Formal English

Brian Corless

A manual for students at intermediate secondary levels
This book was published by ANU Press between 1965–1991. This republication is part of the digitisation project being carried out by Scholarly Information Services/Library and ANU Press. This project aims to make past scholarly works published by The Australian National University available to a global audience under its open-access policy.
Formal English

Brian Corless
BA, DipEd
English Master, Melbourne High School

A manual for students at intermediate secondary levels

Australian National University Press, Canberra, London UK and Norwalk Connecticut 1979
Contents

Grammar ix

Your Dictionary xi

Some Technical Terms i

The parts of speech in outline i
Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Article, Verb, Adverb,
Preposition, Conjunction, Interjection

Number 6
Singular, Plural, Agreement of number

Person 8
First person singular, First person plural, Second person,
Third person singular, Third person plural

Gender 9
Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, Common

Case 11
Subjective, Objective, Possessive: Nouns in the possessive
case, Pronouns in the possessive case, Possessive adjectives

Sentence 15
Simple sentence: subject and predicate, Phrase, Complex
sentence: principal and subordinate clauses

Nouns 20
Common noun, Proper noun, Abstract noun, Collective
noun, Plurals of nouns, Nouns of common number,
Nouns that lack a singular form
3 PRONOUNS  31
Personal pronouns: Subjective case, Objective case, Possessive case, Relative pronouns: Subjective case, Objective case, Possessive case, The wrong use of which, what and as; Demonstrative pronouns, Interrogative pronouns, Reflexive and emphatic pronouns: Reflexive, Emphatic; Impersonal pronouns, Indefinite and distributive pronouns

4 ADJECTIVES  48
Degrees of comparison, fewer and less, Possessive adjectives, Demonstrative adjectives, Distributive adjectives

5 ARTICLES  57

6 VERBS  59
Infinitive, Mood, Transitive and intransitive, Direct and indirect objects, Complement, Tense, Indicative mood; Conditional; Auxiliary verbs, Principal parts of a verb, Imperative mood, Subjunctive mood, Voice, Interrogative, Negative, Verbal nouns, Verbal adjectives, Verbs that are wrongly used

7 ADVERBS  99
Degrees of comparison, Interrogative adverbs, Adverbs that are wrongly used, Adverbs ending in wise

8 PREPOSITIONS  104

9 CONJUNCTIONS  106
Co-ordinating conjunctions, Subordinating conjunctions
Phrases and Clauses 108
Noun phrase and noun clause, Adjectival phrase and adjectival clause, Adverbial phrase and adverbial clause: Time, Place, Reason, Manner, Comparison, Concession, Result, Condition; Combinations of subordinate clauses

Capital Letters 115

Punctuation 117
Full stop, Colon, Semi-colon, Comma, Question mark, Exclamation mark, Apostrophe, Quotation marks: Direct speech, Quotation, The wrong use of quotation marks; Hyphen, Dash, Brackets: Curved brackets, Square brackets, The wrong use of brackets; Braces; Italic

Idiom and Image 129
Idiom, Image, Figures of speech: Simile, Metaphor; Shades of meaning

Composition 134
Background material, The library, Choosing a topic, Planning, Writing a paragraph, Presentation: The use of abbreviations, The use of numerals

Letter Writing 140
Business letters, Social letters

Reading List 144

Index 145
This is said to have been the reply, made some five hundred years ago, by the Emperor Sigismund to a bishop who was bold enough to comment unfavourably on the Emperor's Latin grammar.

In a sense the Emperor was right; we are constantly shaping and reshaping our language, but we have more freedom in some areas than we do in others. When we speak we often take short cuts, but in ordinary conversation we can see whether or not our hearers understand us, and we can repeat ourselves if we have to.

The further we move away from conversational speech the greater is our need for care. Few of us can speak well in public without some preparation, and very few of us can write well without a good deal of careful planning. A speaker can tell when he has lost his audience, and he can begin again; a writer has no such second chance.

This book is for those who, unlike the Emperor, are prepared to accept the guidance of standard forms of expression.

Grammar falls into two main parts.

1. It is concerned with the changes that occur in words, as in
   The book belongs to you.
   The book is yours.
   This is your book.

2. It is concerned with the arrangement of words in a sentence, as in
   The game had offered little in the way of interest.
The game, which had offered little in the way of interest, became more exciting.
The game, which had offered little in the way of interest, became more exciting when both sides began to show an unexpected strength.

Grammar is not an end; it is a beginning.
Grammar is a foundation for clear expression, and once you have learnt how to build that foundation you may use it to develop your own particular style.
Your dictionary

If you are serious about wanting to read and write accurately you will make a habit of using your dictionary. If you are at all uncertain of the meaning of a word, look it up. If you do not know how to spell a word, look it up.

It is true that any dictionary begins to be out of date even before it is printed, but this deficiency is as nothing when it is compared with the vast treasures that a good dictionary contains.

Some dictionaries give the origin and later history of each word, but they are too big to be conveniently portable. A very small dictionary does not have the space to spare for any examples of usage.


To save space the compilers of a dictionary rely on a system of abbreviations that varies from dictionary to dictionary. Read the introductory notes in your dictionary. If you ignore them you will waste a great deal of time as you hunt for words that appear not to be there, and when you do find a word you will not understand the details contained in the entry.

The entries are in alphabetical order, but generally the words that are derived from the headword, as the main entry is called, are given with the headword. Words are grouped together in this way to save repetitious definition, and thus to save space, but you must be aware of the possibility of this arrangement before you consult your dictionary. For instance catnip, cat's-paw and cat's pyjamas will almost certainly be entered under the headword cat.
rather than between *catkin* and *cattle* where they alphabetically belong.

An expansion of a dictionary entry will help you to understand how the system works.

The entry appears on page 1019 of the sixth edition of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*.

The expanded entry reads as follows:

*Scribble*, pronounced with a short *i* and with the stress on the first syllable, is the spelling of two distinct words, of which this is the first entry.

*Scribble* may be either a verb or a noun.

1. As a verb *scribble* may be used transitively or intransitively. To scribble is to write something (or to write) hurriedly or carelessly in regard to either handwriting or composition, or simply to obliterate something as in to *scribble out the old address*. To scribble also means to draw carelessly or meaninglessly.

In a jocular or derogatory sense a journalist or an author or a poet or the like may be said to scribble rather than to write, and thence is derived the noun *scribbler*. See the first entry for the ending *er*.

A scribbling-pad or scribbling-paper (terms that are not in general currency in the United States of America) is used for casual jottings.

2. As a noun scribble denotes careless handwriting or something that is carelessly written, such as a scrawl or a hasty note or the like.

From the noun is derived the adjective scribbly. See the second entry for the ending y.

The word scribble is derived from the Middle English derivation from the Medieval Latin scribilare, which is a diminutive of the Classical Latin verb scribere, which means to write. See the third entry for the ending le.

From this expansion of one entry you may see why abbreviations and contractions are necessary in a dictionary.
Every subject, every activity, every sport has its own set of technical terms. You are about to learn some of the technical terms of grammar so that you will be familiar with them when we come to examine them in greater detail.

Many of the exercises that follow will be more easily completed with the help of a good dictionary. It is true that even the best of dictionaries is rather like a photograph: it shows you the way things were rather than the way they are; but it is not to be despised on that account.

A further note on dictionaries is on p. xi.

**The parts of speech in outline**

In grammar we divide words into classes that we call the parts of speech.

**Noun**

A noun is a word used as the name of a person or thing, as in *Elizabeth, city, team, justice.*

1. Make a list of the nouns in the following sentences.

   (a) John wants to buy a shirt when he goes into town, but he might not have enough money.

   (b) The lightness of the cake depends upon the skill of the cook.

   (c) This problem does not appear to have an answer.

   (d) Could you get the tickets for the concert?
Formal English

**Pronoun**

A pronoun stands in place of a noun.

*Peter will be here, but he will be late.*

Here the pronoun *he* is used in place of the noun *Peter.*

*Marie said that she would drive with Joan because they wanted to leave early.*

Here the pronoun *she* is used in place of the noun *Marie,* and the pronoun *they* in place of the nouns *Marie* and *Joan.*

2. **Make a list of the pronouns in the following sentences.**

(a) Joe has lost the car keys; he has looked everywhere, but they have disappeared.

(b) ‘When are we leaving?’ the children asked.

(c) Kay does not like the colour; she wants it to be much darker.

(d) ‘You have worked hard for the appeal,’ the president said to the committee ‘and I thank you most sincerely.’

**Adjective**

An adjective is attached to a noun or pronoun to give us more information about the noun or pronoun.

*A little black dog was digging among the flowers.*

Here the adjectives *little* and *black* help to give us a clearer picture of the dog.

*The poor old man was very weak.*

Here the adjectives *poor,* *old* and *weak* help to give us a clearer picture of the man.

*Cold and hungry, I began the long walk home.*
Here the adjectives **cold** and **hungry** help to give a clearer picture of the condition that I was in.

3. **Make a list of the adjectives in the following sentences.**

   (a) The great hall was filled with an enthusiastic audience.
   (b) The biscuits are in the silver tin on the second shelf.
   (c) Tony is very happy with his new bicycle.
   (d) I felt hungry after my long walk.
   (e) Her swift recovery was remarkable.

**Article**

The words *a, an* and *the* are perhaps strictly adjectives, but they are usually described as articles. They usually accompany nouns.

*There is a stray cat in the garden.*

*The apples are still green.*

*I have to make an early start.*

4. **Write out the following sentences, inserting a, an or the to make them complete.**

   (a) Have you found —— scissors?
   (b) I want —— pair of shoes, please.
   (c) This needs —— juice of —— orange and —— lemon.
   (d) She made two cheese sandwiches and —— egg sandwich.

**Verb**

The verb expresses action or being.

*He kicked the ball accurately.*

*They worked steadily throughout the day.*

*She drives very carefully.*
The words *kicked*, *worked* and *drives* are verbs expressing action.

*I am hungry.*

*My dog is a Labrador.*

*We have a great deal of work ahead of us.*

The words *am*, *is* and *have* are verbs describing particular states of being or existence.

