apostrophe *'ll* may be regarded as a contraction of *will* or *shall.* When the words *I* and *shall* are printed separately it is generally safe to contract them to *I'll* in reading aloud. The reverse procedure should never be followed; printed *I'll* should not be expanded to *I will* or *I shall.*

31

This table shows *will* followed by the verb stem. The meaning of *will* is indicated by the second item in column 1. This use of *will* is not frequent, but is worth noting. The guest of honour, and all the items of column 2, are 'actually' here, and *is* in column 1 is Simple Present Actual; there is little reference to future time, even by implication. We conclude that *will* is also Simple Present Actual.

Looking again at a sentence from Table 30, *I'll see you later,* for instance, we might reflect that in that sentence too *'ll* could be looked on as Simple Present Actual, referring to a *present* promise. In fact, all the occurrences of *'ll, will* and *shall* in the table might be classified as Simple Present Actual, referring to present promises or statements of intention.

NOMINAL GROUPS All the items in column 2 are predicative adjuncts to the sentence subject, *this.* In Substitution Table 6, the adjuncts to the subject were adjectives, adverbs and past participles. In this table, they are all nouns, or to be exact, since they comprise more than one word, nominal groups.

We have noted that all these items are 'actually' here; that is, they have definite locations in space and time. We expect, therefore, the definite article, *the.* Incidentally, *a* in *a brother of yours* is not the indefinite article, but 'numerical *a': a brother of yours* is *one of your brothers* (see Table 7).

The simplest nominal group, the first item, consists of an article and a noun. The last two items have nouns qualified by of-adjuncts. The tenth item has the pronoun *one* qualified by an adjectival clause, *(which) we want.* Most of the other items have a word between *the* and a noun.

When the position between *a* or *the* and a noun is filled, it is usually occupied by an adjective: *a fine afternoon.*

There are two kinds of adjective, however. We may represent them by *sharp* and *surgical: a sharp instrument, a surgical instrument.* Whereas *sharp* indicates a feature of the instrument, *surgical* indicates the kind of instrument.

Using more words like *sharp,* we can make nominal groups such as *an accurate instrument, a useful instrument, an expensive instrument.* We can name other classes of instruments, *navigational, geometrical* and *musical* for instance. Now the features of sharpness, accuracy, usefulness and expensiveness can be entirely absent, or present to a smaller or to a greater degree; an instrument can be described as *not sharp* or *very sharp* or *not very sharp,* and one instrument may be *sharper* or *more expensive* or *less accurate* than another. On the other hand, an instrument is either a surgical instrument or it is not; we do not say that a certain instrument is very surgical or more surgical than another.

Adjectives like *fine* and *sharp,* indicating features which may be **MORE** or **LESS** present, may be called 'descriptive' adjectives. Those like *surgical* and *musical,* which indicate membership of a class of objects, may be called 'classifying adjectives'.

Let us now consider the last three items in column 5 of Substitution Table 26: *on fine afternoons, on Saturdays, on Saturday afternoons.* In the second of these items,

Saturday is like any class, or countable noun: *There are usual!Ji fifty-two Saturdays in a year.* However, in the third item, *Saturday* occupies the same position as *fine* in the first item: it occupies the position of an adjective. Like an adjective, too, its form is invariable: to *Saturday* in this position we cannot add a plural *-s.* Suppose we thought of *Saturday* in *on Saturday afternoons* as an adjective, and asked whether it is descriptive or classifying? \Ve would have to say that it was classifying.

We may hesitate to call *Saturd*$_{a\,y}$ in *Saturday afternoons* an adjective, since it appears usually as a noun. On the other hand, we may hesitate to call it a noun here, as it is invariable like an adjective and occupies the position of an adjective.

Let us speak of 'noun-modifiers' for all items occupying the positions of *fine* and *Saturday* in *a fine afternoon* and *Saturd*$_{a\,y}$ *afternoons.* We have three divisions of noun-modifiers, namely:

r, descriptive modifier occurring only in association with a noun (e.g. *fine);*
2, classifying modifier occurring only in association with a noun (e.g. *surgical);*
3, classifying modifier also occurring as a noun (e.g. *Saturday).*

In Substitution Table 3r, we have examples of classifying modifiers occurring only in association with a noun. They are *local* and *private* (in the sense of classification of property into *private* or *public).*

We also have examples of adjectives which, because of their meaning, do not admit differences of degree: *the right answer, the currentfashion.* There are two examples in Table 7: *the chief lawyer, the main speaker.* These too may be considered as classifying, as are many superlative forms.

The third kind of modifier is very frequent in present-day English, sometimes with and more often without a hyphen (-) between the classifying modifier and the noun. Here are some examples from previous tables: *a skin complaint* (Table 5), *airmail envelopes, penholders* (Table g), *her hair style* (Table 13), *a pressure cooker* (Table 17), *lime Juice, adventure stories* (Table 19) *inland lakes* (Table 22), *family advice* (Table 24), *Spring-time, Autumn season, Winter months, week-end* (Table 26). In Table 31 we have *entrance gate, boundary stone,* and *staffroom.*

Most often the modifier and the noun are written separately and have even stress: *'lime 'Juice, 'entrance 'gate.* Sometimes, however, the modifier and noun are written and stressed as single words, which, indeed, they have become; there are examples in Table 5, *'headache, 'earache* and *'toothache,* and in Table 14, *'earrings, 'necklace.* Teachers probably stress *'staffroom,* whereas outsiders probably say *'staff 'room.*

Long chains of classifying modifiers occur in technical writing: *the 1967 long wheel base Land Rover station wagon.*

32

All the sentences formed from this table refer to the future. This statement extends to sentences made with the last two items from column 1, *might* and *could. I could invite you to a meal* refers to a possible future occasion.

Some students use *could* as a Narrative Simple Past, that is, referring to something which happened in the past. By *I couldfurnish the house,* the student understands *I furnished the house.* This interpretation is different from that of the native speaker of English, who would say *I was able to furnish the house,* or *I managed to furnish the house.* (The use of *couldn't* is mentioned under Table 36.)

I could attend the lecture refers to a lecture in the future; if you wish to refer to a lecture which has taken place, and to which you were able to go (and did go), you say: *I managed to go to the lecture.* If you were able to go but did NOT go, you say: *I could have gone to the lecture.*

Suitable responses to these statements are *Thank you. I'm sorry to hear that. I hope you do.* Each second student may be asked to give the appropriate response to the previous statement.

33

This table shows Simple Present Actual (column 1), and the stem form (column 4) after *would, 'd* (column 3).

The sentences in the table have two clauses. The main clause is in column 1, and the subordinate clause is in columns 2, 3 and 4. The subordinate clause is a statement serving as an object to the verb of the main clause. There is no need for an introductory word; it would be pronounced jɪ>"Jɪj if we did use it.

Would, contracted to *'d,* has the Past tense form, but does not refer to past time. It contrasts reality *(You don'i listen carefully)* with desirability *(I wish you'd listen carefully).*

34

In this table we have Simple Present Actual (column 1) and *would, ought to, should* and *might* (column 3) followed by the verb stem (column 4).

The sentences made with items below the bar *(I wish you would...)* are like those of Table 33. *Would* is the Simple Past form used to suggest modesty on the part of the speaker. The use of the Past tense forms *should* and *might* makes the expression of feeling milder. In such sentences, strong formal *do* has the effect of pleading.

The items of columns 2, 3 and 4 constitute non-introduced object clauses.

35

This table shows the construction verb+ noun/pronoun+ verb stem. It is possible only with a limited number of verbs, illustrated in this and the following table. It is not frequent.

36

This table shows the construction verb+ noun/pronoun+ verb stem (columns 3, 4 and 5). The verb of this construction is itself a plain stem item (column 3) preceded by *can, could, would, dare.*

The most frequent words in this construction are *let* and *make,* and practice is useful as *let* and *make* have more erudite synonyms, with different usage. vVe *allow* or *permit* someone *to do* something; we *oblige, force* or *compel* someone *to do* something.

In Table 32, mention was made of the time reference of *could,* and of the common foreigner's use of *could* to refer to the past, whereas an Englishman would say *was able to* or *managed to; I could do it* being a modest alternative to *I can do it.*

The sentence *I couldn't do it* may refer to the future, meaning *I know that if I try I shall fail.* Unlike *I could do it,* however, it MAY refer to the past and mean *I tried to do it but I did not succeed.* In a similar way, the second item in column 2, *wouldn't,* can mean either *I* (etc.) *do not want to . . .* or *I did not want to . . . .*

It is important to know the constructions of English; this is the syntax of the language. It is also important to know which words fit these constructions-and which do not. This is usage. A knowledge of the constructions allows us to make sentences all of a pattern; but the pattern production of sentences is restricted by usage.

Theoreticians often begin writing about language by stating that language is a system, and indeed, the thirty-six Substitution Tables just completed exemplify the system aspect of English.

However, many features of English cannot appear systematic to a foreign learner, for whom analogy is sometimes trustworthy, and sometimes untrustworthy: one cannot rely on *particular* elements of a system.

Only experience of usage, what is actually said and written, enables one to rely on one's use of a language; so that for a student care and patience are indispensable habits. In one's own use of English one needs to rely on v,hat one KNOWS; not on the correctness of analogous forms. Everyone's knowledge of English reaches a limit of security. \,Yhen this limit is reached, foreigner and native speaker alike need to refer to dictionary or Grammar. Observation, caution, reference-these are essential habits.

We have reached the second section in the set of Substitution Tables, and until Table 66 our main attention is on the stem+ -ed form.

vVe begin with the stem + -ed form as a finite verb (Tables 37-49) and then have the non-finite stem + -ed (Tables 50-66).

37

This table shows Simple Past Narrative. Its frequency of occurrence is very high.

It is clear from the items in column 2 that stem+-ed is meant to include all equivalent forms. The addition of *-ed* to the stem may be called regular, and the forms *went, spoke, bought* and so on irregular.

A Substitution Table is not a good presentation of Simple Past Narrative, for a story or narrative does not collsist of isolated sentences, like those constructed from a table.

NARRATION Each sentence constructed from Table 37 has a Simple Past form standing for an event. In a narrative, too, each occurrence of a Simple Past Narrative indicates an event; but the statement of events includes information about the **ORDER** of the events. That is, we understand that, as the narrative proceeds, each Simple Past stands for an event **AFTER** that of the previous Simple Past and **BEFORE** that of the next following Simple Past. In other words, when we hear or read a succession of Simple Past occurrences we assume that the order of events in the narration represents the order of events as they actually occurred.

It is most important to realize that the Simple Past Narrative indicates sequence, as well as past time. Otherwise, in his reading, a student may fail to realize that the writer's change from the Simple Past Narrative form was intended to indicate a departure from narration of events in sequence. Some foreign students imagine too that one way of introducing variety into their own narratives is to change the verb form, having no idea that this may be interpreted as an indication of a break in narration.

In a sequence of events, each individual event has a definite time and place context. This is why the Simple Past Narrative has sometimes been called the Past Definite. It is the occurrence of this form with a definite time or place context which we can illustrate in Substitution Tables.

38

This is Simple Past Narrative *did* followed by *not* and the verb stem; or the negative form of the Simple Past.

We have the Simple Past *did* followed by the stem items of column 2 to make statements, not of occurrence, but of absence of occurrence. If we call a narrative a sequence of events each occupying a definite place in the sequence, we may think of any one of these event-points being occupied by failure to occur; in this way we accept non-occurrence as a possible item in a series of occurrences. The occasion is identifiable in time *(yesterday)* or in place *(at the office)* or in both together (*at the party, at the meeting).*

39

This table shows Simple Past Narrative *did* followed by the sentence subject and the verb stem; the question form of the Simple Past.

Each sentence from the table is a question about the occupation of a place in a sequence of events. The place may be occupied by an event, or not.

We may notice the occurrence of the word *any* in this table. It is sometimes said that *some* is used in affirmative statements, and *any* in negative statements and questions. Actually we could replace *any,* in any item of column 2, by *some. Some,* in *make some arrangement, come to some conclusion, arrive at some decision,* seems to imply a knowledge of what the arrangement, conclusion and decision are about. *Any* leaves the whole matter open.

We can use sentences from the table to practise 'short answers' *(Yes, he did. No, I didn't* etc.), or full answers may be given.

40

This table illustrates Simple Past Narrative *did* followed by *not,* the sentence subject and the verb stem, the negative question form of the Simple Past.

In Tables r7 and 25, there were examples of Simple Present negative questions: *Don't you know how to swim? Can't you play chess? Doesn't he ever wear shoes? Don't you ever drink tea?*

Like all verbal questions, negative verbal questions end with a rising intonation. By the negative form, some feeling is attached to the speaker's actual words: the speaker expresses his surprise, reproach, admiration, and so on. *Didn't he hear it on the radio yesterday?* means something like: *I would be surprised to learn that he did not hear it on the radio yesterday.*

In suitable contexts, the form may be used as an exclamation: *Doesn't she make good coffee!* One sentence from the table could be used in this way: *Didn't she search through the Register yesterday!*

41

This table shows Simple Past Actual.

Let us consider how we define Simple Past Actual. We will start with a sentence in which the verb offers no difficulty for classification: *I like coffee.* Since this sentence has no particular time reference, we classify the verb as Simple Present Neutral. It is easy to see the difference between this statement and the statement of a friend in a restaurant: *I like this coffee (It's much better than one usually gets).* Of course, *like* now refers to the moment of speaking, the actual moment: it is Simple Present Actual.

Suppose speaker A narrates speaker B's general statement, *I like coffee.* Speaker A's words are: *He said he liked coffee.* In this compound sentence, the first verb, *said* is Simple Past Narrative. The second verb is Simple Past Neutral.

Suppose speaker A gives an account of lunch in a restaurant, and includes speaker B's (let us say Jim's) statement, *I like this coffee (It's much better than one usually gets).* Speaker A's words are, let us say: *They gave us a good vegetable curry, and then they served icecream. After that we had coffee. Jim liked the coffee very much ....* In this account, we have a sequence of happenings, each represented by a Simple Past Narrative: *gave, served, had.* However, when we look at the time reference of *liked,* we have to identify it with the time of having the coffee. *Liked* is not part of the narrative, is not an event in the story. Liking the coffee neither precedes having it nor follows having it; it is simultaneous with having it. The liking is not a separate event; it accompanies an event. *I like this coffee* refers to this actual moment, and *Jim liked the coffee* refers to that actual moment. *Like* is Simple Present Actual, and *liked* is Simple Past Actual.

There is an easy test for deciding whether a finite stem+-ed form is Simple Past Narrative or Simple Past Actual: does it move the story one step forward? Hit does, it is Simple Past Narrative. If it doesn't, and refers to the SAME moment as another finite stem+-ed occurrence, it is Simple Past Actual. Simple Past Actual is represented in Tables 41-47. It is frequent.

Questions in the form *Did you* + stem can be made from these sentences.

42

This table shows Simple Past Actual, and Simple Past Narrative.

In Tables 42-47, the Simple Past Actual occurs in adverb clauses. Each table shows a particular time relationship between the Simple Past Actual verb in the adverb clause and the Simple Past Narrative or Simple Past Iterative verb in the main clause.

In sentences from Substitution Table 42, we have events taking place at the same time, or almost at the same time. In such limited contexts we might feel some doubt about which of the two events fits into a narrative and which refers to an event 'at that moment'; and indeed sometimes it is difficult to say which of two verb forms is the Simple Past Narrative and which the Simple Past Actual. However, the main clause (column 3 in the present table) is likely to be considered the clause having the Simple Past Narrative, and the subordinate clause (columns 1 and 2) the Simple Past Actual. The order of the clauses is not important in this respect: *The moment we arrived it began to rain,* or *It began to rain the moment we arrived.*

All the items of column 1 are conjunctions. Conjunctions of the same kind as the last three are: *the first time, the next time, the last time, by the time, the day, the day after, the night, the morning.* Any similar expression may be used in this way.