5. **Make a list of the verbs in the following sentences.**

(a) The party was most enjoyable.
(b) Sam has a bad cold.
(c) We ran to the stop, but we missed the bus.
(d) He cooked the meal and washed the dishes.
(e) Were you at home during the holidays?
(f) I need a rest.
(g) They are very late.
(h) She plays brilliantly.

**Adverb**

Adverbs are words that modify—that is, add to the meaning of—verbs or adjectives or other adverbs.

*The team won easily.*

*The sun shone brightly.*

The words *easily* and *brightly* are adverbs. Each modifies the verb that precedes it.

*The traffic is quite heavy.*

*His parents are always generous.*

The words *quite* and *always* are adverbs. Each is attached to the adjective that follows it.
He writes extremely badly.
She collected the eggs very carefully.

The words extremely, badly, very and carefully are adverbs. In each case the first adverb adds meaning to the second, which is attached to the verb.

6. Make a list of the adverbs in the following sentences.

(a) Dinner is nearly ready.
(b) Janet has a clearly audible voice.
(c) He laughs loudly and often.
(d) They called repeatedly.
(e) Do you often play tennis?
(f) Harry entered the office punctually.
(g) Your guess was completely wrong.
(h) Sadly he took his final bow.

Preposition

A preposition is used to show a relationship between a noun or a pronoun and some other word.

I gave the milk to the cat.
These flowers are for her.
With a loud cry the bird flew from the tree.
That afternoon they walked by the lake.

The prepositions to, for, with, from and by act as links: milk to cat; flowers for her; flew with cry; flew from tree; walked by lake.
7. Make a list of the prepositions in the following sentences.

(a) They were encouraged by her praise.
(b) Are you pleased with your new car?
(c) He wandered happily about the gallery.
(d) The procession passed through the square.
(e) We had to walk from the station.
(f) The pencil rolled under the desk.

Conjunction

A conjunction joins one word or group of words with another.

Have you packed salt and pepper?
You can have tea, coffee or cocoa.
The story may sound odd, but it is true.
I left early because I was tired.

The conjunctions in the above sentences are and, or, but and because.

Interjection

An interjection represents a cry of surprise or pleasure or pain. Interjections are written in some such form as Ah! or Oh! They are most often used in reproducing direct speech.

Number

Singular

Some words show by their form that they refer to one person or thing, as in: she writes, a glass, an idea, this book, Jones.

We say that these words have singular number or, simply, that they are in the singular.
Some Technical Terms

Plural
Some words show by their form that they refer to more than one person or thing, as in we are students, these examples, the Joneses.
We say that these words have plural number or, simply, that they are in the plural.

8. Give the part of speech and the number of each word that appears in italic in the following sentences.
(a) The bags are in the car.
(b) They were in the queue for hours.
(c) The wet road was extremely dangerous.
(d) She finds the problems very simple.
(e) It is an old story with a predictable plot.
If you completed this exercise correctly you will have four parts of speech represented: noun, pronoun, verb, and the articles a, an, and the.

Agreement of number
The connection between noun and pronoun, or between noun or pronoun and verb usually requires that the parts of speech concerned should agree in number.
By agree in number we mean that if one part of the connection is singular, the rest must be singular; if one part of the connection is plural, the rest must be plural.
We are sorry to hear that John is leaving.
We are: pronoun and verb agree in number.
John is leaving: noun and verb agree in number.
The association hopes that it will have a good year.
association, hopes, it: noun, verb and pronoun agree in number.
Though they searched everywhere, the children could not find the ball. *they, children*: pronoun and noun agree in number.

You will meet this term *agree* again; parts of speech agree in other ways as well as in number.

**Person**

The term *person* is used of pronouns and verbs. We can best illustrate its meaning by using the pronouns from Exercise 2 on p. 2.

It will be simpler if we do not include verbs in this section. Verbs do not vary from person to person to the extent that pronouns do. See p. 80 for further notes on the distinctions that person makes in verbs.

*First person singular*

If I refer to myself in speech or writing I use the first person singular pronoun *I*, as in

*I worked hard today, and I am tired.*

*First person plural*

If I speak or write as a member of a group I use the first person plural pronoun *we*, as in

*We did not realise that we were off the track.*

*Second person*

If I speak or write to another I use the second person pronoun *you*, as in

*You know that you must work hard.*
Some Technical Terms

You has common number in that it is singular or plural according to the context in which it is used.

You was originally a plural pronoun, but it has superseded the singular pronoun thou, which survives in very restricted uses.

Third person singular
If I refer to a person or thing outside the group formed by you and me, I use the third person singular pronouns he, she or it, as in

He is a most amusing man.
She is a very clever woman.
It is a complicated question.

Third person plural
If I refer to persons or things outside the group formed by you and me, I use the third person plural pronoun they, as in

They are mostly young men.
They were great actresses.
They are simple solutions.

9. Write out the pronouns in the following sentences, giving the person and number of each.

(a) I tried to talk to John, but he refused to listen.
(b) Does it hurt when you cough?
(c) She offered to sing, but they were not interested.
(d) If you are ready, ladies, we shall begin.

Gender
We use the term gender to indicate distinctions of sex (or their absence) in nouns and pronouns.
Masculine
Nouns that denote male persons or things are said to have masculine gender, as in king, father and stallion.
The pronouns he, him and himself are masculine.

Feminine
Nouns that denote female persons or things are said to have feminine gender, as in queen, mother and mare.
The pronouns she, her and herself are feminine.

Neuter
Many nouns denote things that are neither male nor female, but neuter, as in gelding, leaf, stone, peace and goodness.

Common
Some nouns include both the masculine and the feminine, and are said to be of common gender, as in parent, child, doctor, judge, painter and writer.

The pronouns you and yourself are of common gender.

10. Give the gender of each of the following nouns.

| assistant | empress | ram |
| baby      | glass   | school |
| barrister | kitten  | secretary |
| bush      | lord    | smoke |
| committee | nephew  | son |
| crowd     | passenger | stream |
| doe       | player  | sultan |
|           |         | tiger |
Case

The term *case* is used to describe the relationship of a noun or pronoun with a verb or a preposition, and the relationship of a noun with another noun.

The term *case* is used of nouns and pronouns.

There are three cases: subjective, objective and possessive.

Subjective

A noun or pronoun in the subjective case is the subject of the verb; that is, it performs or carries out the action expressed by the verb.

In the following sentences the nouns and pronouns in bold type are in the subjective case.

**I** play chess.
**Do you** know the way?
**He** draws badly.
**She** says that **it** is a good book.
**Has Philip** called yet?
**The dog** needs a bath.
**We won the match, but they were the better team.**

Objective

A noun or pronoun in the objective case is the object of the verb; that is, it is affected by the action of the verb. A noun or pronoun
introduced by a preposition is said to be the object of that preposition, and must be in the objective case.

In the following sentences the nouns and pronouns in bold type are in the objective case.

I like strawberries.
You must tell John.
He has the camera.
We saw Margaret.
The dog followed us.
The story amuses me.
Your mother wants you.

You will notice that nouns keep the same form in the subjective and the objective case, but pronouns other than it have a different form for either case.

12. Give the case of each of the pronouns in the following sentences.

(a) They found it easily.
(b) Do you know him?
(c) She sent us a postcard.
(d) I heard you.
(e) We visit them often.
(f) Can he see me?
(g) It bit her on the ankle.
(h) I shall keep a place for him.

Possessive

A noun or pronoun in the possessive case shows ownership or possession.
Some Technical Terms

Nouns in the possessive case

The possessive singular of a noun is generally made by adding an apostrophe (see p. 122) and an s to the singular form of the noun, as in

The child's cries guided the searchers.
These books are Mary's.
The dog's collar is missing.
Charles's speech was excellent.

When the addition of the s would produce a disagreeable hissing sound the apostrophe alone is added, as in

Jesus' sayings are recorded in the Gospels.
Ulysses' men rowed him past the Sirens.

The possessive plural of a noun is generally made by adding an apostrophe to the plural form of the noun, as in

All butchers' shops are closed today.
That will do for the dogs' dinner.
We are meeting at the Joneses' house.

When the plural form of a noun does not end in s, the apostrophe and s are added, as in

The children's party will be on Saturday.
Men's shirts are on the ground floor.

13. Find the nouns in the possessive case in the following sentences. Give the number of each, and write out its corresponding singular or plural possessive form.

(a) The boys' lockers must be moved.
(b) We admired the princesses' jewels.
(c) The women's response was sympathetic.
(d) The committee's advice has been helpful.
(e) It is all part of the day's work.
(f) The doctor's waiting-room was full.
(g) The ponies' tails and manes streamed out in the wind.
(h) The sea boiled like a witch's cauldron.

Pronouns in the possessive case
In the following sentences the words in bold type are possessive pronouns.

The blue coat is mine.
This ticket is yours.
I knew that the writing was his.
Those brushes must be hers.
The next house is ours.
The fault is all theirs.

Note that possessive pronouns do not take an apostrophe.

Possessive adjectives
In the following sentences the words in bold type are possessive adjectives.

I have lost my pencils.
Have you eaten your sandwiches?
What is his name?
Her racquet is on the bench.
The bird is in its nest.
Where are our seats?
They bought their books yesterday.
Note that a possessive adjective, unlike a possessive pronoun, must be followed by a noun or its equivalent.

Note also that the possessive adjective its does not take an apostrophe.

14. Find the possessive pronouns and the possessive adjectives in each of

(a) He finds that his time is limited.
(b) Yours is the chestnut mare with the white feet.
(c) My mother wants me to go shopping.
(d) Are these handkerchiefs mine?
(e) Did she introduce her sister to you?
(f) Hers is the desk by the window.
(g) Our first meeting will be held tomorrow.
(h) Theirs is the funniest performance.
(i) Have you brought your records?
(j) That painting is certainly his.
(k) Society must protect its members.
(l) Of course the last bus would be ours.
(m) They have done their best.

Sentence

Imagine that you overhear four separate conversations:

(a) 'Who do you mean?'
   'Him.'
(b) 'Sugar?'
   'Please.'
(c) 'Started your homework?'
   'Not yet.'
(d) 'Have you seen the dog?'
   'He was in the back yard this morning.'

The questions and answers in (a), (b) and (c) belong to colloquial (that is, conversational) English. Only in (d) are question and answer in the form of grammatical sentences.

We cannot easily avoid colloquial expressions when we have to keep up with a conversation. We do not always have time to plan what we are about to say, and much of what we say is made clear by the tone of voice and the gestures that we use. We may regard (a), (b) and (c) as sentences in conversation, but they are not grammatical.

Formal writing is the product of careful thought. When we write for others we have neither voice nor gesture to help us; we have only the words that we choose, and the order in which we arrange them.

**Simple sentence: subject and predicate**

A sentence has at the least a subject and a predicate. At its simplest, the subject consists of a noun or a pronoun, and the predicate consists of a finite verb. The predicate is simply what is said about the subject.

A finite verb is a verb that has a particular person and number; that is, it agrees with the person and number of the subject.

The following simple sentences have been divided into subject and predicate. The finite verbs are in bold type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The children</td>
<td>slept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apples</td>
<td>are good at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>has lost his wallet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The girl in the blue track suit</td>
<td>is our best sprinter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note that questions are simply rearranged statements. **Have you seen the film?** becomes, in division into subject and predicate:

You **have seen** the film.

15. **Write out each of the following sentences, separating the subject from the predicate. Underline the finite verb in each predicate.**

(a) His story was incredible.
(b) You seem tired.
(c) They waited.
(d) Jan woke at six o' clock.
(e) Paul and I went to the milk bar for some ice cream.
(f) Opals are semi-precious stones.
(g) The boy with the fair hair is the new captain of the team.
(h) I refuse to interfere.
(i) Has Frank met your brother?
(j) Where are my handkerchiefs?

**Phrase**

In some of the sentences above there are groups of words called phrases: **at six o'clock, to the milk bar, for some ice cream, with the fair hair, to interfere.**

A phrase is the equivalent of a noun, adjective or adverb. It is frequently introduced, as in the above examples, by a preposition. A phrase does not contain a finite verb; a sentence and a clause must contain a finite verb.

16. **Write out the phrases in the following sentences.**

(a) I want a coat with a belt.
(b) In the desk you will find the minutes of the last meeting.
(c) After lunch we will go to the beach.
(d) They went for a walk along the track.
(e) There is room on the bench beside me.

Complex sentence: principal and subordinate clauses

Two or more simple sentences may be joined to make a complex sentence. This means that a complex sentence has two or more distinct sections, each with its own subject and predicate. Each of these sections is called a clause.

The chief clause in a complex sentence is called the principal clause.

A clause that is of secondary importance is called a subordinate clause. A subordinate clause is the equivalent of a noun, adjective or adverb, and it is related to the principal clause just as a noun, adjective or adverb is related to another part of speech.

Each of the following sentences has a principal clause and a subordinate clause. The finite verb of each clause is in bold type.

(a) We left after the rain had stopped.
(b) They live in the house that overlooks the bay.
(c) I was told that the train was running on time.
(d) Her brother, whom I knew years ago, arrives tomorrow.
(e) Have you met the girl who sat with me at lunch?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Clause</th>
<th>Subordinate Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) We left</td>
<td>after the rain had stopped.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) They live in the house</td>
<td>that overlooks the bay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) I was told</td>
<td>that the train was running on time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Her brother arrives</td>
<td>whom I knew years ago.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Have you met the girl</td>
<td>that was with me at lunch?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. Write out each of the following sentences, separating the principal clause from the subordinate clause. Underline the finite verb in each clause. Remember that you are to look for a subject and a predicate for each clause; the predicate must contain a finite verb.

(a) We were awake before the sun was up.
(b) John, who had eaten too much, was very sick.
(c) As you have finished your work, you may go.
(d) I remembered that I had left the gas burning.
(e) The man that they first suspected has been arrested at the airport.
(f) He was quite convinced that he had won the prize.
(g) The doors are to be closed while the rehearsal is in progress.
(h) When you open the parcel you will be pleasantly surprised.
(i) Have you read the book that I lent you?
(j) She finally succeeded because she was prepared to work hard.
Elizabeth, city, team and justice are nouns. You may see from these examples that in defining a noun as the name of any person or thing we must give a wide interpretation to the word thing.

A real or imaginary Elizabeth may be described, a city may be mapped and explored, and a team may be joined, coached and encouraged. In one way or another this person and these things may be seen or touched. Justice must be called a thing, but it is not a thing that may be seen or touched.

There are four main classes of nouns: common nouns, proper nouns, abstract nouns and collective nouns.

**Common noun**

Common nouns are the general names of things, as in girl, city, river and aeroplane.

**Proper noun**

A proper noun is the name given to a particular person or thing:

Elizabeth, Anne and Mary are names of girls;
Canberra, London and Wellington are names of cities;
the Murray and the Thames are rivers;
the Tiger Moth and the Concorde are aeroplanes.

Proper nouns always take a capital letter, and when a common noun forms part of a proper noun it also takes a capital letter: a lane,
a street, a river, a lake and an ocean become St Martin’s Lane, George Street, Lake Eyre, the Darling River and the Antarctic Ocean.

See p. 115 for further notes on capital letters.

Abstract noun

Abstract nouns are more easily illustrated than defined;* that is, it is easier to give particular examples of how they are used than it is to give a general outline of what they are.

If you were asked to define justice you might well begin by describing some decisions that you believed to be just. If you were asked to define kindness you might well begin by describing some actions that you believed to be kind.

You could not point to the justice or the kindness in the way that you could point to a horse, a tree or a mountain, but you would have in your mind an idea of justice, and an idea of kindness, that you had abstracted (that is, drawn out) from your experience of decisions that you would call more or less just, and actions that you would call more or less kind.

Nouns such as justice, kindness, honour and truth are called abstract nouns because they represent ideas or qualities. Their lack of precise definition often hinders clear expression.

Collective noun

A collective noun is the name given to a group of persons or things, as in a team of cricketers, a litter of puppies, a batch of scones.

*Abstract nouns are properly common nouns. Common nouns that are not abstract nouns are sometimes called concrete nouns because they apply to ‘real’ things, but you will find that the four terms common, proper, abstract and collective will do well enough.
A singular collective noun may need a plural verb and a plural pronoun.

The team was excited by its victory.
The team were straggling out of the pavilion in twos and threes because they were reluctant to begin play.

You must decide whether it is the unity or the disunity of the group that is to be stressed.

When a collective noun forms part of a proper noun it takes a capital letter: a society, a community and an association become the Royal Society, the European Economic Community and the Australian Medical Association.

1. Classify the nouns in the following sentences under the headings Common, Abstract, Proper, Collective.

(a) The council will meet on Wednesday to discuss the plans for the new hall.
(b) Francis lived in poverty and humility.
(c) The queue lengthened until it reached the corner of the street.
(d) Caesar showed mercy to his opponents, but many of those whom he pardoned repaid him with treachery.
(e) The crew has been chosen to represent the squadron in Britain.
(f) Stephen could not overcome his fear of spiders.
(g) The committee felt that the barbecue had been a great success.
Nouns

Plurals of nouns

The plural form of most nouns is made by adding \textit{s} to the singular, as in:

\begin{tabular}{llll}
writer & writers & Johnson & Johnsons \\
height & heights & school & schools \\
\end{tabular}

A second group makes the plural by adding \textit{es}, as in:

\begin{tabular}{llll}
beach & beaches & Jones & Joneses \\
dash & dashes & surplus & surpluses \\
fox & foxes & watch & watches \\
haunch & haunches & waltz & waltzes \\
\end{tabular}

2. \textbf{Give the plural form of each of the following nouns}

\begin{tabular}{llll}
arena & gauge & process \\
business & governor & rhythm \\
chorus & James & tax \\
clash & mechanic & vein \\
corridor & muscle & Wallace \\
cross & nuisance & witness \\
feat & platypus & & \\
\end{tabular}

Nouns ending in \textit{y} preceded by a vowel make the plural form by adding \textit{s}, as in:

\begin{tabular}{llll}
day & days & toy & toys \\
journey & journeys & guy & guys \\
money & moneys & & \\
\end{tabular}

Nouns ending in \textit{y} preceded by a consonant make the plural form by changing the \textit{y} to \textit{i} and adding \textit{es},* as in:

* Proper nouns ending in \textit{y} preceded by a consonant form the plural by adding \textit{s}, as in \textit{We are going to stay with the Kennedys or Europe now contains two Germanys.}
### 3. Give the plural form of each of the following nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Plural Form</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Plural Form</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Plural Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ally</td>
<td>democracy</td>
<td>necessity</td>
<td>democracy</td>
<td>necessity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>berry</td>
<td>display</td>
<td>pulley</td>
<td>display</td>
<td>pulley</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>body</td>
<td>donkey</td>
<td>society</td>
<td>donkey</td>
<td>society</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buoy</td>
<td>forty</td>
<td>storey</td>
<td>forty</td>
<td>storey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>casualty</td>
<td>grey</td>
<td>story</td>
<td>casualty</td>
<td>grey</td>
<td>story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chimney</td>
<td>hypocrisy</td>
<td>valley</td>
<td>chimney</td>
<td>hypocrisy</td>
<td>valley</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decoy</td>
<td>kidney</td>
<td></td>
<td>decoy</td>
<td>kidney</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* make the plural form in one of two ways. They add *s*, as in:

- belief beliefs
- chief chiefs
- fife fifes
- grief griefs
- hoof hoofs
- handkerchief handkerchiefs

Or they change the *f* to *v* and add *es* or *s*, as in:

- hoof turfs
- handkerchief handkerchiefs

*Scarf* has two distinct plural forms: *scarfs* for the joints in woodwork and metalwork, and *scarves* for the articles of clothing.