43

The table shows Simple Past Actual and Simple Past Narrative.

Narrating a sequence of events (telling a story), we think of each event as occupying a point of time. \We need not take the expression 'point of time' literally, however. A point of time in narration is not always a moment of time in 'real life'. We may speak, for instance, of the Hundred Years' vVar as though it were one event and occupied one point of time. To a large extent, the 'real life' time represented by a Simple Past Narrative is indicated by the lexical, or dictionary, meaning of the verb, or of words associated with the verb. For instance, the verb *last,* through its own meaning, implies a period of time: *It lasted . . . an hour.* The verb *fall* usually records a sudden event, but if we begin a sentence with *As he fell, . . .* it is clear that the falling is going to be considered as occupying time. The word *as* implies this.

One word frequently implying a period of time is the adverb *not. They left* suggests an event at a definite point of time, but *They did not leave* is much more likely to refer to a period of time.

In Table 42, we had examples of simultaneous points of time. Table 43 shows reference to contemporaneous periods of time. For the subordinate clauses, the indications are the conjunctions *while* and *as long as,* and the meanings of *was, were* and *lasted.* For the main clause, the indication is the word *not.*

44

In this table we have Simple Past Narrative (column 2) and Simple Past Actual (column 4).

It is sometimes thought that when one activity serves as a context for an event or for another activity, we have to use the stem +-ing form after *was* or *were* (Past Progressive or Continuous). You may try substituting *was* and stem+-ing for the Simple Past forms of column 4, and you will find that the substitution is possible for some of the items: *. . . while the sun was shining, while the band was playing.* The use of Simple Past Actual and the Past Progressive is discussed after Table 8r; but it may be noted now that Simple Past Actual occurrences are much more frequent: activity 'at that time' is indicated through Simple Past on about rg occasions for each occasion it is represented by Past Progressive.

In Substitution Table 44, the main clause comes before the subordinate clause. Duration of activity is understood from the lexical meanings of the verbs: *last, shine, continue,* and so on. In a longer context, it would be likely for both clauses to be instances of Simple Past Actual; a whole series of Simple Past Actual verb forms may be attached to a single Simple Past Narrative occurrence, and in some kinds of writing (travel, for instance) there may be fewer statements of happenings than statements of circumstance.

45

Table 45 shows Simple Past Narrative (column 2) and Simple Past Actual (column 4).

There is a small difference between this table and Table 44. In Table 45, the verbs in column 2 imply periods of time, as well as the verbs in column 4; but the activity indicated by a verb in column 2 is ended before the activity indicated by the verb in column 4.

46

This table illustrates Simple Past Actual (column 2), and Simple Past Iterative (column 4). In reading, we encounter Simple Past Actual about six times as frequently as Simple Past Iterative (or Habitual).

Table 23 gives examples of Simple Present Iterative: *I do that every day. We see her regularly.* To set such statements of habit into the past, we need only change the Present tense form to the Past tense form: *I did that every day. We saw her regularly.* There is no need to use expressions such as *used to do,* or *would do.* These are much less frequent, and lead to mistakes.

47

This table has Simple Past Iterative (Habitual), and Simple Past Actual (column 3).

There are pronominal questions (with *where, how* and *what),* and verbal questions (beginning with *did).*

Lots of secrets (column 2) could be replaced by *a lot of secrets.* Both *lots of* and *a lot of* are followed by a plural verb form if the noun after *of* is plural. *Lots of* is more colloquial, perhaps more emphatic.

Lots of and *a lot of* are also interchangeable before singular, uncountable nouns: *he has lots of (a lot of) money (energy, talent* etc.). However, *a lot* is the only choice, unless the reference is known, when there is no *of* and following noun: *Did you smoke a lot . . . ?* (column 2).

If we prefer the more formal equivalents of *a lot of,* we have to use *many* before plural nouns *(many secrets),* and *much* before singular, uncountable nouns *(much money).*

It is sometimes said that *a lot of* (or *lots of)* is the only acceptable form in positive statements. Actually, however, in more formal contexts *many* and *much* are often preferred: *He has many friends in the House of Commons. They had much difficulty in persuading him to do it. Many* and *much* are very frequent in positive statements when followed by *of* and a defining word, for instance a personal or demonstrative pronoun: *many of you, much of it, many of these people, much of his work;* or a definite article and noun: *many of the difficulties, much of the trouble.*

Influenced by such occurrences of *of* after *many,* and by the parallel *a lot of,* many students use *many* ef before a plural countable noun, and *much of* before a singular uncountable noun. Though understandable, these are mistakes; *many books, much progress* are the only correct forms.

The questions may be answered. Answers to questions which include items above the first bar in column 2 can be made with a stem+-ing form after the column 2 item: *I spent my evenings talking with my friends.* Answering gives useful practice in changing pronouns.

48

This table shows Simple Past Narrative (or Simple Past Actual, according to wider context), followed by Simple Past Neutral·(column 3).

When we use the word 'Neutral', as in Simple Present Neutral, Simple Past Neutral, we mean that a statement is not thought of in connection with any particular time: *I like icecream. The Heaviside layer reflects radio waves.* When such a statement becomes the object of a verb, as it does when we report the statement, a difference in tense form between the verb of reporting *(said, told)* and the verb in the reported statement would imply some time significance in the reported statement; which would then no longer be neutral. To keep the tense neutral, it is, therefore, made the same as the tense of the reporting verb: *He says that the Heaviside layer reflects radio waves. He said that the Heaviside layer reflected radio waves.* This is often called 'concord of tense'.

An observant reader might notice an exception to the description of the items in column 3 as object clauses. In the fourth item of column 2, the verb *had* has a noun object, *impression.* Any item from column 3 must be related to the noun *impression,* so that we have a noun followed by a noun clause. The noun clause is an amplification of the noun, and the description 'content clause' is appropriate. However, we could also consider the three words *had the impression* to be one unit, equivalent to a verb (e.g. *thought, supposed);* in that way, we could continue to call the clauses of column 3 object clauses.

49

This table has Simple Present Actual *(I wish, She wishes),* followed by the Simple Past form in a use sometimes called 'irrealis' (meaning 'unreal').

There is nothing connecting the items of column 3 with past TIME. In these sentences, the ideas are represented as improbable or contrary to fact. So from each of the statements in columns 2 and 3 we can get a real statement: *I wish I were there. (I am not there.) She wishes you had a lot of money. (You don't have a lot of money.) I wish the car belonged to you. (The car doesn't belong to you.) I wish we lived in Iran. (We don't live in Iran.)*

We notice that *were* is used after *I,* after *she* and after *the car: I wish I were there. She wishes the car were here. Were* instead of *was* in such a position is sometimes called the 'subjunctive mood'. It does not merit teaching time, except at an advanced level.

The use of the Simple Past illustrated in this table is not frequent, but it is important because of the mistakes of understanding which are possible if it is not known. The same form appears after *if* meaning *suppose that,* and the same kind of factual deduction may be made, namely one opposite to the statement in the if-clause: *If he were here, ... (He is not here.) If I had a thousand dollars, ... (You do not have a thousand dollars.)*

50

The stem +-ed forms in this table are non-finite. Non-finite stem +-ed accounts for an impressive number of verb form occurrences.

Non-finite stem +-ed is commonly called a past participle. By definition, a non-finite verb form is unable to show a change of time. Both non-finite stem +-ed and non-finite stem+ -ing occur in present, past and future contexts. We must understand the 'past' of 'past participle' to refer only to the FORM, the ending *-ed.*

In the noun group *a happy boy, happy* is called an attributive adjective. In *the boy, happy at the news, ..., happy* is called a post-posited attributive adjective, 'post-posited' meaning simply' placed after' (the noun). In *Jim was happy, happy* is said to be predicative, a predicative adjunct to the subject (see Table 6).

In Table 50, we see non-finite stem +-ed items in noun groups; the stem +-ed items in column 2 are attributes to the nouns in column 3, exactly like *happy* in *a happy boy.* Though they imply that something has been DONE, the reproduction, the printing, the duplication and so on, they occupy a POSITION which could be occupied by attributive adjectives: *large maps, navigational charts* and so on.

The stem +-ed items in column 6, because of their position, are called predicative participles. We have already had examples of predicative stem+-ed in Table 3, *Don't be scared. Don't be alarmed;* and in Table 6, *He's tired, He's annoyed, I'm worried.* The sentence *He's tired* appeared in a table together with *I'm busy, He's ready,* to illustrate Simple Present Actual. The meaning is *I'm busy at this moment. He's ready at this moment. He's tired at this moment.* We may not have in mind at all the occurrence that has produced the tiredness; we probably have in mind only the state, or condition, of the person. In other words, the verbal element is small, the descriptive element large.

Some stem +-ed items are, in fact, nowadays felt to be completely adjectival, and, like other descriptive adjectives, can be preceded by *very: very excited, very pleased, very interested.* Older usage preceded these stem +-ed items by *very much,* showing that they were formerly felt to have more verbal force. One still hears *very much interested* occasionally: it sounds strange to English ears.

For other stem+-ed items following *is, was* etc., a broad classification is offered, namely, 'participle of occurrence', and 'participle of state'. These terms are usually taken to refer to stem+-ed in predicative positions (column 6 of Table 50), but it would be possible to apply this classification to stem+-ed items in noun groups (column 2), that is, to attributive stem+-ed. It is the participle itself which shows the characteristic, which is in one instance descriptive, in another instance indicative of a condition or a state, and in another instance indicative of either single or repeated occurrence.

51

This table shows stem+-ed as an adjective in a noun group (column 2), and either as a predicative participle of state or as a predicative participle of occurrence (column 4).

When an adjective or past participle (column 2) is followed by a preposition group (column 3), it follows the noun to which it is an attribute (column r).

An alternative construction would be a clause, formed by the inclusion of the words *that are* between columns r and 2: *Goods that are manufactured in India are popular in Nepal. Goods that are designed in our countiy can be seen in C$_{e\,y}$lon.* The character of the participle in column 2 is unchanged, whether or not it is preceded by the finite verb *are.*

Column 4 consists of predicative participles and adjectives, both followed by preposition groups in the same way as the participles in column 2. The finite verb *are* or *can* is Simple Present Neutral or, alternatively, Simple Present Iterative; and the participle is classified accordingly, as state or occurrence.

The word *used* appears in column 2 and in column 4; and indeed all the items in column 2 could be preceded by *are* or *can be* and transferred to column 4: *Goods advertised in India are advertised in C$_{e\,y}$lon. Textiles produced in India are needed in Afghanistan.*

From column 5, we see that the names of countries are not preceded by articles (exceptions: the Soviet Union, the United States, the U.S.S.R., the U.S.A., the United Arab Republic).

52

This table illustrates predicative past participles of state.

The items in column 2 indicate the state or condition of the subject, *I, she* or *he.* As we have seen, the distinction between adjectival stem+-ed and participles of state and occurrence cannot always be made. However, as part of a description of the non-finite stem+-ed form, it is necessary to point out that it may be largely adjectival, or be indicative of a state, or be indicative of an occurrence,

and that the occurrence may be a single event or a repeated activity. It is also necessary to point out that the participle has its meaning and classification quite independently of the presence or absence of a preceding *is, was* etc.

In Table 52, *am, is, seems, looks* are Simple Present Actual.

53

This table illustrates participles of occurrence. There is no difficulty in classifying the stem +-ed items as participles of occurrence and not participles of state. First, all the items in column 4 *(early! this morning, some time ago . . .*) give a time context. Secondly, all the sentence subjects (column I) refer to single, definite items *(the box, the container).* In the third place, the meanings of the verb stems from which the stem +-ed items are derived *(remove, seize, take)* are naturally associated with points of time.

The presence or absence of the finite verb *zpas* or *got* does not alter the classification: *Removed this morning, the box wasfound at midday. The container smashed some time ago has now been replaced.*

SPECIFYING AND CLASSIFYING *THE* Like all the items of column 3 in Substitution Table 41, *the box, thejar* (column I) refer to single items. For these nouns a context is assumed: that is, it is taken for granted that the hearer knows WHICH box or jar is referred to. The word *the* indicates this assumption, and *the* in this use is described as' specifying'. Often one item is specified, or distinguished from others of the same kind, by an adjective or by an attributive phrase: *the large jar, the jar on the shelf* Sometimes *the* is specified through a previous mention, so that *the box* is *the previousfY mentioned box.*

A very different context for *the* occurs before singular (and sometimes, especially with names of birds and animals, before plural) nouns which refer to the whole class of items: *The ball-point pen is making the inkbottle obsolete. With their strikingfY large beaks, the hornbills are similar to the toucans.* This use of *the* is often called 'classifying'.

There is a good deal of overlap among classifying *the,* classifying *a* (Table 17) and indefinite plural nouns (Table 55). The sentences:

The hornbills are similar to the toucans.

The hornbill is similar to the toucan.

A hornbill is similar to a toucan.

Hornbills are similar to toucans.

are alike in general meaning. For the learner's own use, one of the last two may be advised.

54

This table shows non-finite stem+-ed followed by *to*+stem. The stem+-ed items are past participles of occurrence. Their meaning is incomplete without the *to*+stem item.

It is sometimes said that the *to*+stem item is the object of the preceding verb, but *to* goes with the preceding verb as much as with the following stem. If the verb in column 4 has been previously mentioned, or is under discussion, so that the reference is known, sentences may be made with items from columns 1, 2 and 3: *(How is it that they returned home?) They were permitted to. (Why are you resigning?) We were told to. (Why didn't you answer?) I was not allowed to. I was told not to.*

The close relationship between stem+-ed and *to*+stem in this table may be compared with the close relationship between stem+-ed and prepositional group in Table 55.

55

This table illustrates predicative participles of state (column 4). The finite verb (column 3) is Simple Present Neutral. No particular time is thought of, and there is, therefore, no idea of occurrence attached to the stem+-ed items.

However, these stem+-ed items are not the same as those of Table 52: *He is delighted with it. I am satisfied with the result. Delighted* and *satisfied* are descriptive, and are linked with the sentence subjects *I* and *he,* whereas, in Table 55, *grown, cultivated* etc. do not in any way describe the sentence subjects *rice* and *tea;* they are linked rather with the following items, *in our district, in this region* (column 5). Moreover, we can stop sentences from Table 52 after the stem+-ed item: *He is delighted. I am satisfied.* On the other hand, *Rice is grown, Some tomatoes are produced,* require some adverbial completion (like *in our area),* unless this is understood. Tables 52 and 55 have, therefore, separate identities.

COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS The nouns above the bar in column 2 are sometimes called 'material' nouns, or 'mass' nouns, describing how the substances represented by the nouns usually appear to us. We can count bananas, but not sugar; and sometimes the nouns above the bar are called 'uncountable' nouns, while those below the bar are 'countable' nouns.

The distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is made according to our view of the substances or things denoted by the words. The distinction appears in the language in the way we use the words.