* Dictionaries generally allow *hooves, oaves, scarves, turves* and *wharves* as alternative plural forms.
### Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>life</td>
<td>lives</td>
<td>wife</td>
<td>wives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loaf</td>
<td>loaves</td>
<td>wolf</td>
<td>wolves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nouns ending in **o** make the plural form by adding *es* or *s*,* as in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural in es</th>
<th>Plural in s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cargo</td>
<td>cargoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dingo</td>
<td>dingoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>echo</td>
<td>echoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mosquito</td>
<td>mosquitoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motto</td>
<td>mottoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negro</td>
<td>negros</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potato</td>
<td>potatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tomato</td>
<td>tomatoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tornado</td>
<td>tornadoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>torpedo</td>
<td>torpedoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volcano</td>
<td>volcanoes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The list above is misleading in that most of the nouns ending in **o** make the plural form by adding **s**. Do not rely on guesswork; consult your dictionary.

4. **Give the plural form of each of the following nouns.**

- brief
- hero
- staff
- domino
- inferno
- tattoo
- fiasco
- mango
- thief
- ghetto
- no
- torso
- grief
- silo
- veto
- halo

* Proper nouns and abbreviations make the plural form by adding **s** as in *Romeos*, *Marios*, *photos* and *stereos.*
When the singular form of a noun is a compound such as Attorney General or sister-in-law the plural is usually made by adding s to the first part of the compound as in

Solicitor General  Solicitors General
court martial  courts martial
brother-in-law  brothers-in-law

When the singular form of a noun is a compound such as Lieutenant Colonel the plural is usually made by adding s to the last part of the compound, as in

Major General  Major Generals
Lord Mayor  Lord Mayors
Chief Justice  Chief Justices

The argument is that an Attorney General is a particular kind of attorney, and a Lieutenant Colonel is a particular kind of colonel, but Solicitor Generals may well have arrived as an acceptable plural form.

Other compound nouns usually make the plural form by adding a final s, as in

fire-eater  fire-eaters  man-hunt  man-hunts
forget-me-not  forget-me-nots  mouthful  mouthfuls
lean-to  lean-tos  spoonful  spoonfuls

NOTE:

chairman  chairmen  manservant  manservants
horseman  horsemen

Some nouns make the plural form according to the foreign language from which they are derived, as in

axis  axes  curriculum  curricula
bacillus  bacilli  gelato  gelati
Nouns

bacterium  bacteria  genus  genera

crisis  crises  phenomenon  phenomena
criterion  criteria  tableau  tableaux

Increasingly the foreign plural form is being replaced by the addition of s or es to the singular, as in

appendix  (appendices)  appendixes
bureau  (bureaux)  bureaus
formula  (formulae)  formulas
memorandum  (memoranda)  memorandums
syllabus  (syllabi)  syllabuses

In a few cases both plural forms are in use because each has acquired a separate meaning, as in

die  dice:  small cubes, especially those used in games of chance
dies:  engraved stamps for embossing metal, paper and the like

genius  genii:  good or evil spirits
genius:  extraordinarily creative people

index  indices:  numerals denoting powers, as the \( \text{in } x^2, y^3 \)
indexes:  alphabetical lists of names, subjects and the like, as at the end of this book

medium  media:  modes of expression, particularly means of communication to the public
media:  persons claiming to be able to contact the spirits of the dead

27
Do not rely on guesswork in making foreign plural forms. The plural forms of *hippopotamus* and *octopus*, for instance, are *hippopotamuses* and *octopuses*. Consult your dictionary when you are uncertain of the correct form.

There is finally a small group of nouns that falls into none of the previous groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>child</td>
<td>children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goose</td>
<td>geese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>louse</td>
<td>lice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouse</td>
<td>mice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ox</td>
<td>oxen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tooth</td>
<td>teeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>corps</td>
<td>fish*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>counsel (of lawyer, barrister)</td>
<td>innings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moose</td>
<td>species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salmon</td>
<td>trout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>series</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Nouns of common number**

A few nouns have the same form in the singular and the plural, as in

- *chassis*  
- *corps*  
- *counsel* (of lawyer, barrister)

**Nouns that lack a singular form**

Such nouns as *bellows, pliers, scissors, tweezers, tongs* and *trousers* must be referred to as *the bellows* or *a pair of scissors* or preceded by a possessive adjective as in *your tweezers*.

*Fishes* is also a plural form of *fish.*
5. Give the plural form of each of the following nouns.

alibi  disease  occurrence
alley  embargo  pendulum
apparatus  gas  Poet Laureate
balcony  hoax  prefix
brooch  jockey  success
butterfly  laundry  terminus
ceremony  lens  trolley
Chief Secretary  look-out  recipe
comma  marquee  rhythm
concerto  medley  staff
cupful  mouse  subsidy
curio  nucleus  survey
depth  orchestra
diary

6. Form an abstract noun from each of the common nouns given below. You may find it helpful to use some such construction as

(child) She spent her early childhood in the country.
(critic) The play received a generally favourable criticism.

Consult your dictionary.

captain  hero  scholar
champion  infant  slave
coward  judge  sovereign
democrat  knight  steward
despot  leader  villain
detective  minister  wizard
friend  rebel

29
7. **Form an abstract noun from each of the adjectives given below. You may find it helpful to use some such construction as**

(ambitious) He is a man of limitless **ambition**.

(humorous) She is noted for her kindness and good **humour**.

Consult your dictionary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>abstract noun</th>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>abstract noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>active</td>
<td>generous</td>
<td>patient</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brilliant</td>
<td>glorious</td>
<td>severe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cautious</td>
<td>ignorant</td>
<td>similar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dull</td>
<td>magnificent</td>
<td>sincere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>energetic</td>
<td>merciful</td>
<td>skilful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enthusiastic</td>
<td>mysterious</td>
<td>stupid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>famous</td>
<td>optimistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. **Form an abstract noun from each of the verbs given below. You may find it helpful to use some such construction as**

(achieve) Their victory was a notable **achievement**.

(argue) The team presented a convincing **argument**.

Consult your dictionary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>abstract noun</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>abstract noun</th>
<th>verb</th>
<th>abstract noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>admire</td>
<td>enjoy</td>
<td>please</td>
<td>press</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>civilise</td>
<td>expand</td>
<td>provide</td>
<td>recognise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compare</td>
<td>free</td>
<td>recognise</td>
<td>recommend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compete</td>
<td>hate</td>
<td>recommend</td>
<td>transpose</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conform</td>
<td>hesitate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>locate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe</td>
<td>permit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Pronouns

**Personal pronouns**

Personal pronouns are those that are tied to one of the three persons, as in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjective case</th>
<th>Objective case</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>I, we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>you, you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>she, he, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pronouns of the wrong case are often used in conversation, and in writing dialogue you may imitate this misuse if it suits the character of the speaker. Other than in this special case the following usage applies.

A. A pronoun that is the subject of a verb must be in the subjective case; a pronoun that is the object of a verb must be in the objective case.

B. If the verb is the verb *to be*, the pronouns before and after the verb must be in the same case.

C. A pronoun that follows a preposition must be in the objective case.

C overrides B, and B overrides A, as in

A. *She plans to open a restaurant.*

   *Will they be at the dance?*

   *She and they are in the subjective case.*
Sophie coached them for hours.
Michael sent us a postcard.
Them and us are in the objective case.

B. It was I who deserved the credit.
It will be they who must bear the blame.
It, I and they are in the subjective case; the pronouns before and after the verb to be must be in the same case.

C. Is there some cake for Katherine and me?
The preposition for requires me.
They will have to choose between John and me.
The preposition between requires me.
The roses are from us.
The preposition from requires us.

1. Write out the following sentences, putting I or me in place of each dash.

(a) My parents took Pat and — to the football.
(b) Carl, David and — have to prepare a debate.
(c) The rain poured through the tent upon Ben and —.
(d) Do Barbara and — play in the team tomorrow?
(e) They can sit with you and —.

2. Write out the following sentences, putting she or her in place of each dash.

(a) It was for — that they were cheering.
(b) The entire show was produced by —.
(c) It is — who will be captain next year.
(d) Was it — who did the work?
(e) It is to — that we owe our thanks.
Pronouns

Possessive case

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>his, hers</td>
<td>theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that none of them takes an apostrophe.

3. Write out the following sentences, putting in place of each dash a possessive pronoun of the person, number, and gender required.

(a) Was the idea ——? (Second person)

(b) The idea for the decorations was entirely ——. (Third person, singular, masculine)

(c) —— is the next stop. (First person, plural)

(d) Which of the suitcases is ——? (Third person, singular, feminine)

(e) The fault was entirely ——. (First person, singular).

Relative pronouns

A relative pronoun relates (that is, refers) to some noun or pronoun that precedes it. The noun or pronoun to which the relative pronoun refers is called the antecedent.

A relative pronoun is used to link two simple sentences to make one complex sentence of two clauses: a principal clause and a subordinate clause.

The relative pronouns are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Referring to people</th>
<th>Referring to things</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective case</td>
<td>who or that</td>
<td>which or that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective case</td>
<td>whom or that</td>
<td>which or that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive case</td>
<td>whose</td>
<td>of which or whose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All have common number and gender.
Subjective case

In the following example the relative pronoun *who* is used to link two simple sentences to make one complex sentence. The relative pronoun and its antecedent appear in bold type.

*The boys were extremely hungry.*
*The boys had been working since dawn.*

The second sentence becomes the subordinate clause. Its subject *boys* is replaced by the relative pronoun *who*, to give

*The boys, who had been working since dawn, were extremely hungry.*

In the following example the relative pronoun *which* is used to link two simple sentences to make one complex sentence. The relative pronoun and its antecedent appear in bold type.

*The ship had been delayed by bad weather.*
*The ship arrived safely.*

The second sentence becomes the subordinate clause. Its subject *ship* is replaced by the relative pronoun *which*, to give

*The ship, which arrived safely, had been delayed by bad weather.*

In the following example the relative pronoun *that* is used to link two simple sentences to make one complex sentence. The relative pronoun and its antecedent appear in bold type.

*The books must be catalogued this afternoon.*
*The books are on the table.*

The second sentence becomes the subordinate clause. Its subject *books* is replaced by the relative pronoun *that*, to give

*The books that are on the table must be catalogued this afternoon.*

* The article is omitted.
Consider the following sentences.

(a) **John, who** has remarkable stamina, led the field all the way.
(b) **My mother, who** is a careful driver, managed to avoid having an accident.
(c) **The sets, which** were successful, were built cheaply.
(d) **The birds, which** had been singing loudly, were now silent.
(e) **The man that** rang this morning will call later.
(f) **The wattle that** is by the gate is about to flower.

You will notice that each of the clauses introduced by *who* or *which* is separated from its principal clause by commas, but each of the clauses introduced by *that* is joined to its principal clause without commas.

The close attachment of the *that* clause emphasises its special function. A clause introduced by the relative pronoun *that* is called a defining clause because it introduces some essential and specific information that defines the person or thing to which it refers. In (e) it is *the man that rang this morning* as opposed to other men; in (f) it is *the wattle that is by the gate* as opposed to other wattles.

You will notice that in (a) and (b) *that* would be impossible in place of *who*, because *John* and *mother* are already sufficiently specific; they need no further definition.

If you rewrite sentences (c) and (d) including *that* instead of *which*, and removing the commas, you will notice that the emphasis of each sentence has changed.

4. Write out the following sentences, putting *who, which* or *that* in place of each dash. Remember to add commas where they are necessary.

(a) Those of the audience —— could hear the speaker were unimpressed.
(b) Zoe — won easily had shown little promise at first.
(c) The driver — caused the accident failed to stop.
(d) Their dog — refused to be ignored climbed on my lap.
(e) There are questions — have no answers.
(f) Before us was the plain — stretched to the horizon.
(g) The cast — had enjoyed being in the play wanted a longer run.
(h) Have you found the pen — you lost?
(i) In the distance I could see my brother — waved to me excitedly.
(j) His decisions — were rarely popular were for once accepted quietly.

**Objective case**

Remember that the objective form of *who* is *whom*, but *which* and *that* have the same form in both the objective and the subjective case.

In the following examples *whom* is used to link two simple sentences to make one complex sentence. The relative pronoun and its antecedent appear in bold type.

*The Thomases send their good wishes.*

*We saw the Thomases yesterday.*

The second sentence becomes the subordinate clause. Its object *Thomases* is replaced by the relative pronoun *whom*, to give

*The Thomases, whom we saw yesterday, send their good wishes.*

*His grandmother has asked us to stay.*

*I know his grandmother well.*

The second sentence becomes the subordinate clause. Its object *grandmother* is replaced by the relative pronoun *whom*, to give
His grandmother, whom I know well, has asked us to stay.

In the following example which is used to link two simple sentences to make one complex sentence. The relative pronoun and its antecedent appear in bold type.

Their house has a beautiful garden.
They built their house ten years ago.

The second sentence becomes the subordinate clause. Its object house is replaced by the relative pronoun which, to give

Their house, which they built ten years ago, has a beautiful garden.

In the following example that is used to link two simple sentences to make one complex sentence. The relative pronoun and its antecedent appear in bold type.

This is the book.
I lost the book.

The second sentence becomes the subordinate clause. Its object book is replaced by the relative pronoun that, to give

This is the book that I lost.

Note that the relative pronoun in the objective case may be omitted, as in

This is the book I lost.

5. Rewrite the following sentences, supplying the omitted relative pronoun to each.

(a) Have you seen the boy I sent for?
(b) This is the cake I decorated.
(c) Here are the photographs we took.
(d) These are the keys he wanted.
The relative pronouns \textit{whom} and \textit{which} (but not \textit{that}) are used in constructions with prepositions, as in

(a) His friends, with whom he had worked for many years, came to say goodbye.
(b) The man from whom I had the story was over ninety years old.
(c) Her poetry, for which she is well known, is the product of much hard work.
(d) We were anxious to preserve our trees, around which we had cut a big firebreak.

6. Write out the following sentences, putting \textit{that}, \textit{which} or \textit{whom} in place of each dash. Remember to add commas where they are necessary.

(a) The competitors --- are to run in the next four events should report to the marshals now.
(b) His family --- I know well will be very pleased.
(c) We could not tell the direction from --- the sound came.
(d) The people for --- she played were most appreciative.
(e) You should give the job to someone --- you can trust.
(f) The director to --- they owed everything was delighted by their success.
(g) All the evidence --- I have seen reinforces my opinion.

7. Write out the following sentences, putting \textit{who} or \textit{whom} in place of each dash.
\textit{Remember that who} is in the subjective case, and \textit{whom} is in the objective case.

(a) Our friends, --- had given us up for lost, had gone on without us.
(b) We asked him —— he would choose to go in his place.
(c) She understands well enough —— I mean.
(d) I had a letter from Tania, —— is having a pleasant holiday.
(e) We soon told him —— it was.*
(f) Peter, —— moved more quickly than the others, arrived first.
(g) The old people to ——† we sang the carols were quite delighted.
(h) They have discovered —— was responsible.
(i) The author, of ——† little is known, achieved only slight recognition.

**Possessive case**

The possessive form of *who* is *whose*.

*Which* has *of which* and *whose*.†

*That* has no possessive form of its own, and uses *of which* or *whose*.‡

All forms have common number and gender.

---

* Remember that the verb *to be* takes the same case after it as before it.
† Remember that a noun or pronoun after a preposition is in the objective case.
‡ It is argued that the use of *whose* should be confined to living things (particularly to people and animals) on the ground that non-living things cannot possess or own anything.

I am not convinced. *Whose* is often better than *of which* because it can help to produce a less complicated sentence.

I would also suggest that *whose* has something of the strength of the relative pronoun *that* (see page 35), as in the following sentences.

**Joy and Lorraine, whose** clothes were soaked with rain, went off to change.
8. Write out the following sentences, putting whom, whose or which in place of each dash.

(a) He spoke for the residents on —- behalf he appeared before the council.
(b) There have been several experiments, the results of —- are as yet unknown.
(c) From the court came the voices of the players —- game had not finished.
(d) He has three brothers, the youngest of —- is twenty-four.
(e) Along the path were roses —- scent filled the air.

The wrong use of which

Which as a relative pronoun must have as its antecedent a noun or the equivalent of a noun.

It is wrong to use which as though it could refer to entire clauses, as in

We helped a man whose car had broken down.
There was a dog whose coat was very much in need of grooming.
They retrieved a statue whose face was badly damaged.
She sang a song whose words they did not know.

Of whom and of which might be replaced by whose in the following sentences.
The procession was led by one hundred bandsmen, at the head of whom marched three drum majors.
I climbed the tree, from the top of which there was a remarkable view.

I would suggest that whose is not possible in the following sentences.
The house had a garden at the end of which was an old stable.
We inspected the new library, the construction of which has taken eleven months.
The orchestra gave three performances of which the best was last night's.
He dreams of what he would like to make of his life which is an impossible attitude.

The antecedent ought to be his dream or something of the sort; it is certainly not his life.

The sentence is best reconstructed without the relative pronoun, as in

His dream of what he would like to make of his life represents an impossible attitude.

The demonstrative pronoun this is liable to similar misuse when it is set as the subject of a sentence that refers to the preceding sentence as though this were a kind of relative pronoun.

What and as

What as a relative pronoun has common number and gender. What they have done has been most successful. There are few problems, and what there are should soon be solved. He knows what he is.

What has case: the subjective and objective forms are the same, but the one case cannot serve for two. In the following sentences the second what cannot be omitted. We must discover what influences us, and what we can influence. They knew what guided them, and what they were seeking.

As as a relative pronoun has, like what, common number and gender. It, too, has case. To write carelessly, as is often now done, is to insult the reader. They were clowns, as we could tell from their costumes.
Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are used to point out particular things. The singular forms are *this* and *that*; the plural forms are *these* and *those.*

*This* and *these* indicate things close at hand, or recently referred to.

*That* and *those* indicate things at a distance.

This is a mess.
Have you finished that?
These are my drawings.
Are those in the way?

You will notice that in three of the four examples the demonstrative pronoun is unexplained. *This, that* and *those* would have meaning in a conversation, but in the examples as they stand *this, that* and *those* mean nothing.

When you use a demonstrative pronoun in writing be sure that it has a noun or the equivalent of a noun to which it clearly points.

Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative means questioning. *Who, which* and *what* are interrogative pronouns in that they are used to introduce questions, as in

*Who was it?*
*Whom do you mean?*
*Whose is that?*
*What is your name?*
*Which is it to be?*

Remember that a question is essentially an inverted statement;
that is, the verb (or part of the verb) is placed before the subject of the sentence.

See page 89 for a further note on interrogative sentences.

**Reflexive and emphatic pronouns**

The following pronouns may be either reflexive or emphatic pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First person</strong></td>
<td><strong>myself</strong></td>
<td><strong>ourselves</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second person</strong></td>
<td><strong>yourself</strong></td>
<td><strong>yourselves</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>herself</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third person</strong></td>
<td><strong>itself</strong></td>
<td><strong>themselves</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reflexive**

A reflexive pronoun is used to indicate that the subject of the verb acts upon itself, as in

*He hurt himself in that fall.*
*I pride myself on my eye for detail.*
*They laughed at themselves in the distorting mirrors.*

**Emphatic**

The same pronouns may be used to stress that the subject alone is involved in the action, as in

*They offered to help her, but she painted the scenery herself.*
*You can manage by yourselves.*

*Note that the singular and plural forms of the second person differ.*
Avoid such constructions as
I myself do not agree with them.
I myself think that we should accept the offer.

Note that the emphatic pronoun is not a substitute for the personal pronoun.
It cannot replace the personal pronouns in such constructions as
My brother and I will be there tomorrow.
The work was left for my brother and me.

**Impersonal pronouns**

The pronoun *one* is called an impersonal pronoun when it is used to refer to persons in general, as in
One is bound to do one's best.
If one acts hastily one has only oneself to blame for the consequences.

You will note that although *one* is not attached to any one of the three persons it uses the third person singular form of the verb.
One would be acceptable if it could be kept for those occasions when a general comment is made, as in
One cannot choose one's parents.