What we look upon as an uncountable noun is used only in the stem form (the singular), and is not preceded by *a;* it may be preceded by items above the bar in Table 55, by nouns with apostrophe *-s (India's,* for example), by personal pronouns *(my, our* etc.), and by *the* if there is a definite context. What we look upon as a countable noun appears in singular and plural forms. In the singular, it must be preceded by *a* or *this,* or a substitutable item. In the plural, it may be

preceded by items like those below the bar in Table 55, and by *the* if the context is definite. Some common words substitutable for *a* and *the* before singular countable nouns are: *this, that, my* (etc.), *Tom's, any, another, one, each, either, neither, every, no.* More items which may precede plural countable nouns are *these, those, my* (etc.), *Tom's, two* (etc.), *all, other.*

Three uses of *a* have been mentioned, numerical *a* (Table 31), individualizing *a* (Table 15), and classifying *a* (Table 17). Let us take a sentence each from Tables 15 and 17: *He has a scooter. Do you drive a car?* In the first sentence, *a scooter* means ONE particular specimen of the class of things called *scooter.* In the second sentence, *a car* does not refer to ONE such specimen; the question is about car-driving in general, and there is not much difference in meaning between *Do you drive a car?* and *Do you drive cars?* (the equivalent plural form of the sentence). *Scooters,* in *He has scooters (for hire)* refers similarly to a class of things, implying 'scooters, not cars, and not bicycles'. When we wish to refer to more than one specimen of the class of things (i.e. when we want the plural of individualizing or numerical *a),* we use *some: He has some scooters.* Here then is a diagram to illustrate article usage with countable and uncountable nouns:

		countable nouns		*uncountable nouns*
		singular	plural	singular
indefinite	numerical	a	—	—
	individualizing	a	some	—
	classifying	a	—	—
definite	specifying	the	the	the
	classifying	the	the	the

Using *banana* and *sugar* as examples of countable and uncountable nouns, we see from the diagram that we are likely to encounter the following forms: *the banana, the bananas, a banana, bananas, some bananas; the sugar, sugar.* We are UNLIKELY to meet other forms, but they are not impossible. The article usage represents our view of the real world denoted by the nouns, and if there are real world contexts for considering *banana* a substance, or for counting *sugars* we may certainly do so: *Banana is a pleasant flavouring for milk shakes. 'Glucose' is the general term by which all sugars having the formula* $C_6H_{12}0_6$ *are known.*

The diagram indicates that all the items in column 2 of Table 55 (indefinite singular above the bar, uncountable nouns; indefinite (classifying) plural below the bar, countable nouns) may begin with items from column 2.

The items of column 1 indicate amount or quantity. Several of them appear before both countable and uncountable nouns: *a lot of, enough, some, no.* Other items appear before uncountable nouns only: *much, little, a little;* or before countable nouns only: *many, few, a few. More, less* and *fewer* are similar words. *More* appears before both kinds of noun. Careful writers use *less* before uncountable nouns only, *and fewer* before countable nouns, but we often hear *less* before countable nouns too.

Learners sometimes confuse *few* and *a few*, since they do not represent any actual difference in number or proportion. The difference is in the speaker's point of view. Let us suppose that in a class of forty students five have done a piece of work well. The teacher may think that these five good results are better than NONE. In this case, he says, *A few students did well.* On the other hand, the teacher may be disappointed; he may consider that only five good pieces of work is much worse than the MANY he had expected. In that case, he says *Few students did well.* We use *little* and *a little* in exactly the same way, comparing *a little,* favourably, with NOTHING, and comparing *little,* unfavourably, with MUCH.

Article usage is difficult for learners in many parts of the world. A teacher who wants to establish correct usage cannot rely on explanations or diagrams such as the above; he has to turn again and again to practice materials, each time accompanying the practice work with a few words of explanation: 'No *a,* because the nouns are uncountable,' 'No plural, because the nouns are uncountable,' '*A* here means any one article of this kind,' '*A* here means the whole class of things,' 'No article here; the nouns are indefinite plural,' 'A definite article here; the adjective makes the noun definite' and so on.

56

This table illustrates past participles of state. The finite verb *(is)* is Simple Present Actual.

We saw how Table 55, with finite verb NEUTRAL and stem+-ed state, was distinct from Table 52, with finite verb ACTUAL and stem+-ed state. Tables 52 and 56 both have finite verb Actual and stem+-ed state: *He is delighted* (Table 52), *It's broken* (Table 56). However, behind the state in the stem+-ed items of Table 56 there lies an occurrence which is much more in mind than the occurrence which lies behind the stem+-ed items of Table 52. Of the participles of state, those of Table 52 tend towards the adjectival, and those of Table 56 towards the participles of occurrence.

If we make our time reference past, by substituting *was* for *is,* we see that the stem+-ed items of Table 52 keep their classification of participles of state, whereas many items in Table 56 might as well be classified as participles of occurrence: *It was included in the list. The instrument was sold.*

57

In Substitution Table 51, we read of goods manufactured *in our country,* and in Table 53 we read of a container removed *early this morning.* It is easy to see that *early this morning* is an elaboration of the adverb *then,* and that *in our country* is an elaboration of the adverb *here;* both are adverb adjuncts.

Sometimes it is not satisfactory to think of an adverb adjunct as adding

information to the verb. We have noted that *Tomatoes are grown, Grapes are produced* (Table 55) are hardly possible as sentences without an adverb adjunct: *Grapes are produced in our district.* The preposition group is not so much an addition to the meaning of the verb as the necessary COMPLETION of it.

However, though *grown in our district* forms a natural unit in the sentence, the group *in our district* is self-determined in form, that is, according to the meaning which it has to express: *Tomatoes are grown in our district/ on the hill sides/ near the city / under glass,* and so on.

In Table 52 we have sentences on the pattern *I am delighted with the news. I am ashamed of the result. Ashamed of the result* looks very much like *grown in our disirict.* However, looking at the two tables, we see that in Table 55 the stem +-ed item appears in one column (column 4) and the preposition+noun group *(in our district)* appears in the next column; in Table 52 the stem +-ed item appears followed by its preposition *(delighted with, ashamed of)* in one column, and the noun group alone *(the result)* appears in the next column. The arrangement of Table 52 is intended to show that the preposition+ noun group is not self-determined; in fact, each stem+-ed item in the table has its own small range of acceptable prepositions, which have to be learnt.

Sentences like *Tomatoes are grown in our district* show a close meaning-connection between the stem+ -ed and prepositional adjunct; whereas sentences like */ am ashamed of the result* show a close grammatical connection between a verb unit, which includes the preposition, and the following noun. In other words, *(to be) ashamed of* functions as one grammatical unit before a noun, and the noun has the same relationship to the verb unit as it does to a verb alone i n */ dislike the result.*

In column 3 of Table 57, we have stem+-ed items each followed by words *(forward, to, up* etc.) which we would need to call 'adverbs' since no nouns follow; but which may more conveniently be called' particles', whether followed by a noun: *(They) putforward the proposal,* or not: *(The proposal was) putforward.*

The STEM+ -ED+ particle in Table 52 is a particular construction; either there is no finite verb+ object alternative (e.g. for *be ashamed of)* or the particle disappears when the verb is made finite *(The result delighted me).* The stem +-ed + particle items of Table 57 are forms ofVERB+particle units; the particle does not disappear when the verb is made finite.

58

The past participles in column 3 are participles of occurrence.

VERB AND PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT, PHRASAL VERB The verb+ participle items of column 3 in Table 57 have been described as units. However, though we may substitute one for the other in the table, these units are not identical in form or behaviour. The first difference is in stressing. ,!\Then we speak the second and third items of column 3, *'listened to* has primary stress on the verb, whereas *,brought 'up* has primary stress on the particle; in *'listened to the proposal,* the

particle is unstressed, whereas in *,brought 'up the proposal* the particle still has primary stress. The second difference is in the possibility of exchanging the positions of particle and following noun: we cannot alter the order of words in *He listened to the proposal*, but we can say either *He brought up the proposal* or *He brought the proposal up*. When the object is a pronoun, the pronoun must come after the particle in *He listened to it*, but must come between the verb and the particle in *He brought it up*. (In *He 'listened ,to it*, the particle now has secondary stress; in *He ,brought it 'up* the particle still has primary stress.)

We see then that there are grammatical differences between groups of the type *to listen to* and those of the type *to bring up*. Most often there are meaning differences, for whereas the meanings of most items like *listen to* are roughly those of the individual words (i.e. in our example *listen* and *to)* the meanings of items like *bring up* are almost always different from those of the individual words (*bring* followed by *up* means literally *carry from a lower place to here;* to *bring up* a proposal is to *introduce* it).

Items like *listen to a proposal* are often termed 'verbs with prepositional objects' or 'prepositional verbs', and those like *bring up* are sometimes called 'two-part verbs', or more often 'phrasal verbs'. In Table 57, the first item in column 3 *(put forward)* is the other example of a phrasal verb.

In Table 58, it would be difficult to call *to the vehicle, on the model* and so on adverb adjuncts. It is not satisfactory to think of these as the PLACE of the alterations: the vehicle and the model are rather the things that are altered. Indeed, the items of column 4 could be made the subjects of sentences such as *The model was altered, The vehicle was modified.* For this reason we speak of *the vehicle, the model* as prepositional objects to the participles of occurrence in column 3.

Tried out on the vehicle and *experimented with on the vehicle* appear in print to be parallel expressions. However, if we apply the tests referred to for the items of column 3 in Table 57, we find that the stressing of *,tried 'out on* and *,carried 'out on* is that for phrasal verbs, whereas the stressing of *ex'perimented with* is that for verbs with prepositional objects. We can confirm the difference by using the finite verbs: we *try out (carry out) an experiment* or *try an experiment out*, we *try out an alteration* or *try an alteration out*, but *experiment with an alteration;* we *try it out* or *carry it out*, but *experiment with it.* Of course to *try out* is to *test*, and to *carry out* is to *effect.* We have therefore phrasal verbs which themselves have prepositional objects.

The first item of column 3 shows the participle of occurrence *made* with a prepositional object, though *make* is not one of the verbs usually followed by a prepositional object. It is the whole expression *make an alteration* which operates as a unit and is followed by the prepositional object.

Particular attention has been given to these stem+ -ed items because, though frequent, they are awkward to explain, and are often excluded from practice materials.

By comparison with the stem+ -ed items which we shall examine in Tables 59-67, those in Tables 50-58 have been relatively free to take up various sentence positions, and it may be interesting to review this degree of freedom.

Most stem+-ed items from these tables are acceptable as Free Adjuncts, discussed in more detail after Table 86. Here is one example from each table in turn:

Urgently needed, the parts were flown there.
Exported to Ceylon, the materials proved very popular.
We returned home *delighted with the news.*
Removed early this morning, the box was not discovered till midday.
Permitted to reply, he put up a good defence.
Grown in our district, grapes are a familiar sight in the market.
Reconditioned, it works as well as before.
Never put forward previously, the proposal stood little chance of acceptance.
Tried out on a prototype, the alterations were made part of the regular specification.

Most stem+-ed items from these tables are acceptable in noun groups. Here is one example from each table in turn:

Urgently needed parts are sent by air.
The materials *exported to Ceylon* proved satisfactory.
The *delighted* parents returned home.
The person *supposed to reply* did not attend.
The grapes *grown in our district* are pleasant tasting.
The *reconditioned* radio works quite well.
The proposal *put forward yesterday* seems certain of acceptance.
The prototype *tried out last week* requires modification.

All the tables exemplified stem+-ed in predicative positions, so there is no need for further examples. In this position, the stem+-ed item is most often preceded by some form of the verb *be*, or *seem* or *look* (Table 52) or *get* (*Table* 53). Other verbs preceding stem+-ed are *stay* and *remain (He remained seated), lie* (*They lay stretched on the ground), become* (*They became accustomed to one another), feel (I feel bewildered), sound (It sounded cracked).* On the whole, such verbs have little independent meaning and occur characteristically in sentences comprising subject/verb/predicative adjunct.

Tables 59-67 exemplify stem+-ed in verb groups, namely *have/has/had* stem+-ed. These occurrences are less frequent than those just discussed, amounting to about one in four of all non-finite stem+-ed occurrences.

59

Have/has stem+-ed is usually called 'Present Perfect'. The present tense *(have/has)* indicates a present time reference, and the stem+-ed item adds a 'perfective' aspect, that is it denotes that the occurrence or activity is completed. In the verb group, the present element may be the more important for interpretation of meaning, or the perfective aspect may be foremost. Grammarians often distinguish Present Perfect of experience, Resultative Present Perfect, and

Continuative Present Perfect. vVhen the perfective aspect is not prominent, the description Perfect Present may be used.

The form allows the presence of the personal pronoun *(I, we* and so on) representing the performer of an action, to be associated with the past participle, representing a state; that is, *I have done it* is a PERSONAL way of expressing *It is done.* In the statement form, the Perfect Present is not always easy to distinguish from Resultative Present Perfect, in which an action or activity in the past is seen from the viewpoint of its present result or consequence. In the question form particularly, the interest is usually in the present state.

Already emphasizes the completion of the action denoted by the stem+ -ed item.

60

This table illustrates the Perfect Present with examples of the question and negative statement forms.

When we add *yet* in the question form *(Have yo; looked at the exercise yet?),* we imply that there has been opportunity for the completion of the action of the verb. Indication of opportunity would be superfluous in a statement of completion, so the word *yet* would be out of place in positive statements (e.g. those of Table 59). On the other hand, the use of *already* to emphasize completion can go with many questions of Table 60: *Have you.finished the sewing alreacry?-that* is, *so unexpectedly soon?*

In the negative statements of Table 60 *(I haven't looked at the exercise yet), yet* implies admission of unused opportunity; and therefore an expectation (with the first person pronoun, a promise) that the action or activity will be completed in the future. *Already* is possible with some negative statements from the table, for example *I haven't done it already,* meaning *I am not doing it a second time in spite of having completed it once before.*

In the negative question form, not shown in a table, both *already* and *yet* are possible. *Haven't you done it yet?* expresses surprise at the failure to complete the action despite ample opportunity. *Haven't you done it already?* expresses surprise that something thought to have been completed is being done.

Short answers *(Yes, I have. No, I haven't)* and full answers may be given to the questions.

61

This is Present Perfect of experience.

It is obvious why this use is labelled ef *experience.* When personal pronouns are used, the LIFETIME of the person is understood to be under reference. The lifetime of a building, or a country, or any object or entity can also be implied as the time offering opportunity for the experience: *It has had a new roof. England*

has always welcomed refugees from other countries. The accusation has never been denied. In the last four examples of column 3, the Present Perfect *have been* is followed by a predicative participle of occurrence. It may be asked why this would be described as a present tense, since a period of time-between some time in the past and now-is under consideration. What is present? The answer is: the experience, the memory.

Though one can explain the meaning of Present Perfect of experience when it occurs, it does not seem possible to give a rule for its use. *I have explored the area only once in my life* and *I explored the area only once in my life* are equally acceptable. In fact, choice between Present Perfect of experience and Simple Past Narrative depends to some extent on regional usage and to some extent on personal habit. Present Perfect of experience is a rather rare alternative to Simple Past Narrative; for each occurrence of the former there are over fifty occurrences of Simple Past Narrative.

Students can alternate sentences with items from columns 2 and 4 above the bar. First student: *I've never been abroad.* Second student: *I've been abroad several {imes.*

62

This table shows Resultative Present Perfect. An occurrence in the past is presented as having a bearing on the present; a present **RESULT.**

I have bought a new car has as its main information *I have a new car.* This fact is the result of my buying it. As observed in connection with Table 6r, the use and non-use of a Present Perfect with a past element (e.g. *bought)* is conditioned by regional and personal usage habits. Some native speakers of English would not feel the need for *have* and *has* in the sentences of the table.

In colloquial English, the *have* of the question may be very short, or the sentence may begin *with you: 'Ve you locked the gate?* or *You locked the gate?*

63

This table shows Continuative Present Perfect, Present Perfect Progressive, and Present Perfect of experience.

Continuative Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive provide ways of speaking of an activity lasting from some time in the past till now, and not yet ended. Though not frequent, this mode of expression cannot be avoided except by rephrasing the idea; for instance, saying *He came to live here two months ago* instead of *He's lived here for two months.* Continuative Present Perfect is the only kind of *has/have* stem +-ed which cannot be replaced directly by finite stem +-ed.

The distinctive uses of *for* and *since* can be observed in the table. *For* is used when the length of time is expressed in units, *since* when the starting point of the period is given.

The last seven items in column 2 exemplify Present Perfect of experience. They are included to show how negative statements, i.e. statements of lack of experience, are linked naturally with expressions of periods of time (column 3).

The whole time (column 3) is a conjunction of the kind mentioned in Table 42.

BEEN *Been* is formally the non-finite stem +-ed form of *be.* However, it has three distinct uses, as in *been a lecturer* (Table 63), *been chased* (Table 61), and *been to a zoo* (Table 61).

In *been a lecturer, been* has a meaning corresponding to *is* and *was:* He *is/was/has been a lecturer. He is a lecturer* is a general statement, with *is* Simple Present Neutral. *He was a lecturer* refers to his state 'at that time', and *been* in *He has been a lecturer* is a participle of state.

The last four items of column 3 of Table 61 show *been* followed by a second non-finite stem +-ed: *been chased, been attacked, been tricked, been charmed.* We can replace *have been* by *was,* e.g. *I was chased by a bull,* but the only context in which we can replace *was* by *am* requires *am* to be Simple Present Iterative: */ am chased by a bull (every time I go across that field).* In other words, we understand *am* to refer to repeated occurrence. In */ was chased by a bull, was* refers to an occurrence (Simple Past Narrative) while *chased* is classified as a participle of occurrence. In */ have been chased by a bull,* therefore, both *been* and *chased* are participles of occurrence, though *been* does not have much meaning except the vague one of 'experience'.

The first two items in column 3 of Table 61 show *been* in *been abroad* and *been to a zoo.* The preposition *to* suggests a different meaning for *been,* and if we keep the prepositional adjunct *to a zoo* we cannot replace *have been* by *was* or *am. Been* here has a precise meaning, for the Simple Past equivalent of */ have been to a zoo* is *I went to a zoo;* in other words, *been* functions as a past participle to the verb *go.* Since *go* has a participle *gone,* this verb appears as:

go–went–{gone / been}

Since there are two past participles, it seems likely that *went* and *go* might have two meanings. This is so. Here are two sentences with *went: They went to Brighton yesterday and will be there for another ten days. They went to Brighton for their holidays last year.* In the first sentence, *went* represents a single journey, from here to there; in the second sentence, *went* represents a double journey, from here to there, and BACK.

Here is an illustration using the participles. A friend knocks at the door. John's sister opens it.

Friend: *Is John in?*
Sister: *No, he's gone to the cinema.*

On another occasion the friend knocks at the door. John opens it himself.

Friend: *Shall we go to the cinema?*
John: *No, I've been this afternoon.*

We see, then, that *been* may appear as (1) a participle of state, (2) a participle of occurrence before a second participle of occurrence, and (3) a participle of occurrence for the verb *go.*

64

This table shows *have/has* stem+-ed as 'future' in a subordinate clause, an infrequent use.

Will in column 1 expresses the willingness of the subject *(I, we)* to *wait* etc. (See the commentary on Table 30.) *Will,* therefore, may be considered as a statement of PRESENT willingness, and be classified as Simple Present Actual. Simple Present is in any case the most frequent means of referring to the future (Table 27), so we may take *have* as Simple Present (which, of course, it is) referring to the future; and we then understand the stem +-ed items of column 4 to be past participles of occurrence.

The clauses made from items of columns 2, 3 and 4 are, of course, adverb clauses of time. The stem items of column 1 above the bar, through their meanings, represent periods of time. *Till* and *until* are the conjunctions for looking ahead to the conclusion of a period of time.

The stem items below the bar, through their meanings, refer to points of time, and the conjunctions below the bar in column 2 refer to points of time.

65

This table shows Simple Past Narrative (column 2) and Narrative Past Perfect (column 3).

Narrative Past Perfect consists of the Narrative Simple Past *had* and a past participle of occurrence.

A narrative is a series of statements, each recounting an event. Two or more successive appearances of Simple Past Narrative always imply a SEQUENCE of occurrence. When for some reason, forgetting, for instance, or for humorous or dramatic effect, one event is omitted from a sequence of events and we wish to include it later, i.e. out of order, we often use *had* stem +-ed for the event narrated out of order.

In the sentences of Table 65, the event narrated in column 2 took place after the event narrated in column 3, and therefore the order of narration differs from the order of events. *Had* stem+ -ed is a signal to that effect.

However, in these sentences there is already a signal that the order of narration differs from the order of occurrence: the word *before,* or *by.* For this reason, Simple Past substitutes may be used for the *had* stem +-ed items in column 3: *Before I could say anything they went. By the time we saw you the money was spent.* The use of *had* stem+ -ed is OPTIONAL.

The use of the Narrative Past Perfect is most often optional. Using it emphasizes a narrative interpretation; or selects the narrative interpretation when there is a chance of ambiguity. This point is further discussed with reference to Tables 66 and 67; but here is an example using a sentence from Table 42. Table 42 gives sentences stating two events, simultaneous or almost simulta-

neous, one of them part of a narrative (Simple Past Narrative) and the other occurring 'at that moment' (Simple Past Actual). Here is a sentence: *As the bell rang he crossed to the other platform.* In this sentence, *as* is a temporal conjunction indicating simultaneity. However, the same word *as* may be a conjunction indicating reason. It is also possible for the ringing of a bell to be the reason for a person's crossing to the other platform. Suppose we wish to indicate this, using *as.* There is no sequence problem, but *As the bell rang he crossed to the other platform* would almost certainly be taken to indicate simultaneous occurrence. *Had rung* selects the narrative interpretation, and in *As the bell had rung he crossed to the other platform, as* introduces an adverb clause of reason.

In the last two items of columns r and 2, *by the time* is a conjunction. In the last seven items of column 3, we have Narrative *had* stem+-ed, *had been,* followed by a stem+-ed, predicative participle of occurrence.

66

This table shows Narrative *had* stem+-ed, or Narrative Past Perfect (column 2), and Simple Past Narrative (column 4).

The events narrated in columns 2 and 4 are narrated in the order of their occurrence, so the use of the Past Perfect to narrate the first event is entirely optional.

What then does it do? It emphasizes the completion of the event of the column 2 item. Since completion is implied (but not emphasized) by the Simple Past forms of the verbs, through their meanings *(reached, approached, passed, entered* and so on), the listener or reader interprets the emphasis as an emotional colour of the kind most likely in the context; for example: *The ship had reached the harbour before the pilot came on board. (How disgraceful!) The vessel had moved seriously off course before the light-house came into view. (How dangerous!) The liner had found shelter in the bay before the waves became threatening. (How fortunate!)*

Three items in column 4 have Simple Past Narrative *was* followed by a past participle of occurrence.

67

This table has Simple Past Narrative (column 2) and either Narrative *had* stem+-ed or *had*+Perfective stem+-ed (column 4). The verbs in column 2 recount the utterance of words. The clauses made by items from columns 3 and 4 are objects of the verbs in column 2.

An event must occur before its occurrence can be reported. However, in the table, the event of reporting is stated before the reported event; that is to say, the sequence of events in their narration is different from the sequence of events in their occurrence. Some grammarians state that in such circumstances the

Past Perfect is obligatory. This is not so. Provided there is no ambiguity, the Past Perfect is an **OPTIONAL** alternative to Simple Past.

In what way could there be ambiguity? The Simple Past form may be used in more ways than one: we have distinguished Simple Past Narrative, Simple Past Actual, Simple Past Neutral and Simple Past Habitual. Suppose we look at the sixth item in column 4 and try the Simple Past *left* in place of the Past Perfect *had left: He left before nine o'clock.* There is no means, in the sentence itself, of knowing whether *left* is narrative, referring to one occasion, or habitual, referring to a routine. Therefore the sentence *He said he left before nine o'clock* might report **EITHER** *I left b fore nine o'clock* (narrative) **OR** *I leave before nine o'clock* (habitual). If the general context leaves no doubt about the interpretation, then *I left before nine o'clock* is satisfactory as narration, but if the general context does not make **ONE** interpretation certain the sentence will be taken as a statement of a routine, simply because the narrative interpretation, when wanted, is usually ensured by the use of narrative *had* stem+ -ed.

Let us take the verb from another example, item g in column 4, and substitute the Simple Past *admitted* for the Past Perfect *had admitted.* We will now change the pronoun to make it accord with one of the pronouns of column r *(she)* so that we have the sentence *She admitted her mistake.* v\Tith items from columns r and 2, we have *She said she admitted her mistake.* Now *admitted* may be either Simple Past Narrative or Simple Past Actual. What she said may have been / *admitted my mistake,* bvt it is more likely to have been / *admit my mistake;* in which case the saying and the admission may not refer to different times. If the general context leaves no doubt about the interpretation, *She said she admitted her mistake* is satisfactory for either. If there is insufficient context, the more likely interpretation is Actual, as the Narrative interpretation is usually ensured by Narrative *had* stem +-ed.

Several items of column 4 consist of *had* stem+ -ed *been,* followed by a past participle of occurrence.

Some students have the idea that Simple Past is used to state **RECENT** past occurrences, and the Past Perfect to state **DISTANT** past occurrences. There is no truth whatever in this idea.

It is unusual for a self-standing sentence to have a verb in the Past Perfect form. When one does occur, its significance is perfective, not narrative.

Tables 68-76 show the use of non-finite verb stem preceded by *to.* On an average, there is one such occurrence in every ten successive verb-form occurrences. There have been a few examples in previous tables.

68

This table shows verb+ *to*+ stem forming a close group.

The tense of the verb in column 2 is irrelevant to the construction; the first appearance of *to*+ stem in earlier tables had a present tense: *I love to sing* (Table rS).

The first five items in column 3, through their meaning, have no need of a following adjunct. The sixth has a prepositional object: *to think about* is equivalent to *to consider.* The last seven items, because of their meanings, need object completion.

69

This table shows two alternatives for *to* (column 3), namely *in order to* and *so as to.* Though apparently similar to the previous table, when *to* is used, the alternative items show that in this table we have a distinct function of *to* + stem, to give the idea of purpose or intention, tending towards a consequence.

In Table 68, each sentence is, from the point of view of meaning, one statement. The items of column 3 give the content of the want, wish, preference and so on expressed in column 2. In Table 69, each sentence is, from the viewpoint of meaning, two statements, that of column r *(I signalled* etc.) and that of columns 3 and 4 (*My purpose was to make him stop* etc.).

There is another observation. Suppose the stem item of column 3 in Table 68 has already been stated, in a previous sentence, for instance *Why did you go?* The items of columns r and 2 may go together to form the answer: *We wanted to. We decided to* (as in Table 54: *We were permitted to. We were told to).* In Table 69 it is not possible to attach the *to* to an item from column 2, for the words *to, in order to, so as to* are more closely associated with the stem items in column 3.

The first three items in column 3 show the stem form after *make,* exemplified in Table 36.

70

This table shows verb+to+stem *(to+stem* dominant).

'Dominant' means dominant for meaning. There would be little loss of meaning if we had the statements: *It squeaked, It worked properly* and so on. However, if we hear the statements: *It began, It used* we would not have any useful information. This is why in the sentence *It began to squeak* the *to* + stem item *(to squeak)* is dominant.

In Table 69 (e.g. *I signalled to make him stop)* the verb item *(signalled)* is dominant for meaning, and if we stopped the sentence after this verb it would be comprehensible: *I signalled.* In Table 68 (e.g. *I wanted to go)* we have comprehensible sentences from columns r and 2: *I wanted to.* However, in such a shortened sentence some item like those of column 3 *(go, leave* etc.) is referred to, and in this way Table 68 differs from Table 69. Nevertheless the verb is still the dominant item. If, from *We wanted to go* we used the *to* + stem item to make a sentence (like *It squeaked* from *It began to squeak)* we would construct *We went.* This would be unjustified, for *We wanted to go* is more likely to mean *We did not go.*

The first two items of column 2 are Simple Past Narrative. The third *(used)* is Simple Past Iterative. The form *used to* is often thought to be a frequent way of expressing past habits; actually it is very infrequent by comparison with the use of the Simple Past (Table 46).

There is, of course, a verb with the stem form *use,* and the past tense form *used: He used a red pencil to underline mistakes.* The pronunciation of *used* is /ju:zd/. *Used* in *used to* is pronounced /just/. There is no present tense form corresponding to *used to* + stem !

71

This table shows verb+to+stem *(to+stem* dominant). In column 1 we have three verbs, which, like those of column 2 in Table 70, are leading members of a verb group, but are not dominant for meaning in that group.

72

This table shows a predicative participle of state (column 2) followed by *to+* stem. In the group, verb+ *to+* stem, the VERB is entitled to classification, as well as the *to+* stem item, though if we are looking at the context for occurrence of the *to* +stem item the tense of the verb is immaterial. Predicative participles of state, however, are both verbal and adjectival, and they are closely associated with their sentence subjects: *He was delighted.* This is our justification for a distinct classification and a separate table.

There has been a previous table with a non-finite stem +-ed followed by *to+* stem (Table 54). Let us look at a sentence from Table 54: *He was permitted to reply.* So that we can compare it with a sentence from Table 72, *He was astonished to see her,* let us change *reply* into *see her.* Here are the two sentences: *He was permitted to see her. He was astonished to see her.*

Suppose we have been talking about seeing her, let us judge whether we can omit this mention from the two sentences. We can from the first: *(How did he manage to see her?) He was permitted to.* We cannot do this with the second sentence; we can stop at *astonished (He was astonished)* but if we add *to,* we MUST go on: *He was astonished to see her.* The sentence subject, *he,* is linked with the predicative adjunct *astonished* or *astonished to see her.*

Following the non-finite stem +-ed distinction between participle of state and participle of occurrence, one sees that the participle of state *astonished* forms a NOMINAL predicate, while the participle of occurrence *permitted* forms a VERBAL predicate. If we make the two non-finite items finite and start each sentence with *They,* we have an intelligible sentence for the first (*They permitted him to see her),* but not for the second; we cannot write *They astonished him to see her.* We see then that there is a distinction between a predicative participle of state followed

by *to* + stem, and a participle of occurrence followed by *to* + stem. After a participle of occurrence, the *to* + stem item can be broken *(He was permitted to),* showing that the stem + -ed item is dominant, and the group is classified accordingly, under stem + -ed. After a participle of state, the *to* + stem item is a unit; it is merely given its sentence context by the preceding stem + -ed; and for this reason is classified under *to* + stem.

To + stem is seen to function as a unit when it is preceded by *not,* for *He was pleased not to see her* is very different in meaning from *He was not pleased to see her:* in the first sentence the meaning is that he did not see her; in the second that he did.

73

In this table, the items of column 3 are various predicative adjuncts to the subject *it:* they show the usual variety, adjective, noun, adverb. Each group consisting of an item from column 1 plus the item in column 2 is roughly equivalent to *was: It was the best solution* etc.

74

This table exemplifies the construction noun + *to* + stem. The *to* + stem items are attributive adjuncts to the nouns.