Unfortunately *one* is often used by writers as a substitute for *I*. These people probably mean well enough; they no doubt feel that the frequent use of *I* makes them appear egotistic. I believe that they are mistaken. The repeated use of *I* may be egotistic, but the repeated use of *one* is more than faintly pompous.
The impersonal use of *one* and its wrong use in place of *I* have nothing to do with constructions in which the pronoun *one* stands for the adjective *one*, as in
The girls were playing on the swing, and one (of them) fell and hurt her arm.  
I noticed the boys; one (of them) had bright red hair.

It and they are impersonal pronouns in general statements such as
It is very cold. Is it going to rain?
It is believed that the men were armed.
They say that prices are about to rise.

The impersonal it is properly used of the weather, but impersonal it and they as in It is believed . . ., or It is thought . . . or They say . . . should be generally avoided. Such expressions lack precision, and make for vague and unclear expression.

Indefinite and distributive pronouns
Each of the following pronouns takes a singular verb:
one, someone, anyone, everyone, no one
somebody, anybody, everybody, nobody
something, anything, everything, nothing
each, either, neither

Was someone at the door?
Nobody was there.
Is everything ready?
Each of the boys has a new jacket.
Either of the lamps provides a good light.
Neither of the drivers was hurt.

English unfortunately lacks third person singular pronouns of common gender, so grammatically it is impossible to avoid such constructions as

45
(a) Everyone must submit his folio on Monday.
(b) Somebody has forgotten her notes.

When all are male (a) is acceptable and natural; when all are female (b) is acceptable and natural. But such a construction may be regarded as offensive when it is applied to both sexes.

You have three courses open to you.

You may ignore the problem and write his and so on; but you must expect to be corrected by those that you offend.

You may write Everyone must submit his or her folio on Monday. This construction is grammatically correct, but it may be awkward in its effect if it has to be repeated frequently. A single instruction is very different from, for example, a lengthy essay that offers a series of general comments on human behaviour.

You may rephrase the sentence to produce some such construction as:

All folios must be submitted on Monday.

Unfortunately it is not always possible to escape into plural forms. Each of the following pronouns takes a plural verb:

others, both, many, few.
Others have different ideas.
Both are ready to begin.
Many are in favour of the plan.
Few were present at the end.
All, any, none, and some may be singular or plural.
All is well at home. (All meaning everything)
All of the paint is here.
All were welcomed warmly.
Has any of the jam been sold yet?
Have any of the guests arrived?
None of the water was lost.
I meant to buy fresh rolls, but none were ready.
Some of the ice has melted.
Some were undecided.
An adjective qualifies a noun or a pronoun; that is, it adds to the meaning of a noun or pronoun so as to show more clearly what person or thing the noun or pronoun is meant to stand for.

The word *Australian* may be either a noun or an adjective. In *She is an Australian* it is a noun; in *The setting is Australian* it is an adjective. The form of the word does not change, but its relationship does.

As you saw in the previous section the relationship of pronoun to verb decides the case of the pronoun: sometimes the form of the word alters as in *who* and *whom*, and sometimes it does not.

Words may have different forms for different parts of speech as in the noun *happiness*, the adjective *happy*, and the adverb *happily*. But it is important to remember to look for the relationships between words; it is not enough to rely on the form of a word as a guide to its function.

1. Find the adjectives in the following sentences.
   Give for each adjective the noun or pronoun that it qualifies.
   *Do not confuse adjectives with adverbs.*
   (a) Warm clothes and thick boots are needed for the hike.
   (b) Inside the case was a minute watch set in a gold bracelet.
   (c) We were given rich cakes and delicious sandwiches.
   (d) The heavy beam was raised with great difficulty.
   (e) The temperate climate is the resort’s chief attraction.
   (f) Supplies of fresh water have fallen to a dangerously low level.
(g) The last train left with six passengers.
(h) They need cheap and efficient systems of transport.
(i) He approached a familiar problem in a novel way.
(j) All movement was hindered by the violent storm.

2. Form an adjective from each of the following nouns.
Consult your dictionary.

| accuracy | harmony | peace |
| analogy  | hysteria | science|
| chaos    | legend   | system |
| courage  | luxury   | territory|
| disaster | medicine | vigour |
| fortune  | mobility | wool  |
| fury     | music    |       |

Adjectives may also be formed from parts of verbs called participles. See page 95.

**Degrees of comparison**

Most adjectives have what are called degrees of comparison. This term may be briefly illustrated as follows:

We may say of a lamp:

*This lamp is bright.*

Comparing one lamp with another we say:

*This lamp is brighter (than that lamp).*

Comparing one lamp with two (or more) other lamps we say:

*This lamp is the brightest (of them all).*
Bright, brighter and brightest are the three degrees of comparison of the adjective bright.

The first degree, which is the adjective in its ordinary form, is called the positive, as in

This is a great day.
The sky was a brilliant blue.
I am reading a good book.

The second degree is called the comparative, and as its name suggests it is used for comparing one thing (or one set of things) with another, as in

His need is greater than mine.
Her use of paint is more brilliant than yours.
The results are better this year than they were last year.

The third degree is called the superlative. It is used to express the highest degree or quality of the positive, as in

This play was the greatest achievement of his career.
The most brilliant playing was seen in the last quarter of the match.
The event will be decided on the best of three tries.

Great illustrates the first of the two main ways in which the comparative and the superlative forms are made.

Most adjectives of one syllable, as in deep, old and thin, form the degrees of comparison in this way.

The comparative form is made by adding er to the positive form, and the superlative is made by adding est to the positive form, as in

Positive | Comparative | Superlative
--- | --- | ---
clever | cleverer | cleverest
dull | duller | dullest
Adjectives

Positive  Comparative  Superlative
happy       happier      happiest
simple      simpler      simplest
wet         wetter       wettest
wise        wiser

Brilliant illustrates the second of the two main ways in which the comparative and the superlative forms are made.

All adjectives of three or more syllables, as in dangerous, improbable and hypocritical, form the degrees of comparison in this way.

The comparative form is made by adding the word more to the positive form, and the superlative form is made by adding the word most, as in

Positive  Comparative  Superlative
apologetic  more apologetic  most apologetic
constant   more constant   most constant
delicate   more delicate   most delicate
reasonable  more reasonable  most reasonable

Good belongs to a small group of adjectives with irregularly formed comparative and superlative degrees, as in

Positive  Comparative  Superlative
bad        worse        worst
far        further      furthest
good       better       best
ill        worse        worst
little     less         least
many       more         most
much       more
3. **Give the comparative and superlative degrees of each of the following adjectives.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>changeable</td>
<td>fine</td>
<td>pale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cool</td>
<td>horrible</td>
<td>pathetic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>desperate</td>
<td>hot</td>
<td>pliable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>early</td>
<td>indignant</td>
<td>small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enthusiastic</td>
<td>neat</td>
<td>specific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feeble</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When you compare one member of a group with the remainder of the group, remember to distinguish the individual from the other members, as in

*She is younger than any other member of her team.*

*Mrs Mayer has lived in the district longer than any other inhabitant.*

Without *other* the sentences become nonsense.

Do not make comparative or superlative forms by doubling comparatives or superlatives: *more better* and *most wisest* are not acceptable.

Some adjectives do not have a comparative or a superlative degree because they represent a complete or final state. An *empty* purse cannot be more empty than it already is.

Two or three purses may be empty, but there can be no degree: *All are empty* or *Not all are empty*.

If you must suggest a condition that approaches a final state, use some such construction as

*The new ring-road is more nearly circular than the old.*

4. **Find among the following adjectives those that have no degrees of comparison; that is, those that represent a final state.**
Adjectives

awkward handsome punctual
ceaseless heavy repressive
complete identical silent
dead intelligent square
equal numerous unique
final obstinate
full perfect

Fewer and less

Fewer refers to things that we think of in terms of numbers of separate units, as in fewer people in the shops, fewer apples on the trees, fewer grains of wheat to the ear.

Less refers to things that we think of in terms of large or small amounts, as in less rain on the crops, less meat in the sandwich, less petrol in the tank.

Fewer requires a plural construction, as in
Fewer tickets have been sold for this season.
Fewer tonnes of butter were produced this year.

Less requires a singular construction, as in
Less interest has been shown during the winter.
Less butter is available this year.

Remember that the choice between fewer and less depends on whether or not a unit is specified:
fewer sheep but less wool, less meat
fewer litres of milk but less milk, less cream
fewer drops of oil but less oil, less gas.
5. Divide the following nouns into two groups: those that would take fewer, and those that would take less.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Possessive adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bread</td>
<td>mice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chances</td>
<td>paper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>efforts</td>
<td>smoke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>geese</td>
<td>species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guidance</td>
<td>steak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matches</td>
<td>tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>traffic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>trouble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vowels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wizards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Possessive adjectives

- **Singular**: my, your, his, her, its
- **Plural**: our, your, their

Note that the possessive adjective *its* does not take an apostrophe.

Possessive adjectives are so called because, like other adjectives, they add to the meaning of a noun.

She was combing her hair.
She was combing her yellow hair.

Demonstrative adjectives

Demonstrative adjectives are used to point out particular things. The singular forms are *this* and *that*; the plural forms are *these* and *those.*
**Adjectives**

*This and these* indicate things close at hand, or recently referred to.
*That and those* indicate things at a distance.

This painting is the best in the exhibition.
This subject will be examined later.
Those chairs have to be mended.

The demonstrative adjective and its noun must agree in number, as in *this type, these varieties, that substance, those things.*

The demonstrative adjective must agree in number with the verb to which it is attached, as in

This sort of apple keeps well.
These kinds of notes are useful.
Have you used all of that paint?
I need those drawing pins.

**Distributive adjectives**

*Each, every, either* and *neither* take a singular verb, as in

Each dog was in its kennel.
Each boy and girl is to choose a book.
Every light was out.
Every creek and river was flooded.
Either answer is acceptable.
Neither group has finished.

Either—or and neither—nor should take a singular verb, as in

Either Jenny or her sister is to go.
Neither car nor bicycle was available.

If you must use either—or or neither—nor to link pronouns of different case or nouns of different or plural number, find a verb of
common number to link the two, as in

Either the goat or the ducks ate the seedlings. (Not has eaten or have eaten.)
Neither trams nor trains ran that day. (Not was running or were running.)
Neither trams nor trains ran that day. (Not was running or were running).