A lot of (column 2) can come before plural countable nouns *(friends, lessons* etc.), and before singular uncountable nouns *(work, money* etc.). *A lot* of corresponds to both *many* before plural countable nouns and *much* before singular uncountable nouns (Table 47).

If *many* and *much* are substituted before the nouns of column 3, we require *much* before *news.* Despite its plural form, *news* is used as a singular uncountable noun: *The news is good. There is some good news.* Since *news* is not a countable noun, it cannot follow classifying *a.* If we wish to particularize, we have to speak of *a piece of news* or *an item of news* (Table 15).

75

We can formalize this table as *to want someone to do something.* Only a few verbs follow this pattern, but they occur frequently enough to merit representation of the construction in a table. In place of *want,* we may have *permit, allow, require, instruct, order, tell, ask, compel, oblige, force, urge, request, leave, get* and *induce.*

Column 1 gives the subject and verb *(They want).* Column 2 gives the object of *want (him, the Principal).* Looking at column 3, we see the stem form of verbs, some without objects *(try),* some with objects *(do it).* Looking for the subject of the verbs in this column, we find the item from column 2. The item of column 2

is, therefore, both object of the verb in column r and subject of the verb in column 3. In column 3 itself we could, if we wished, repeat the whole construction of columns 2 and 3, for instance, adapting item five in column 3: *They want me to tell her to do it.*

TELL, ASK, REQUEST In the context *to tell someone to do something, tell* means *instruct* or *command.* In some countries where English is used as a second language, *ask* is used in this sense, and in these countries the word *request* has to be used when one does not wish to give the impression of giving an order. In British and American, *to nsk someone to do something* is in no way to order or command. In his *General Service List of English Words,* M. West records 4062 occurrences of *ask,* and 77 occurrences of *request* as a verb. The 77 occurrences would be very formal.

The questions may be answered with *Yes. Yes, please. Yes, I do. No, I don't. Yes, I want (would like) him (her) to. No, I don't want (wouldn't like) him (her) to.*

76

This construction illustrates the low frequency construction adjective+ *to*+ stem, and the very low frequency construction *about*+ *to*+ stem.

The reason for including *to* with the adjectives in column 2 is the same as for associating *to* with the stem+ -ed items in Table 54 (discussed after Table 72).

77

Like Table 76, this table illustrates adjective+ *to*+ stem.

Two favourite school exercises are the joining of sentences to form *too . . . to . . . (My brother is very weak. He cannot do a job well My brother is too weak to do a job well),* and the transformation of *so*+ adjective+ *that*+ clause into *too*+ adjective+ *to*+ stem *(so small that he cannot understand it too small to understand it).* Reference to frequency counts suggests that this is overestimating the importance of the construction.

Table 77 completes the *to* +stem section. There are a few low frequency items which have not been illustrated. One, connecting word+ *to*+ stem, is shown in Table r7 *(Do you know how to drive a car?)* and in Table 59 *(/haven't asked how to do the exercise).* Another, *ought+to+stem,* is illustrated in Table 34 (*/feel you ought to reconsider this proposal).*

Substitution Tables 78-90 illustrate occurrences of the stem +-ing form. The first tables show stem+ -ing in verb groups with some form of *be* as the leading member; then follow tables with stem+ -ing in verb groups with other verbs as the leading member. After these come other uses of stem +-ing, as free adjunct, as adjective and as noun.

78

This table shows Present Progressive 'now', and Past Progressive, both rather low frequency items.

As the names 'progressive' and 'continuous' suggest, the stem+-ing form may be used for an activity going on for some limited period of time, or for an action that is repeated. Often the form suggests some emotional involvement.

For each sentence from Table 78 there is a sentence with a Simple Present or Simple Past equivalent, obtainable by substitution of *do* and *did* for *are* and *were,* and the stem form for the stem+-ing form in column 2: *Why do you flash that light? Why do you put them on the floor? Why did they move that table?* The time references are not altered by the changes.

There are no useful *Rules* for choosing between Simple tenses and Progressive forms. It is wise to avoid the Progressive forms except for particular verbs which you know appear in these forms. (See also the list on p. 83.)

79

This table shows Present Progressive referring to the future. We may compare this table with Tables 27 and 28. In Table 28, for instance, we had the sentences *The President visits the College tomorrow, He makes a speech the day after tomorrow.* In fact, all the affirmative statements of Table 79 might have their Present Progressive items replaced by Simple Present items: *She signs the contract at three o'clock. They meet the Manager later today. He expects payment some time next month.*

In the negative statements, made by substituting *does* and *do* for *is* and *are* and the stem for stem+-ing, most items are acceptable; the item *at all* would be avoided, or replaced by *after all.*

As mentioned after Table 43, the sentence adverb *not* frequently implies reference to a period of time. The items below the bar in column 3 refer to periods of time between the present moment and some time in the future, except for the last item: *at all* is used in negative sentences, to mean *at any time* or *in any way.*

80

This table shows Present Progressive meaning 'now'.

It has been pointed out that verbal questions require the answer *yes* or *no* (or *maybe),* whether they are positive questions or negative questions. The negative question form associates some feeling with the asking of the question, surprise for instance, or disapproval *(Don't you know how to swim?),* or, with a falling intonation, approval *(Doesn't she make good coffee!).*

The Simple Present negative question forms have progressive alternatives, illustrated in this table. It would be wrong to suppose that substitution of the Simple Present would change the time reference from 'now' to 'habitual'. Here

are some substitutions to sentences from the table: *Aren't you a nuisance! Don't you do good work I Don't you make a fuss I Don't you expect rather too much from us? Doesn't she confuse me with someone else?*

Doesn't she use too much face powder? may refer to her habitual use of face powder, but then, so may *Isn't she using too much face powder?* In the same way, *Don't you expect visitors?* and *Aren't you expecting visitors?* may refer to the future as well as to the present moment.

81

This table shows Past Progressive 'at that moment'.

We may compare the sentences in this table with those of Tables 44 and 45. Here are two examples: *They stayed with us while the daylight lasted. He did it while we waited.*

If we use *when* in column 4 of Table 81, and replace the Past Progressives in columns 2 and 3 by Simple Past forms, we produce sentences which are unacceptable or which no longer give context but state an occurrence instead: *I got up when the telephone rang* is clearly different from *I was getting up when the telephone rang.*

It seems that the conjunction *while,* in Tables 44 and 45, allows the Simple Past to represent duration of time, whereas this is implicit in the stem+-ing form, whatever conjunction is used.

Using an item from column 1 in Table 81 *(While* or *As),* and replacing the Past Progressives by Simple Pasts, all the sentences (except those using the first item in column 3) begin in an acceptable way: *While I had brealifast... While I did the homework...* but the items of column 5 do not fit. We may conclude that though Simple Past Actual provides context description, in association with a suitable conjunction, such as *while,* it does so for an activity, but not for an occurrence: *While I had breakfast I listened to the radio. While I did the homework my sister played with her dolls,* but not *While I had breakfast the telegram arrived.*

82

This table illustrates Present Progressive Habitual, Past Progressive Habitual, and verb+stem+-ing with the stem+-ing member dominant. The first two are infrequent, the third *(kept on, went on* stem+-ing) occurs with modest frequency.

It is sometimes said that whereas the form *am/are/is* stem+-ing refers to the present moment, the stem (stem+-s) form refers to habitual occurrence. Reference to actual usage shows, however, that the Simple and the Progressive forms can be paralleled in reference to the present moment, to the future, and to repeated occurrence.

The general meaning of *other* is *different. Others,* in *lay the blame on others* (column 2) means *other people.*

It is sometimes thought that *the other,* for instance in *swinging from one opinion to the other,* implies TWO items, here two opinions. This is not so. The swinging of opinion may take place between several PAIRS of opinion in succession. *Swinging from the one opinion to the other* would indeed confine the context to two opinions.

Similarly, finding fault with one another does not necessarily mean that only two people are concerned; there may be many. The relationship is reciprocal (that is, in turn taking and giving), but the fault-finding may take place successively between A and B, B and C, etc.

83

This table shows Present Progressive Habitual *(She's for ever amusing herself),* Past Progressive 'at that moment' *(It was free;::,ing),* and verb+stem+-ing, with the stem+-ing dominant *(She started arguing).*

The sentences with the item above the bar in column 1 *(It)* and the four items above the bar in column 3 show the use of formal *it* in sentences describing the weather.

To+sTEM AND STEM+-ING In Table 18, the use of *to+stem* alternatively with stem +-ing was illustrated: *I like to play chess. I like playing chess.* In Table 19, we saw that stem+-ing is the only possibility after *dislike* and *enjoy: I dislike playing chess. I enjoy playing chess.* In Table 42, we had instances of *begin* and *start* followed by *to+* stem: ... *it began to rain. . . .he started to cry.* In Table 83, we have *started* followed by stem +-ing.

We could use *to* +stem after item 4 in column 2: *It continued to rain,* as well as *It continued raining.* It is also possible to have *to+* stem after *stopped, went on, never stopped, was* and *would not stop,* after a subject below the bar in column 1; but the sentences *She stopped complaining* and *She stopped to complain* are not interchangeable: the first sentence means that the complaining ceased, and the second means that the complaining started. The same difference in meaning is shown with the other items. The *to* of *like to do, begin to do, start to do, continue to do* is that of Table 68; and the *to* of *stopped to do, went on to do, was to do, never stopped to do* and *would not stop to do* is that of Table 69. We may point out once more that knowledge of patterns is insufficient, without knowledge of usage.

84

This table shows verb+ stem +-ing with the verb dominant, and verb+ noun/ pronoun/possessive adjective+ stem +-ing. The verb in column I is Simple Present Actual.

Only a limited number of verbs can be leading verbs in the second construction, but they are so frequent that the construction carries the highest frequency

figure of stem +-ing forms so far included in the tables. The item in column 2 below the bar is very closely tied to the item in column 3.

Some writers disapprove of the noun or object pronoun in column 2, and approve only the noun+'s (apostrophes) or the possessive adjective. Their view is that the stem +-ing is a noun. However, we observe that the stem +-ing item itself may have an object *(telling the secret)* or an adverb adjunct *(arriving late)* or be followed by a predicative adjunct to the preceding noun *(Carolfeeling unhappy).*

85

This table shows verb+ noun+ stem +-ing, with the stem +-ing item dominant.

This table is very like the last one in appearance. Suppose we take an item from each table for comparison: *I remember Carol arriving late,* and */ saw some boys reading in the garden.*

In the first sentence, we can hardly take as groups the first three words and the last two, *I remember Carol* and *arriving late.* It is Carol's late arrival that is remembered. The last three words, *Carol arriving late* constitute the object of *remembered.*

In the second sentence (*/ saw some boys reading in the garden), some boys* forms a satisfactory object to *saw,* while being at the same time the subject to *reading.*

86

This table shows stem +-ing in free adjuncts. The free adjuncts in column I give the contexts for the verbs of column 4, just as they would do if they were preceded by the words *while he* (etc.) *was.* This use of stem+-ing is roughly as frequent as its **COMBINED** occurrences in Progressive groups.

In the commentary on Table 58, reference was made to the various sentence positions of non-finite stem +-ed forms, and examples were given of non-finite stem +-ed in free adjuncts: *Urgently needed, the parts were flown there. Exported to Ceylon, the materials proved very popular,* and so on.

To + stem items can also be free adjuncts: *To tell the truth, I completelyforgot it. To take another example, the popular papers never . . .*

Free adjuncts are a prominent feature ofpresent-day English. The description **FREE** indicates that, grammatically, they may have more than one position in a sentence.

The adjuncts listed after Table 58 and those in Table 86 are **RELATED** free adjuncts, for the subject of the stem +-ed or the stem +-ing item is also the subject of the main clause. These free adjuncts, therefore, cannot be moved to sentence positions where they would lose contact with the subject.

In *To take another example, the popular newspapers never mentioned the case of. . .,* the free adjunct *To take another example* has no subject of its own, and does not refer to the subject, verb or object of the main clause; it is an **UNRELATED** free adjunct.

In the sentence *The board has appointed you their Secretary, your duties to commence on May ISt next,* the adjunct has its own *subject, your duties,* entirely independent of the main clause subject; it is an ABSOLUTE free adjunct.

A free adjunct is often chosen in preference to a clause. Doing without a conjunction and a finite verb, one has a shorter and a neater sentence. Moreover, indication of a specific relationship may not be wanted, and the free adjunct allows simultaneous implication of meaning of more than one conjunction, or even more than one type of clause. For instance, in the sentence *Seeing a bright object pass rapidly overhead, anyone these days would think of flying saucers,* the stem+-ing *seeing* implies *If anyone saw...* or *Whenever... is seen,* and also *Anyone who saw....*

Unrelated free adjuncts, especially of the *to* +stem kind, have much in common with sentence adverbs, described in the notes on Table 23.

The last four items in column 4 of Table 86 are occurrences of the stem form like those of Table 36. The sentences made from columns 3 and 4, *I saw an accident happen, I heard my mother call me* may be compared with sentences from Table 85. Making them match, we have the pairs *I saw the accident happen: I saw the accident happening* and *I heard my mother call me: I heard my mother calling me.* Here the durative aspect of the stem+-ing is unmistakable; it contrasts with the reference to individual occurrence through the stem form.

87

This table has adjective+preposition+stem+-ing.

A table of this low frequency use of stem+-ing is justified only because it occurs with the few useful words of column 2. If we are strict about classification, we may isolate the predicative stem+-ed items in column 2; they are, of course, to some extent verbal.

Item 4 in column 3, *reading aloud,* may have some practical interest. We have two ways of reading: we can *read silently* and we can *read aloud.* ,vhen we use *reading* as a noun, however, the expressions are no longer parallel: we have *reading aloud* but *silent reading.* A student may say, *There was an examination in the next room, so we could not have reading aloud. We had silent reading instead.* A person who reads aloud may read SOFTLY or he may read LOUD. We see then that *aloud* contrasts with *silent(ly),* and *loud* contrasts with *softly.*

88

This table shows the construction noun+preposition+stem+-ing. It has a modest frequency of occurrence. Only the most common preposition is illustrated.

89

This table shows stem+-ing as an adjective in a noun group. This is the most frequently occurring stem+-ing. It should be remembered that the stem+-ing is adjective-like in its position but keeps a verbal character nevertheless. The *banging gate* is a gate which *is banging* or which *bangs.* However, we may look at this statement the other way round, and emphasize the descriptive nature of *banging* whether it is in an attributive position *(a banging gate)* or a predicative one (*The gate is banging).*

A squeaking door is a kind, or 'class' of door, and the word *door* itself represents a kind, or class, of objects. *A* is the commonest indication of a 'class' or 'countable' noun, and this indication is the commonest function of *a.* As shown in the commentary on Table 55, the plural equivalent to classifying *a* is ABSENCE of any article, seen in items below the bar in column r.

90

This table shows stem+-ing as a noun.

In sentences from this table, the stem+-ing items of column r refer to the activity in general, and in this respect and in sentence position the stem+-ing is like a noun. However, the second item in the column *(playing hock$_{e\,y}$)* shows the stem+-ing retaining its own object, and thus its verbal character.

The construction below the bar is interesting: *keeps usfit, makes people slim.* The easiest way of describing it is to call *people* the object of *makes.* We then have *slim* as a predicative adjunct to the object. This description is unsatisfactory, however, for if we remove the adjunct we are left with *Running makes people,* which is not credible. We feel that *slim* is as closely linked with *makes* as with *people,* and we can confirm this feeling by rearranging the sentence to *People are made slim.* Once more we see how difficult it may be to isolate the verb from the other elements of a sentence. Both finite verb and participle enter into close associations with a variety of sentence elements in a variety of positions; and often it is most useful to extend the idea of 'verb' so as to include the other elements.