If there is no suitable verb of common number you must recast the sentence.

Both, few and many take a plural verb, as in

Both classes were present.
Few birds are about at the moment.
Many people are involved.

All, any, no, other and some may be either singular or plural, as in

All the snow has gone.
All members were present.
Is any boat leaving tomorrow?
Any papers may be collected this afternoon.
No advice was available.
No cars are to be parked here.
One other boy was there.*
Other people were leaving.
Some cake is left.
Some children were returning.

* One other is a variant of another; one other suggests only one; another suggests an additional one.
Other in the singular must be preceded by one, some, any, no.
A (with an, of which a is a form) is called the indefinite article.

It is applied as a substitute for one, any, or some to anything that is unspecified or to anything that has not been mentioned previously.

A precedes words that begin with a consonant; an precedes words that begin with a vowel.

A and an are singular.

I should like an apple.
What a beautiful day!
Have you a pencil?
That was a thrush.

Remember that it is an apple but a juicy apple; a coat, but an old coat.

The is called the definite article.

It is applied to any simple plural, and to anything that is referred to particularly, or to anything that is presumed to be familiar.

The has common number.

The chops are ready.
What is the answer?
The man called for the waste paper.

The articles are not usually applied to any noun (singular or plural) that represents anything in an abstract sense.

Prices rose sharply yesterday but The price of meat has risen.
Milk is available in cartons but I poured the milk into a jug.
Dogs have long been domesticated* but The dog was sitting at the gate. Education is the responsibility of society* but A society has been formed to promote a better system of education. I go to church regularly but I was left waiting at the church.

* A singular form is possible as in The dog (that is, the dog as a species) has long been domesticated. A is not possible here.

A society (that is, any society) is responsible for the education of its members. The is not possible in place of a here.
The verb expresses action or being; that is, it tells us that some person or thing
does something, as in I write.
is in some state or condition, as in I am happy.
is approaching some state or condition as in It grows cold.

**Infinitive**

A verb is usually referred to by its infinitive, which is so called because it is not bound by either person or number.

We speak of the verbs to be, to have, to like; these are infinitives.

Each of them refers us to a particular verb without the limitation of any finite form, as in He wants to stay or We have to go.

**Mood**

A finite verb belongs to one of three moods: the indicative, the imperative or the subjunctive. The mood of a verb represents, in a sense, a state of mind.

The indicative mood is by far the most commonly used of the three. It is used to convey statements that are facts (or that pass for facts), as in It has been raining. I have a cold. I think that I shall stay indoors.
The imperative mood is used to convey commands, as in


The subjunctive mood in English is almost, but not quite, dead. It is used to express wishes or suppositions or possibilities, as in

I wish I were wiser than I am.
If I were a rich man I would travel.
If she were here she would know what to do.

Transitive and intransitive

When a sentence is divided into subject and predicate the verb forms part of the predicate; indeed, the verb may be the only word in the predicate.

Subject  Predicate
Time  flies.
I planted a tree.
Chris and Valerie are late.

In the sentence I planted a tree the action of the verb planted is directed to the tree. The tree is the object of the verb planted, and I is its subject. Of the three verbs above only planted is transitive.

A verb is said to be transitive when the action that it expresses is directed to an object, as in

Subject  Verb  Object
The children  fed  the swans.
Rita  sold  her paintings.
The side of the ship  scraped  the wharf.
The parrot  bit  me.
Each subject and each object must be a noun or the equivalent of a noun; reduced to the barest framework the sentences above become:

- children fed swans
- Rita sold paintings
- side scraped wharf
- parrot bit me.

The words that have here been omitted from the subjects and the objects are called adjuncts because they add to or amplify the meaning of the part of speech to which they are attached. An adjunct may be a word or a phrase.

Subject and object may be singular or plural. In the following sentences the nouns (or their equivalent) forming either subject or object are in bold type.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John and I</td>
<td>built</td>
<td>a canoe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colin, my brother,</td>
<td>has</td>
<td>a car.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subject is plural. The two nouns are said to be in apposition, as the one is parallel to the other. Here both Colin and brother are the subject of the verb has. Either subject would do alone, but each does provide information about the other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Adjunct</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The man</td>
<td>at the top</td>
<td>raised</td>
<td>the flag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the tower</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the top and of the tower are adjuncts to the subject. Here each is a phrase acting as an adjective:

- Which man? At the top. Which top? Of the tower.
Subject Verb Object Adjunct

The councillor presented the prizes after the speeches.

After the speeches is an adjunct. Here it is a phrase acting as an adverb: presented when? After the speeches.

I provided tea, coffee and biscuits.

The object is plural.

1. Write out the following sentences. Label the subject, the verb and the object in each. Look first for the verb and, having found it, ask yourself: Who or what performs this action? and: To whom or to what is this action directed?

(a) We rehearse the play on Tuesdays and Thursdays.
(b) I bought a new bicycle.
(c) The bus climbed the hill slowly.
(d) Harry and Marco took the photographs.
(e) Has she a chance?
(f) We need a hammer and some nails.
(g) The leader of the group entered the room.
(h) The firm employed Mr Thomas, the accountant.

A verb is said to be intransitive when the action that it expresses is not passed to a direct object.

The verb in each of the following sentences is intransitive.

Subject Predicate
Time flies.
Butter melts easily.
The horse kicked hard.

Each of the verbs flies, melts, kicked makes a statement about the subject. No object is involved. Easily and hard are adjuncts (both are adverbs) each attached to its verb.
2. Write out the following sentences. Label the subject, the verb, and (if there is one) the object in each. Each verb here with an object is a transitive verb.

(a) Thousands watched the show.
(b) Barry and his friends waited patiently.
(c) Had it a collar?
(d) The fire burnt brightly.
(e) Mrs Perry baked her own bread.
(f) Many lost everything.
(g) Few stars showed.
(h) The weary men gathered the harvest.
(i) The last traces of cloud vanished.
(j) Our team won easily.

Direct and indirect objects

The term object has until now been used only in connection with transitive verbs. Properly we distinguish between a direct object and an indirect object.

Only a transitive verb may have a direct object; each object that appears in the exercise on page 62 is a direct object, as in

The cat caught a mouse.

Both transitive and intransitive verbs may have an indirect object; that is, an object to which the action of the verb is not directly transferred.

In the following sentences each noun (or its equivalent) forming the indirect object is in bold type.

He whispered to me indistinctly.
I took the flowers to her.
They awarded the first prize to Pat.

Of the three verbs above, whispered is here intransitive, and took and awarded are transitive.

Many verbs may be used both transitively and intransitively, as in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Adjunct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transitive</td>
<td>Intransitive</td>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>some fruit</td>
<td>to the children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>gives</td>
<td>generously.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>to the appeal</td>
<td>last year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That actor</td>
<td>speaks</td>
<td>his lines</td>
<td>too quickly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>speaks</td>
<td>very softly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>spoke</td>
<td>to Louise</td>
<td>this morning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some verbs may be used only transitively; they must have a direct object, as in:

| The postman | brought | nothing     | today. |
| They        |         | the birds.  |       |

Some verbs may be used only intransitively; they cannot have a direct object, as in:

| I         | consented  | to it      | willingly. |
| He        | hesitated  |           | momentarily. |

This process of breaking up a sentence into its parts is called analysis. It deals with the way in which sentences are formed; that is, with the way we form sentences in speech or in writing.

3. Write out the headings for analysis as they appear in the table above. Analyse the following sentences according to those headings. In analysing each sentence remember to look first for the verb.
Verbs

(a) We told the good news to our parents.
(b) The engine made a very odd noise.
(c) He hid behind the door.
(d) Have they any homework tonight?
(e) Carol offered the sweets to her friends.
(f) The sunlight sparkled on the water.
(g) I talked to the class on Tuesday.
(h) The Cramers live nearby.

Complement

A complement is a word or words that must be supplied to complete the action expressed by the verb.

A transitive verb may need a complement as well as an object, as in

Subject | Verb | Object | Complement
---|---|---|---
That | makes | me | very happy
We | set | the birds | free

A small group of intransitive verbs requires a complement. These verbs tell us that some person or thing is in some state or is approaching some state, as in
to be, to appear, to become, to grow, to look, to remain, to seem

They do not tell us that the subject directs an action to an object, either directly or indirectly. They tell us that the subject is or is becoming (or was or will be) whatever the complement is.

Subject | Verb | Complement | Adjunct
---|---|---|---
Victoria | was | Queen | from 1837 to 1901.
He | appeared | anxious | at the thought of the interview.
Formal English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Complement</th>
<th>Adjunct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>became</td>
<td>friends</td>
<td>quickly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>grew</td>
<td>pale</td>
<td>at the news.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our neighbours,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the Willises,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The passengers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The platform</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of these verbs may be used transitively (but not, of course, in the sense of being or becoming as in the examples above), as in

That dress becomes (suits) her.
We grow our own tomatoes.
I looked him in the eye.

4. Write out the headings Subject, Verb (Transitive or Intransitive), Object (Direct or Indirect), Complement and Adjunct.
   Analyse the following sentences according to those headings.

   (a) I dug a shallow trench.
   (b) He remains hopeful.
   (c) We corrected the work carefully.
   (d) He always seems unlucky.
   (e) She called to him twice.
   (f) We lost everything.
   (g) They went to her immediately.
   (h) I waited patiently for them.
   (i) He soon became tired.

Tense
A finite verb is tied to a particular person and number, and it indicates where the action is set in time: in the present, in the past,
or in the future. Tense means time; we speak of a verb as being in the past, the present or the future tense.

These three broad divisions are broken into subdivisions that indicate the tense with a greater degree of precision than the simple present, past and future.

Each verb (apart from the auxiliaries noted on page 74) has, in addition to its infinitive, four other forms that are used to make its tenses.

These forms are the present tense, the present participle, the past tense and the past participle. See page 95.

The present tense and the past tense are finite forms as in I am and I was, and I speak and I spoke.