In column *3, you* does not simply mean the person addressed, and *we* does not necessarily include the speaker IN FACT; it may only mean the speaker shares a point of view. Often *you* and *we* are impersonal subjects to general statements (Tables 20, 2r). The verbs in column 2 are Simple Present Neutral.

Table go completes the stem+-ing section. Only one occurrence of stem+-ing in every six is part of a 'progressive tense'. To use the progressive forms correctly requires a fair knowledge of English usage; far more mistakes are made through misusing progressive forms than through not using them. When one is uncertain, it is better to use the Simple tenses.

:Most of the sentences from Tables r-go are Simple Sentences, that is, sentences with one finite verb. However, there has been fair coverage of object clauses, both

introduced and non-introduced, and of temporal clauses. There has also been some discussion of tense concord in compound sentences. Tables 91-ror exemplify compound sentences, with a conjunction having a particularly wide range of meanings: *if*

We may first refer to the use of *if* mentioned in Table 8, as an equivalent of *whether:*

	will stay		
	is staying		
I do not know if he	stays	with Jim	.
	was staying		
	has stayed		
	stayed		

We notice that the tense of the verb in the *if* clause does not depend on the tense of the verb in the main clause; it depends entirely on the meaning the speaker has in mind. Incidentally, *is staying* may refer to now; or, like *stays,* it may mean is *expected (intended) to stay. Was staying* may refer to some time in the past, or may mean *was intended to stay,* referring to an arrangement already made.

91

In this table, the verb in column 2 lays down the speaker's condition for the fulfilment of his request (column 4). The request refers to a future occasion, but the request is made at the time of speaking and the condition too is made at this time, the present moment: the present tense is quite natural for the statement of the condition.

A verb is not always necessary, as the last item shows.

The expression *kind regards* (column 4) occurs frequently in personal letters. It is a message of 'good wishes' or greeting, and either the writer or the person who receives the letter is expected to act as the agent who passes on the message. In this sense, *regards* appears in the plural form only. *Remember me to X* is a similar formula, meaning 'Mention my name, and greet *X* on my behalf'.

Give and *tell* often have two objects, the indirect object, which comes first and usually denotes the person affected by the telling or giving, and the direct object, which represents what is told or given. In the sixth item of column 4 (*tell her about my new job),* we may take *tell about* as the verb (equivalent to *name* or *describe).*

92

This table shows, above the bar, *are* stem+-ing (Present Progressive), and, below the bar, verb+*to*+stem in the if-clause. The general significance of both is the same, *If you are leaving soon* meaning much the same as *If you intend to leave soon.*

The time reference of the last three items above the bar (*are coming/going/ selling it)* is, strictly speaking, present: they state a present wish or obligation. Of course, their more general reference, especially with the items of column 5, is future.

93

In this table, *if* means *suppose:* it puts forward a statement in the form of a hypothesis, intended to lead to a second statement (or question), namely the deduction or conclusion or consequence. In this table, both supposition and consequence have a future time reference.

An alternative construction is illustrated below the bars. *Should* serves as a conjunction. *Should the machinery develop a fault* is equivalent to *If the machinery develops a fault.*

Using the conjunction *when* represents the supposition as certain to be realized.

94

In this table, *if* is shown in the sense of *though,* or *by contrast with the fact that....*

This meaning of *if* is often signalled by *even: Even if...* (column r). Sometimes this use of *if* is identifiable through a word in the main clause, in the following example *also: But if they drove those whom they controlled, they also drove themselves.*

In column 2, the first three items refer to the present moment (Simple Present Actual).

The next three items could refer to the future, with *if* meaning *suppose,* but with *if* meaning *though* refer to the present.

The next five items *(is/are* stem+-ed) have a non-finite stem+-ed which, having no time reference of itself, leaves the indication of time to *is/are.* The stem+-ed could be interpreted as a participle of occurrence and *if* taken to mean *suppose,* and *is/are* could then refer to the future. If the stem+-ed is interpreted as a participle of state, then *if* means *though* and *are* has a present time reference.

95

Unless is a somewhat stronger alternative to *if...not.* It can be used on most occasions on which *if...not* would be possible; but *if...not* is the only possibility when *if* means *in the event that: If he isn't in, get the key from the neighbours.*

96

In this table, *if* means *on the assumption that.* The items of column 4 represent conditions based on the assumptions of column 2. The time reference of both clauses is present.

The items in the last two sections of column 2 have a present time reference. Their Past tense form indicates that the speaker of the sentence is reluctant to make the assumption. If the Past tense form is preferred in the if-clause, the Past tense form *would*+ plain stem is required in the main clause.

97

In sentences from this table, there is no idea of condition or hypothesis or supposition. *If* means *every time that*. . . .

The definite article before other *(the other)* shows that two objects are under consideration. If there are only two objects present, we expect *the one* (column 2). However, suppose there are several PAIRS of valves, pistons and the like. Then *one* may be to that extent indefinite; and *the other* then means the CORRESPONDING item of the PAIR.

98

In this table, as indicated in alternative items in column r, *if* introduces a proposition (about which there is no doubt) in order to lead to a deduction (column 3). Often the word *then* is placed before the deduction: *If he sponsors/sponsored/has sponsored it, then it ought to be perfect.*

No concord of verb form tense is required; obviously, since sponsoring in the past and sponsoring in the present may equally justify the conclusion that it ought to be perfect.

The use of this *if* is common in argumentative prose. It enters into a fundamental proposition in symbolic logic: *If p, then q.*

Sentences from the table should be spoken with stress on *he.*

99

In Tables 99-IQI, we have *if* followed by past tense forms. Let us take specimen sentences from these tables:

If the ship sailed six hours ago, they can be there already (Table 99).
If he were less aggressive he would be more welcome (Table 100).
If he looked on the top shelf he would find it (Table IQr).
If he had looked on the top shelf he would have found it (Table IQr).

An immediate difference appears between the first sentence and the other three, namely the present tense *(can)* in the main clause.

The ship sailed six hours ago is a statement of fact, and *sailed* is Simple Past Narrative. Putting *if* before this statement does not change its character or time

reference. It indicates (r) lack of knowledge about the fact of occurrence of the sailing and (2) that the statement *the ship sailed six hours ago* is presented as a hypothesis, for the sake of the conclusion or deduction: *they can be there already.* There is no necessary connection between the time reference of the hypothesis and the time reference of the deduction: *If the ship left six hours ago, / the captain had probably received instructions to hurry / the agent missed seeing the captain/ they will arrive in Napier early tomorrow.*

100

Things are as they are; but we can imagine them different. Events which have not yet taken place have no reality; but we can imagine them, for the future. Things which happened happened and cannot be changed; but we can imagine things different. We can, then, suppose (r) situations that are unreal, (2) events that have had no opportunity to occur, and (3) events whose opportunity to occur has gone.

Substitution Table roo illustrates situations that are imagined different. A person is aggressive. We regret this. *If only he were not so aggressive!* we exclaim; or we say *I wish he were not so aggressive!*

In these sentences we notice the Simple Past form *were* after *he.* This form is an indication that the sentence concerns an unreal situation. In the sentence *I wish the car belonged to you* (Table 49) the verb form *belonged* does not itself indicate that the sentence concerns an unreal situation, but the context of *belonged* after *I wish* does so.

When a given situation is unreal, the real situation is the opposite of the given situation; so that we can immediately deduce the real situation:

We hear:	We understand:
If only he were not so aggressive!	*He is very aggressive.*
I wish he were not so aggressive.	*He is very aggressive.*
I wish the car belonged to you.	*The car does not belong to you.*

In Table roo, *if* precedes the statement of an unreal situation in order that the consequences of a changed situation may be expressed: *If he were not so aggressive . . . he would be more welcome;* but we can draw the same deduction about the real situation.

We hear:	We understand:
If he were not so aggressive . . .	*He is very aggressive.*

In the indication of the unreal nature of the situation, the verb form in the main clause must show concord with that of the if-clause, i.e. it must have the Past tense form *would, should, could* or *might* followed by the verb stem.

101

With columns 1 and 4 above the bar, this table illustrates *if* meaning *suppose* far events that have had no opportunity to occur, and with columns 1 and 4 below the bar for events whose opportunity to occur has gone.

As with unreal situations, there is an implication when we suppose an event; namely that the event has not occurred. We cannot altogether assume, because an event has not yet taken place, that it will not do so. The if-clause may, therefore, be closer to representing a genuine hypothesis put forward in a tentative manner.

With the items below the bar, we are considering suppositions about the past. As with unreal situations (Table 100), we may exclaim in regret, or relief, about happenings which did not occur: *1 jhe had only looked on the top shelf'* vVTe may also express regret with *wish: I wish he had looked on the top shelf* We can go on to suppose the consequence of the event that did not occur: J J *he'd looked on the top shelf he'd have found it.*

As soon as we hear the word *if* or *wish* followed by *had* and a past participle, we know that the actual event is the opposite of the event stated:

We hear:	We understand:
1 jhe had looked . . .	*He did not look.*
I wish he had looked . . .	*He did not look.*
1 jonly he had looked!	*He did not look.*

The verb forms in the main clause *(would+* stem, and would+ the stem *have+* past participle) may not be altered.

The if-clauses have alternative versions, beginning with the Modal Simple Past forms.

REGISTER OF GRAMMATICAL AND OTHER ITEMS

Numbers rifer to the tables and/or commentary and principal references are in bold type

SURVEY OF 'PREPOSITIONAL VERBS' AND 'PHRASAL VERBS'

It is generally easy to recognize a particular word in a sentence as the verb. In some sentences, however, it is possible to look upon two or more words as a unit functioning as a verb. Substitution Table 2 has the sentences *Look at me, watch me.* Obviously *me* is constant, and *look at* and *watch* are substitutable one for the other. If we call *me* the object of *watch,* we should call *me* the object of *look at* too. Grammarians do this in two ways. Some describe *look* as a verb which is followed by a 'prepositional object' *(at me);* others describe *look at* as a 'prepositional verb' which is followed by the object *me.* Here is a list of the occurrences of this kind in the Substitution Tables:

accord with, 11
allude to, 57
approve of, 96
argue over, 57
arrive at (a conclusion), 39, 40
ask for, 38
come to (a conclusion), 39
comment on, 57
compete with, 87
complain about, 83
comply with, 11
conform to, 11
consent to, 34
depend on, 32
dig up, 74
fall into (a trap), 40
fill in, 81
go for (a walk), 37, 47
go on (stem+-ing), 82, 83
go with *(=suit),* 13, 14
head for, 96
hear of, 57
hint at, 57
inquire into, 57
jump to (a conclusion), So
keep on (stem+-ing), 82
lecture on, 87
listen to, 57
look after, 93
look at, 1, 60
look into, 57
make up (one's mind), 65
preach at, 83
refer to, 57
speak about, 57
speak with, 61, 91
struggle with, 44
talk about, 83
think about, 60, 68
think of, 57
worry about, 52, 84
write about, 57

Sometimes the non-finite stem+-ed form of a verb is followed by a preposition and noun, though the finite stem and stem+-ed forms of the same verb are followed by a direct object. Here is a list of occurrences in the Tables:

alarmed at, 52
amused at, 52
annoyed about, 52
ashamed of, 52
confused by, 52
delighted with, 52
disappointed by, 52
disconcerted by, 52
disgusted at, 52
dissatisfied with, 52
pleased with, 52
puzzled about, 52
satisfied with, 52
scared of, 87
worried about, 52

Sometimes the finite verb forms have a direct object as well as a prepositional object. In that case, the non-finite stem +-ed may be followed by a prepositional object:

reconcile someone to something — reconciled to something, 87
accustom someone to something — accustomed to something, 87
tell someone about something — told about something, 91
ask someone about something — asked about something, 91

We have one example of a verb with prepositional object itself followed by a prepositional object: *experiment with something on something,* which gives the non-finite stem+-ed form *(was) experimented with on (the machine),* 58.

Sometimes one or more words may come between the word identified as the verb and the preposition, and the whole group may function as a prepositional verb. The following units include nouns:

call attention to, 38
find fault with, 82
have a ride on, 61
make alterations to, 58
say anything about, 39

The following include adjectives:

be busy with, 44
feel confident about, 38
run short of, 82
seem proper with, 13

The following has an adverb:

deal strictly with, 54

The following include a preposition group:

be in need of, 9
come to the end of, 58

We have an adverb coming between verb and *to+stem* in:

ask how to, 60
know how to, 17
learn how to, 60

Sometimes a verb and an adverb form a close group (a phrasal verb, see Table 58). The mea,1ing of the group may be more or less that of the two words:

camp out, 18
come back, 69
turn back, 66, 69

More often, the meaning could not be known from the meanings of the words separately. All examples show stronger stress on the particle than on the verb, *,set 'out:*

be up, 4
break down, 93
get up, 18, 81
go out (of lights), 81
set out, 28, 99
take off (of an aeroplane), 99
turn out, 73

Some phrasal verbs have objects, whose positions are referred to in the commentary after Substitution Table 58. Occasionally the meaning is fairly literal,

or close to the meanings of the individual items of the group; or the particle may be without much meaning:

add up (the wages), 75
give (it) away, 37
pick (it) up, 35
put (it) back, 53
take (it) away, 75

Most often the meaning belongs to the verb+particle as a unit:

bring (it) up, 57
follow up (a reference), 40
look (it) up, 40
put forward (a suggestion), 57

A phrasal verb may have a prepositional object (or, in other words, we have phrasal-prepositional verbs):

come up to, 11
go ahead with, 36
go on with, 1

A phrasal verb may have an object and a prepositional object:

carry (an experiment) out on, 58
try (an experiment) out on, 58

In the commentary after Substitution Table 90, we discussed the difficulty of interpreting *fit* in *Running keeps you fit*, or *Running makes you fit*. It would be simple to consider *fit* as an adjunct to the object *you*, but it is undoubtedly more reasonable to consider *keep . . . fit*, *make . . . fit* as units with *you* as the 'object'. The following are similar constructions:

get (dinner) ready, 19, 64
keep (it) secret, 78

We have written about the close meaning-link between non-finite stem +-ed and *to* +stem *(permitted to reply)*, 54, and between non-finite stem and preposition phrase *(grown in our district)*, 55; so that the *to*+ stem and preposition phrase are completions rather than extensions of the stem +-ed items. In *get out of control*, 66 and *go out of order*, 93, the verbs *get* and *go* could hardly be considered to have meanings at all apart from the remaining words of the group. Of course the verb groups with weak formal *do* and a stem, with intervening subject *(Does she drive a car?)*, and those with virtually meaningless finite parts of *be* followed by a subject and a stem+-ing item *(Why are they cheering?)*, 78, are common. We have seen too that often other verbs form part of groups in which other items are dominant: *He never came to like music*, 71; *She went on searching*, 83; *I went past some girls sleeping*, 85. One of the most interesting (and difficult) features of English is the way in which a verb links with and extends into other parts of the sentence.

VERB-SCHEME

Most English verbs have four forms:

stem	*love*
stem+-ed	*loved*
to+stem	*to love*
stem+-ing	*loving*

Here in outline is a description of the essential facts about the English verb from the point of view of the use of these four forms, together with lists, where these are appropriate, of the verbs used in particular structures.

STEM

(including the -s form of the Simple Present)

1 The Imperative.	*Come* here! You *do* it.
2 After stressed 'do' *(a)*, 'do' 'does' 'did' *(b) (c)*	
(a) Strong imperative.	Do *be* quiet!
(b) Emphatic statement.	I do *hope* he comes. I did *want* to see him.
(c) Interrogative, expressing surprise.	What do you *mean?*
3 After Imperative 'do not (don't)'.	Please don't *say* anything.
4 After 'do' 'does' 'did' (a)+'not'	I don't *remember.*
(*b*) + subject	Does he *remember?* Did he *remember?*
(c) +'not'+subject	Didn't he *go?* Doesn't he *speak* fast!
5 After 'feel'+noun or pronoun. Also hear, see, watch, let, make, help, have.	We felt the earth *tremble.* She made me *tell* her. Have him *come* in.
6 After 'can'	
(a) Innate or learned ability.	He can *run* like a deer.
(b) Ability conferred by circumstance.	Can you *lend* me £5?
(c) Permission.	You can *go* now.
(d) Refusal.	You can't *go* yet.
(e) Impossibility.	He can't *be* dead.
(f) Possibility.	Can he *know?*
(g) Impatience.	Where can he *be?*
7 After 'may'	
(a) Possibility.	It may *be* true ('may' stressed)

(b) Permission. (Counts show that 'can' and 'may' are used equally frequently to express permission.)	You may *go* ('go' stressed).
(c) Refusal.	You may not *go.*
(d) Practically meaningless, in concessive clauses.	Wherever you may *go* . . .
(e) Following expressions of wish, hope, fear, demand.	I fear he may *be* right.
(f) In attributive clauses with a vague antecedent.	Any piece of work he may *do* will be badly done.
(In (d), (e) and (f) nothing important is lost by the omission of 'may'.)	
8 After 'shall'	
(a) Asking for permission or advice.	Shall I *bring* it?
(b) Expressing the wishes (promise, intention, threat) of the speaker.	I shall *do* as I please. You shan't *pay.* He shall *obey* me.
(c) Future.	I shall soon *be* ready. Shall we *be* in time? Shall you *tell* him?
(d) Stem 'have'+-ed (future).	We shall *have* finished before five.
9 After 'will'	
(a) Expressing the wish or consent of the subject.	Will you *do* this for me?
(b) A form of imperative.	You will *do* as I say.
(c) Expressing determination.	I will *do* it. Youwon'tgounless I say so.
(d) Characteristic habit.	She will *sit* for hours knitting.
(e) Natural tendency.	Boys will *be* boys.
(f) Statement of fact.	This road will *bring* you to the railway station.
(g) Indicating probability.	This will *be* the house.
(h) Making an assumption.	You will *understand* my position.
(i) Indicating future.	I'll *come* tomorrow.
(j) Stem 'have'+-ed (future).	We'll *have* finished by ten.
(k) Stem 'have'+-ed (assumption).	He'll *have* arrived by now.
10 Before 'will' in concessive clauses.	*Say* what you will . . .
I I After 'must'	
(a) Necessity.	I *must.finish* this.
(b) Inference.	You must *know* him. You must *have* met him.
(c) Prohibition.	You mustn't *say* such things.
(d) Past necessity.	He said he must *go.*
(e) Past inference.	I thought he must *know.*
(f) Stem 'have'+-ed (probability).	He must *have* known.
12 After 'could'	
(a) Reported 'can' (innate ability).	I knew he could *sing.*
(b) Reported 'can' (conferred ability).	He couldn't *afford* it.
(c) Permission.	He told me I could *go.*

(d) Impossibility.	I knew it couldn't *be* true.
(e) Possibility.	I wondered if it could *be* true.
(f) Impatience.	Where *could* it be?
(g) Polite request.	Could you *tell* me the time?
(h) Stem 'have'+-ed (possibility).	Who could *have* anticipated that?

I3 After 'might'

(a) Possibility.	I wondered if he might *know.*
(b) Permission.	He said I might *borrow* his book.
(c) Polite request.	Might I *see* that?
(d) Following expressions of hope, wish, fear.	He hoped he might not *be* seen.
(e) Stem 'have'+-ed (possibility).	He might *have* been seen.
(f) Stem 'have' +-ed (non-fulfilment).	You might *have* told me!

I4 After 'should'

(a) Probability.	This key should_fit.
(b) In rhetorical questions.	How should I *know?*
(c) Recommendation (='ought to').	You should *see* this film.
(d) Moral obligation (='ought to').	He should *help.*
(e) In subordinate clauses: rather meaningless (of time).	I waited until he should *finish.*
(f) In subordinate clauses: rather meaningless (of purpose).	I spoke slowly so that there should *be* no mistake.
(g) In subordinate clauses: after verbs of feeling.	I was worried lest he should *get* iost.
(h) In subordinate clauses: reported 'shall' or 'will'.	He said I *should* be paid.
(i) After expressions of surprise or regret.	I am surprised you should *think* so. I am sorry you should *have* been troubled.
(j) In conditional clauses.	If he should *ask,* tell him I've gone out.
(k) Stem 'have'+'-ed' in conditional clauses.	If he should *have* finished, tell him to go.
(l) In subordinate clauses: rather meaningless (of time).	I waited until he should *have* finished.

I5 After 'would '

(a) Obstinacy.	He would *keep* on interrupting.
(b) Refusal.	He wouldn't *do* as I said.
(c) Reported 'will' (intention).	He said he would *go.*
(d) Reported 'will' (future).	He knew it would *be* easy.
(e) Habitual.	He would *go* for a swim every day.
(f) Polite request.	Would you *come* here, please. I wish you wouldn't *interrupt.*

(g) Probability. That would *be* the milkman.
(h) Stem 'have' +-ed. He would *have* come if he had known. [He didn't.]
(i) Stem 'have'+'been'+-ing. If I'd agreed, I'd *have been* enjoying myself in Paris now. [I didn't agree.]
(j) 'Would rather'. I'd rather *go* to Paris than stay in London.
(k) 'Would rather'+'have'+-ed (preference). I'd rather *have* visited Athens than Rome.

16 'Had better' (advisability). You'd better *go* now.
'Had better'+'have'+ -ed. He'd better *have* gone when I said.

17 'Would sooner' (preference). I'd sooner *live* in the country than in the city.
'Would sooner'+ 'have' +-ed. He'd sooner *have* had two than one.

18 After 'dare (not)'. Dare you *climb* that tree?

19 After 'need not'. You needn't *go.*
'Need not'+'have'+-ed. You needn't *have* gone.

20 After 'why?' Why *tell* me?
After 'why not?' Why not *tell* him?

Tense uses (include *stem+-s)*

Simple Present
(a) Actual. I *see* what you mean.
I *think* he *knows* the answer?
(b) Neutral. The planets *move* round the sun.
Iron *is* a metal.
Rice *grows* well in Burma.
(c) Iterative. I *reach* the office at nine.
(d) Future (main clause). I *leave* early tomorrow.
(e) Future (subordinate clause). Will you *wait* until he comes?
Modal. I recommend that he *go.*
Long *live* the King!
It was suggested that the Mayor *be* approached.

-ED

1 Past participle of state. I am *pleased* with the result.
She was *dressed* in blue.

2 Past participle of occurrence. He was *killed* in an accident.

3 Past participle of occurrence (from verbs with two objects). We were *shown* the photographs.
allot, ask, assign, bring, buy, cause, choose, cook, deny, do, envy, fetch, get, give, grant, guarantee, hand, lease, leave, lend, let, make, offer, order, owe, pass, pay, pour, promise, read, rent, save, sell, send, show, spare, strike, teach, tell, throw, wish, write.

4 Past participle+ preposition-group.	No objection was *taken* to his action.
5 Past participle+ -ing. catch, find, hear, keep, leave, notice, observe, perceive, see, set, smell, start, watch.	He was *seen* struggling.
6 Past participle+ to+ stem. Most of the verbs in section 2 of 'to+ stem'.	He was *asked* to leave.
7 Past participle referring back to predicate. adore, consider, detest, (can't) endure, enjoy, (can't) face, fancy, find, get, imagine, leave, like, mind, need, picture, prefer, relish, remember, report, require, (can't) stand, (can't) stick, tolerate, try, want.	I like them *boiled.*
8 Verb+ noun/pronoun+ -ed. get, have, make.	He made himself *heard.*
9 = adjective.	He offered me tea in a *chipped* cup.
10 In free adjuncts.	*Excited* at the idea of meeting her again, he . . .

Tense uses

Simple Past	
(a) Narrative.	He *picked* up the glass and *dashed* it to the floor.
(b) Actual.	The path *led* through a wood where tall trees *stretched* and *towered,* so dense that no light *penetrated* through them to the ground below.
(c) Habitual.	For six months I *saw* him every day.
(d) Neutral.	He said that friends *were* important to him.
(e) Modal.	It's time the facts *were* known.
(f) Unfulfilled condition.	If he *came,* we would ask him. I wish I *knew* the answer.
Perfect	
I Present Perfect	
(a) 'Perfect Present'.	Where *have* you *been?*
(b) Resultative.	*I've painted* the door.
(c) Continuative.	*I've been* here for two years.
(d) Of experience.	*I've* never *drunk* champagne.
(e) Have got=have (obligation).	*I've got* to get up early.
(f) Have got=have (possession).	*I've got* enough money.
(g) Have+-ed=future.	I'll come when *I've finished.*
(h) Have+ been +-ing= Perfect Present Progressive.	He's *been* studying for years.

2 Past Perfect

(a) Narrative. When we arrived, the match *had started.*

(b) Reported Simple Past Narrative. We knew he *had paid.*

(c) Unfulfilled condition. If we *had gone,* we'd have met them.

(d) Reported Perfect Present. He said he *had just.finished.*

(e) Reported Resultative Present Perfect. I knew *he'd painted* the door.

(f) Reported Continuative Present Perfect. I found *he'd been* studying for years.

(g) Reported Present Perfect of experience. He admitted *he'd* never *seen* a ghost.

(h) Reported 'have got' (obligation) He explained he'd *got* to get up early.

(i) Reported 'have got' (possession). I thought *he'd got* enough money.

(j) Reported 'have'+-ed = future. He promised he'd come when *he'd.finished.*

(k) Reported Present Perfect Progressive. I thought *he'd been* studying for years.

ro+sTEM

1 Verb+to+stem. He tried *to cheat* me.

(a) agree, arrange, ask, attempt, begin, claim, combine, conspire, continue, contrive, demand, endeavour, fail, fix, get, help, manage, mean, offer, omit, plead, prepare, press, proceed, promise, propose, qualify, reckon, refuse, request, require, seek, serve, set, start, try;

(b) have+to+stem; I have *to go* now.

(c) be+to+stem; This house is *to let.*

(d) practically any verb can be followed by to+stem to indicate purpose; He got up *to go.*

(e) come, get, grow, live, prove; I got *to know* him well.

(f) aspire, bother, care, choose, condescend, consent, crave, decide, deign, delight, desire, determine, disdain, elect, expect, fear, hanker, hate, hesitate, hope, incline, intend, like, long, love, mean, neglect, prefer, regret, rejoice, resolve, scorn, scruple, shudder, want; I like *to get* up late.

(g) affect, appear, chance, feign, forget, presume, pretend, profess, prove, purport, remember, seem. He appeared *to be* convinced.

2 Verb+noun/pronoun+to+stem. I want you *to have* this.

(a) adjure, advise, aid, allow, approach, arrange, ask, assist, authorize, beg, beseech, bribe, call, cause, challenge, charge, command, compel, condemn, conjure, constrain, dare, defy, desire, direct, doom, drive, enable, encourage, enjoin, entreat, excite, exhort, expect, fancy, favour, forbid, force, get, hate, help, impel, implore, incite, induce, inspire, instigate, instruct, intend, invite, invoke, lead, leave, like, love, mean, need, oblige, order,

permit, persuade, plan, possess, pray, prefer, press, promise, prompt, provoke, push, remind, request, require, reveal, say, send, sentence, suffer, summon, tell, tempt, threaten, trouble, trust, urge, want, warn, welcome, wish, worry, write;
(b) appoint, assign, book, call, choose, delegate, depute, destine, detail, educate, elect, employ, empower, engage, enlist, enrol, entice, entitle, equip, fancy, fate, guarantee, lure, ordain, pay, pester, pick, prepare, promote, put, qualify, raise, recommend, school, second, select, set, *sign,* SJ?are, teach, tip, train, vote.

3 It+ verb+ noun/pronoun+ to+ stem. — It suits me *to go* now.
amaze, amuse, anger, annoy, appal, astonish, bewilder, bother, delight, excite, irk, irritate, pain, perturb, please, satisfy, scare, shock, *suit,* surprise, terrify, torment, torture, touch, trouble, vex.

4 Verb+ noun/pronoun+ to+ stem 'be'. — I knew him *to be* wrong.
acknowledge, announce, assume, believe, certify, consider, declare, deem, discover, estimate, feel, find, grant, guess, judge, know, perceive, presume, proclaim, pronounce, propose, prove, reckon, report, show, state, suppose, suspect, take, think, understand.

5 Verb+ preposition+ noun/pronoun+ to+ stem. — I rely on you *to help.*
(a) Withfor: arrange, ask, care, hate, long, love, mean, negotiate, pause, pay, phone, prefer, prepare, press, provide, search, send, wait, wish, yearn;
(b) With *on:* call, count, depend, devolve, lean, prevail, reckon, rely;
(c) with *to:* appeal, apply, look, occur, owe (it);
(d) with *with:* agree, arrange, bargain, contract, co-operate, fix, intercede, intervene, rest, settle.

6 Be+to+stem (future arrangement). — We are *to be* there at six.
Imperative. — You are not *to inteifere.*

7 Be+ about+ to+ stem. — The train *is* about *to leave.*

8 Be+ to+ stem'have'+ -ed (non-fulfilment). — We were *to have* met him.

9 Have (got) +to+stem (obligation). — I have *to go* now.

10 Ought+to+stem
(a) moral obligation; — You ought *to help* him.
(b) probability. — This ought *to be* the house.

11 Ought+to+stem 'have'+-ed (non-fulfilment). — You ought *to have* known.

12 Predicative -ed +to+ stem. — I shall be delighted *to come.*
alarmed, amazed, amused, annoyed, appalled, ashamed, astonished, bewildered, bothered,

charmed, cheered, confused, delighted, depressed, determined, devastated, disappointed, disconcerted, disgusted, dismayed, distressed, disturbed, embarrassed, enchanted, exasperated, excited, fascinated, flattered, frightened, honoured, horrified, humiliated, hurt, inclined, inspired, interested, irritated, minded, mortified, moved, offended, overjoyed, pained, perplexed, perturbed, petrified, pleased, prepared, privileged, puzzled, reassured, relieved, resolved, satisfied, scared, shaken, shattered, shocked, staggered, startled, stirred, stung, stunned, surprised, tempted, terrified, thrilled, touched, troubled, upset, vexed, worried.

13 Adjective+to+stem. — We were anxious *to stay.*
able, afraid, anxious, bound, certain, content, curious, due, eager, eligible, fit, game, glad, happy, hard, impatient, liable, likely, loath, lucky, mad, pleasant, proud, quick, ready, reluctant, sad, safe, slow, sorry, strong, sure, welcome, willing, wishful, wont.

14 It+be+adjective+to+stem. — It's difficult *to be* sure.
absurd, advisable, dangerous, easy, essential, fair, feasible, good, hard, harmful, healthy, horrible, idiotic, illogical, imperative, impossible, imprudent, irritating, just, legitimate, logical, ludicrous, mad, natural, necessary, nice, normal, O.K., peculiar, possible, practical, rational, realistic, reasonable, relevant, rewarding, ridiculous, right, risky, rude, sad, sensible, silly, simple, strange, stupid, superfluous, tedious, terrible, true, useful, vital, wrong.

15 Be+superlative (or ordinal: first, next, last, only)+to+stem. — He's always the last *to leave.*

16 Adjective+preposition-group+to+stem. — It was kind of you *to help.*
admirable, aggravating, ambitious, amusing, annoying, awful, big, brave, bright, callous, candid, casual, charming, childish, churlish, circumspect, civil, clever, clumsy, comic, common, correct, courageous, courteous, cowardly, crafty, criminal, cruel, cunning, cynical, daring, delicate, despicable, discreet, disgraceful, disgusting, dreadful, dull, enterprising, extravagant, facetious, foolish, forceful, friendly, gallant, generous, good, gracious, greedy, handsome, hateful, helpful, heroic, honest, horrible, imaginative, immoral, impertinent, impolite, improper, improvident, imprudent, impulsive, inconsiderate, inconsistent, inefficient, inept, ingenious, ingenuous, inhuman, intolerable, irreverent, irritating, jolly, just, kind, loose, magnanimous, magnificent, malicious, mean,

mischievous, miserable, modest, morbid, naive, natural, nice, noble, normal, obedient, objectionable, odd, perverse, petty, polite, profound, prudent, quaint, queer, remiss, reprehensible, resourceful, revolting, rotten, sensible, shameful, sharp, skilful, sly, splendid, sporting, stingy, strange, stupid, subtle, sweet, tactful, tolerant, truthful, typical, vain, vindictive, vulgar, wasteful, wicked, wily, wise, witty, wrong.

17 Noun+ to+ stem. — Have you found a book *to read?*

18 To+stem=noun. — *To know* her is *to love* her.

19 What, where, when, etc.+ to+ stem. — I don't know what *to do.*

zo Free adjunct. — *To go* back to the beginning . . .

-ING

1 Verb+ preposition+ -ing. — I wouldn't dream of *going.*

(a) with *about:* brag, complain, dream,
(b) with *at:* balk, blush, boggle, fuss, grumble, hesitate, joke, ponder, squabble, swank, think, vacillate;
(c) with *against:* fight, rebel, struggle;
(d) with *by:* begin, conclude, end, retaliate;
(e) *withfor:* apologise, atone, care, relent;
(f) with*from:* abstain, come, desist, flinch, recoil, recover, recuperate, refrain, retire, shrink;
(g) with *in:* acquiesce, believe, concur, consist, delight, err, excel, glory, indulge, participate, persist, revel, succeed, unite;
(h) with *into:* relapse;
(i) with *of:* boast, brag, come, complain, consist, despair, think, tire;
(j) with *on:* capitalize, count, gamble, hinge, insist, reckon, rely;
(k) with *over:* cavil, chafe, dally, enthuse, fret, fuss;
(l) with *to:* admit, agree, amount, attest, confess, descend, object, resort, switch, testify;
(m) with *with:* agree, dispense.

In general, if a verb is normally followed by a given preposition, the position usually filled by a following noun can be filled by an -ing form (She believes in ghosts: She believes in *spoiling* children).

z Noun+ preposition+ -ing. — He has no interest in *studying.*

In general, if a noun is normally followed by a given preposition, the position usually filled by a noun can be filled by an -ing form (His surprise at the result was comic: His surprise at *meeting* her was unexpected).

3 Adjective+ preposition+ ing.
(a) with *about:* casual, cautious, certain, coy, crazy, cynical, diffident, discreet, dubious, enthusiastic, optimistic, particular, pessimistic, sanguine, sceptical, scrupulous, serious, sure, timid;
(b) with *at:* adept, adroit, aghast, angry, artful, bad, clever, crafty, excellent, expert, furious, good, handy, marvellous, proficient, skilful, splendid;
(c) *withfor:* excellent, famous, handy, notable, perfect, sorry, suitable, useful.
(d) *withfrom:* exempt, hoarse;
(e) with *in:* consistent, correct, deft, diligent, effective, expert, helpful, instrumental, late, proficient, prompt, punctual, quick, remiss, right, ruthless, secure, slow, smart, tactful;
(f) with *of:* aware, bashful, capable, certain, chary, conscious, fond, guilty, hopeful, innocent;
(g) with *on:* intent, keen;
(h) with *over:* disconsolate;
(i) with *to:* akin, equal, equivalent, tantamount.

Are you keen on *gardening?*

4 verb+-ing (where the verb is dominant).
admit, adore, advise, allow, anticipate, avoid, begin, cease, come, commence, confirm, consider, contemplate, continue, deny, deplore, deserve, detest, dread, endure, enjoy, escape, evade, extol, face, fancy, fea.!j., find, finish, favour, forget, forsake, get, go, grudge,(,help, imagine, leave, like, love, merit, mind, miss, need, neglect, obviate, permit, picture, ponder, practise, prefer, propose, recall, recollect, regret, rehearse, relish, remember, report, require, resent, resume, risk, scorn, stand, start, stick, stop, suggest, tolerate, try.

Do you remember *meeting* him?

5 Verb+-ing (where the -ing form is dqminant).
come, go.

She has gone *shopping.*

6 Verb+ noun/pronoun+ -ing.
describe, detest, excuse, feel, find, get, grudge, hear, hinder, imagine, keep, IT\il}.d,-no,tice, observe, perceive, pictu{e, hity, preven mell, see, start, stop.

I couldn't stop him *coming.*

7 After predicative adjective.

It isn't worth *considering.*

8 Formal it+ be+noun+-ing.

It's no use *thinking* of it.

9 It/its/there+ -ing.

He was worried by its not *being* a success.

10 Formal there+ be+ noun/pronoun+ -ing.

There's a policeman *coming.*

11 Verb+ noun/pronoun/possessive adjective+ -ing.

I saw them *running* away.
I don't remember your *telling* me.

12 Having/being+ -ed.	*Having* been there, I can tell you about it. He likes *being* spoiled.
13 In free adjuncts.	*Shaking* his head, he left the room.
14 = adjective in a noun-group.	It's an *amusing* story.
15 =noun.	What's happened to your *writing?*

Tense uses

Present Progressive	
(a) 'Now'.	He's *sleeping.*
(b) Future.	We're *leaving* tomorrow.
(c) Habitual.	You're always *making* trouble.

The following is a list of those verbs which are not normally used in the progressive form, and therefore use the Simple Present Actual to describe action 'now'.

Abound, add up to, adore, afford, (dis)agree, amaze, appear (in the sense of 'seem'), apply to, (dis)approve, arise, assure, astonish, be (afraid, angry, fond of, annoyed, (dis)pleased, tired of), befit, (dis)believe, belong, betray, can, care, centre (round), change ('it' subject), come ('it' subject), compare, compensate (for), comprise, conflict (with), connote, consider (N V N N), consist (of), constitute, contain, continue (it, the weather), contradict (impersonal), convince, correspond (it/this), corroborate, cost, count (that doesn't count), date, denote (it/this), depend (it depends), deserve, desire, desist (from), despise, detest, differ, disdain, disgrace, dismay, distrust, embody, entail, equal, esteem, exceed, excel, exclaim, exist, expect, extend (to), fancy, fear, feel (that), favour, figure, fit, follow (understand), foresee, forget, forgive, go (with-in the sense of 'match'), grieve, harmonize, hate, have (possessive), hear, heed, hinge, hold (contain), imagine, imply, include, indicate, infer, inherit, involve, keep (not to go bad), know, last, lend (it), lie (be situated), (dis)like, loathe, look (it), love, manifest, mark (this), match (harmonize), matter, may, mean, must, merit, mind (care), mistrust, misunderstand, mortify, must, need, oblige, obscure, observe (remark), occur (it), offer (this), originate (in), ought, owe, own, parallel, perceive, persist, (dis)please, pity, possess, precede, prefer, profess, reckon, recognize, regard, remain, remember, remind, resemble, respect, result (in), reveal (it), ring (it), (dis)satisfy, say (it says), see, seem, shall, show (it), signify, skirt, smell, sound, stand (for/out), stem, strike (it), subscribe, succeed (follow), suffice, suit, surprise, sympathize, take (it), think (that), transcend, understand, value, venture, want, will, wish, yield.

Past Progressive	
(a) 'Then'.	He was *sleeping* when I left.
(b) Habitual.	When he was at school, he was always *making* trouble.
(c) Reported future.	He said he was *leaving* the next day.
Future Progressive.	I'll be *seeing* you.
Future Perfect Progressive.	Next year we shall have been *living* here for ten years.

VOCABULARY

Numbers refer to Tables. For very frequent words no reference is given. For verbs and nouns with regular suffixes the stem form alone is listed; irregular past and participial forms are listed independently.

Abbreviations: *v.* = verb, *n.* = noun, *adj.* = adjective, *adv.* = adverb, *prep.* = preposition, *pron.* = pronoun, ***conj.*** = conjunction, ***intens.*** = intensifying, ***tr.*** = transitive, ***intr.*** = intransitive.

SPECIMEN SENTENCES

Specimen sentences, showing intonation, following Mr R. Kingdon.[t]

Key:

'	High level tone	\	High falling tone
ˌ	Low level tone	ˎ	Low falling tone
ˊ	High rising tone	ˏ	Partial stress
,	Low rising tone		

Marks may occur in succession (e.g. \/Falling-rising). Marks may be doubled (e.g. ") to show emphasis.

Substitution Table

1 Be \careful.
2 \Please pay at'tention to the \Secretary.
3 ,Now 'don't be af\raid.
4 Is your 'father at -home?
He's 'not very \well.
5 He has a 'bad \cold.
6 He's \ready.
Are you 'ready?
7 I 'hear he's a \friend of yours.
It oc'curs to -me he's a \friend of yours.
8 I \wonder ,whether there'll be a 'big \audience.
It's \doubtful whether the water is \hot.
9 They 'need your \help.
They 'don't \want your ,help.
10 \How many do you ,want?
,What do you 'need them -for?
11 ,Those ac'cessories 'hardly \satisfy our de'\mands.
12 ,That \pink ,dress ,looks ,nice.
13 'This \type ,doesn't ,go with her \hair style.
14 Her 'sister's new ,shoes \match her ,dress.
15 Her 'uncle owns a 'piece of \land.
16 It con'sists of 'over a 'dozen \objects.
17 Do you speak 'English?
18 I \\love to get up ,early.
19 I'm \tired of working in the ,kitchen.
20 ,People ap\'preciate 'running ,water in ,summer.
21 'How does one \get there?
22 'All \rivers ,rise on 'high \ground.

[t] R. Kingdon: *The Groundwork of English Stress,* Longmans Green & Co., 1958.

23 I 'often 'go there.
I 'go there -every 'day.
24 I 'don't "usually -eat ,cheese.
25 ,Don't you 'ever -go -home 'that •way?
Does your 'sister -ever -have a 'holiday?
26 'What do you do in the "evenings?
27 'When does the 'next 'train ar'rive?
28 The ,President ,comes to the Uni'versity ,next 'Friday.
29 I 'hope he's 'not 'late.
30 I'll "see you 'later.
3r 'This will be the 'street.
32 I can 'offer you a 'meal.
33 I wish you'd 'stop 'pushing.
34 I 'do ,feel he 'ought to re'vise ,this pro'posal.
35 I 'saw her ,leave the 'house.
36 I 'couldn't ,make her do 'that.
37 I 'went 'there 'yesterday.
38 We didn't 'recognize you "then.
39 Did she 'say anything a'bout it ,last ,Thursday?
40 'Didn't you -check the defin-ition once be"fore?
4r We en'joyed the 'scenery.
42 As 'soon as we ar'rived it began to 'rain.
43 \!\'hile "strangers were a'round they 'didn't ,work.
44 The 'men 'stayed with us while the 'daylight 'lasted.
45 He 'did it while we 'waited out'side.
46 In 'those -days I col'lected 'foreign 'stamps.
47 'Where did you -spend your "evenings when you -lived in 'Basra?
48 I 'didn't 'know you were 'Irish.
49 I 'wish I were 'there.
50 'Cheaply produced 'maps are 'urgently 'wanted.
5r 'Goods manu'factured in 'India are ex-ported to Cey'lon.
52 I'm de'lighted with the re'sult.
53 It was re'moved 'early this 'morning.
54 They were per'mitted to re'ply.
55 'Too much 'tea is 'grown in our -district.
56 'This ,chair's 'broken.
57 'Such a pro-posal had 'never been put 'forward be'fore.
A pro'posal like 'this had ,not been -looked 'into 'previously.
58 Some alte'rations were ,tried 'out on the 'vehicle.
59 They have al'ready 'written ,to her.
60 Have you 'looked at the ,exercise yet?
I 'haven't looked at the 'exercise ,yet.
6r I've 'never been a,broad.
Have you ever 'acted **in** a ,play?

62 She's 'turned the 'radio ,off.
Have you 'locked the ,gate?
63 He has 'lived 'here for 'two ,months.
He 'hasn't -seen his 'wife -since 'nineteen -sixty 'two.
64 I'll ,wait till you've 'finished your 'letter.
65 Be'fore she 'went the 'damage had been 'done.
66 The ship had 'passed the 'island beJore the 'passengers a'woke.
67 She 'said that she'd 'answered cor"rectly.
68 We 'wanted to 'go.
69 I 'signalled to make him 'stop.
70 The 'gramophone began to 'squeak.
71 He 'got to ap"preciate it.
72 I was 'pleased to 'see her -there.
'Weren't you sur"prised to ,get the ,offer?
73 It 'seemed to be the 'best so'lution.
74 Her 'uncle has a lot of 'work to ,do.
75 They 'want him to 'go there.
76 My cousin is 'certain to ,come.
77 Her 'brother is 'too 'lazy to ,do a job 'well.
78 'Why are you ,putting them on the ,floor?
79 She's 'signing the 'contract this 'after'noon.
80 'Aren't they 'being a nuisance!
'Isn't she ,staying for 'supper?
81 I was having 'breakfast when the 'telephone 'rang.
'While we were 'thinking what to "do the 'telegram ar'rived.
82 They're "always com'plaining.
They 'went on 'whispering to-gether.
83 It's 'stopped 'raining.
She 'never 'stopped com'plaining about the 'weather
84 I re'member 'feeling un'happy.
85 We 'noticed one or two 'children ,reading in the 'playground.
86 'Crossing the ,street he 'heard a 'sudden 'bang.
87 She's 'not 'keen on 'travelling a'broad.
88 You had the ex"perience of 'working with them.
89 A 'squeaking 'bicycle makes an an"noying 'noise.
90 'Skipping is 'popular.
'Cycling 'keeps you ,fit.
91 If you 'see her 'give her my best 'wishes.
92 If you are 'leaving ,soon 'please 'tell me be'forehand.
93 If the 'generator goes out of ,order 'who will be res'ponsible?
Should the 'motor de'velop a ,fault you should 'leave it a-lone.
94 'Even if the 'battle is *)ost* we can be 'patient.
'Though we are ,conquered the 'future re'mains.
95 Un'less he's 'cured 'rapidly he may 'die.

96 If you 'feel like \that you are -making a mis\take.
If you be\lieved ,that you'd be \doing him an injustice.
97 If 'one ,shaft goes 'in the 'other ,shaft comes \out.
98 If "he has recom\mended it I 'do not 'doubt its \value.
99 If the 'ship \sailed -six -hours a,go they can be 'there al'ready.
100 If she were 'less ag\gressive she would be 'more \popular.
101 If he \looked on the ,top ,shelf he'd 'find \mine.
If he'd \looked in the ,front ,room he'd have \found one.
Had he \looked under the ,mat he would have \found the -key.

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