The participles are used to form tenses. The present participle of to be is being; of to speak is speaking. The past participle of to be is been; of to speak is spoken.

The tables that follow show how the tenses are formed. As you work your way through them remember that you have already been using many, if not all, of the tenses; these tables serve to remind you of the flexibility that the tenses may give to your expression.

The names of the tenses are made up of a small number of terms: present, past, future, progressive, perfect and conditional.

Present, past and future are terms that you have met, as in I write, I wrote, I shall write.

Progressive means continuing, or not yet complete, as in I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing.

Perfect means complete, as in I have written, I had written, I shall have written.

Conditional means depending upon a condition; that is, something required before something else can be done, as in He would write if he could spare the time.
Here the writing depends upon the condition of having time to spare. The tenses illustrated in the following tables are of the verbs to be and to speak in the indicative mood; the pattern of forming the tenses in that mood is the same for all other verbs. In each tense the verb appears in the order of first, second, and third person singular; first, second, and third person plural.

**Indicative mood**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>to be</th>
<th>to speak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you are</td>
<td>you speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it is</td>
<td>he, she, it speaks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we are</td>
<td>we speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you are</td>
<td>you speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they are</td>
<td>they speak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Present Progressive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am being</th>
<th>I am speaking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you are being</td>
<td>you are speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it is being</td>
<td>he, she, it is speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we are being</td>
<td>we are speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you are being</td>
<td>you are speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they are being</td>
<td>they are speaking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This tense indicates something that is still going on, as in They are being very patient, but their patience will not last much longer.
Verbs

Present Perfect

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

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

This tense indicates something that has very recently been completed, or something that, true of the past, is still true, as in I have been in the library all day or He has been at the school for two years.

Present Perfect Progressive

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

I have been speaking  
you have been speaking  
he, she, it has been speaking  
we have been speaking  
you have been speaking  
they have been speaking  

This tense indicates something that has been going on until the present, as in You have been speaking for some time, but your argument is not yet clear.

Past

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

I spoke  
you spoke  
he, she, it spoke  
we spoke  
you spoke  
they spoke  

69
### Past Progressive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Pronoun</th>
<th>Verb Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>was being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>were being</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This tense indicates that something was going on at some time in the past, as in *I hope that I was being helpful when I intervened* or *We were speaking about it this morning.*

### Past Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Pronoun</th>
<th>Verb Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>had been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This tense indicates that something was completed in the past before an action that was itself in the past, as in *We had spoken to them before we knew who they were.*

### Past Perfect Progressive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Pronoun</th>
<th>Verb Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>had been being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>had been being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>had been being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>had been being</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Pronoun</th>
<th>Verb Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>had been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>had been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>had been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>had been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>had been speaking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This tense indicates that something going on in the past was completed, as in I had been speaking for some minutes when I noticed that the microphone was not working.

**Future**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall* be</th>
<th>I shall speak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you will be</td>
<td>you will speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it will be</td>
<td>he, she, it will speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we shall be</td>
<td>we shall speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you will be</td>
<td>you will speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they will be</td>
<td>they will speak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Progressive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall be being</th>
<th>I shall be speaking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you will be being</td>
<td>you will be speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it will be being</td>
<td>he, she, it will be speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we shall be being</td>
<td>we shall be speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you will be being</td>
<td>you will be speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they will be being</td>
<td>they will be speaking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This tense indicates something that is to go on in the future, as in She will be speaking at the meeting next week.

**Future Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall have been</th>
<th>I shall have spoken</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you will have been</td>
<td>you will have spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it will have been</td>
<td>he, she, it will have spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we shall have been</td>
<td>we shall have spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you will have been</td>
<td>you will have spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they will have been</td>
<td>they will have spoken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See page 74.
This tense puts the future into the past as something completed, as in *In a week from today they will have been in that house for thirty years.*

**Future Perfect Progressive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>I shall have been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>you will have been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>he, she, it will have been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>we shall have been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>you will have been speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>they will have been speaking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This tense puts the future into the past as something that has been going on, as in *By four o’clock I shall have been speaking for about twenty minutes.*

**Conditional**

I have included the conditional mood within the indicative mood because, unlike the imperative and the subjunctive moods, the conditional mood has no separate form of its own.

Moreover the same form is used in constructions that express a condition and in constructions that do not, as in

*I should speak if I could find something appropriate to say.*  
*We should speak in his favour.*

In the second example *should* means merely *ought to.* See page 76.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>I should speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>you would speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>he, she, it would speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>we should speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>you would speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>they would speak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Progressive Conditional**

*I should be being*  
you would be being  
*he, she, it would be being*  
we should be being  
you would be being  
they would be being

*I should be speaking*  
you would be speaking  
*he, she, it would be speaking*  
we should be speaking  
you would be speaking  
they would be speaking

This tense indicates that something would be going on if some condition was being met, as in *He should be speaking to them now, but he has failed to appear.*

**Perfect Conditional**

*I should have been*  
you would have been  
*he, she, it would have been*  
we should have been  
you would have been  
they would have been

*I should have spoken*  
you would have spoken  
*he, she, it would have spoken*  
we should have spoken  
you would have spoken  
they would have spoken

This tense indicates that something would have gone on if some condition had been met, as in *You would have been proud of them if you had seen how well they performed.*

**Perfect Progressive Conditional**

*I should have been being*  
you would have been being  
*he, she, it would have been being*  
we should have been being  
you would have been being  
they would have been being

*I should have been speaking*  
you would have been speaking  
*he, she, it would have been speaking*  
we should have been speaking  
you would have been speaking  
they would have been speaking
This tense indicates that something would have been going on if some condition had been met, as in *He would have been speaking to you this evening if he had not had a prior engagement.*

**Auxiliary verbs**

You will have noticed in the preceding tables that other verbs were used with the participles of *to be* and *to speak* in making some of the tenses, as in

*I was being quiet.*
*I have spoken.*

These verbs (*to be* and *to have*) are called auxiliary verbs because they help to make the tenses.

Apart from *to be* and *to have* the other auxiliary verbs are

*shall*, *should*, *will* and *would*
*can* and *could*
*may* and *might*
*must*, *ought*, *need*, *dare* and *do.*

*Shall*, *should*, *will* and *would.*

In simple future or conditional statements or questions *shall* and *should* are used in the first person; *will* and *would* are used in the second and third persons.

This use of *shall*, *should*, *will* and *would* implies merely that events will or would occur; it does not imply anything in the way of deliberate intention.

*We shall see you later.*
*I should have caught the bus if I had run.*
Verbs

Shall I write to you?
They will bring the luggage.
He would have been here if he had been able to get leave.
Will you be with us tomorrow?

In future or conditional statements that express a deliberate intention will and would are used in the first person; shall and should are used in the second and third persons.

We will not accept such an unreasonable attitude.
I would have stopped them if I could.
He shall pay for this.
They should have been more co-operative if we had been there.

Shall and should suggest, according to the circumstances, compulsion, duty, obligation, likelihood.
Shall I post these letters?
Why should they conform?
We should be more careful.
If you should be there early, please save me a seat.

Will and would suggest, according to the circumstances, consent, wishing, intention, determination.
It will not go away.
Do what you will.
They will not do as they are told.
The children will keep getting in the way.
Would you pass the salt, please?

Can and could denote ability.
They can sing when they try.
Could he have done it?
May and might denote permission or possibility. Note the difference between can and could, and may and might.

Can I leave the room, please?
May I leave the room, please?
She may be on the next train.
It may be true.
You might have fallen.

Might also suggests duty, as in
You might help me (but you do not).
Might I make a suggestion?

Must denotes necessity or obligation: logical, legal or moral.
If A is greater than B, and B is greater than C, then A must be greater than C.
Drivers must keep to the left.
We must help those poor people.

Ought denotes duty; it resembles must, but is not as strong.
He felt that he ought to help.

Need* and dare* are used as auxiliary verbs in negative statements (that is, statements using the adverb not) and questions, as in
He need not be present.
Need they have finished that section?
I dare not do it.
Dare we begin without them?

In positive statements both need and dare must follow the ordinary

* Need, dare and do may also be complete verbs as in
We need guidance now.
He dared me to do it.
She does her best.

76
Verbs

forms of the tenses, as in
He needs to be present.
They needed to be named.
She will need to be tactful.

He dares to do it.
We dared to enter.
They will dare to do anything.

Do is used as an auxiliary, but it follows the ordinary forms of the tenses. Do is used for emphasis, as in
She does work hard.
I do wish that I could go to the ball.
We did call, but you were out.

Do forms questions, as in
Do we have to hurry?
Did you see that film?
Does he have to go?

Do is used to form negatives, as in
I do not like the idea.
They did not accept our offer.

Do is a substitute for a complete verb, as in
She contributes no more than we do.
They worked for it as much as I did.
Did you see it? Yes, I did.

Note that do cannot be a substitute for forms of to be or to have.
They are more reliable than he is.
I have as much as she has.
Are you the leader? Yes, I am.
Have you a pencil? Yes, I have.
The infinitive *may* be used after any verb, as in
*I have to wait.*
*We were to leave earlier.*
*They promised to be here.*

The infinitive *must* be used after all auxiliary verbs except *to be* and *to have*, although *to* is used only after *ought*, and *after need* and *dare* in the positive.

In the following examples the verbs in the infinitive are in bold type.
*I should be there.*
*He will mend it.*
*They can do the job.*
*She must believe me.*
*He does work hard.*
*They ought to help.*
*We need to work harder.*
*They dared to speak.*
*Need we stay?*
*They need not remain.*
*Dare they ask?*
*They dare not inquire.*

Take care with constructions that combine two tenses in the one sentence, as in
*He always has and always will let the matter alone.*

Such a construction is possible only if the principal verb (here *to let*) has the same form in both tenses. With many verbs the construction is not possible: a repetition of the principal verb in its correct form is necessary, as in
*It has been a problem for every government that has existed and will exist.*
Colloquial use has, through careless pronunciation, caused an error that sometimes appears in writing.

Constructions such as I should have gone becomes in speech I'd 've gone, and the 've is pronounced as of, and sometimes so written.

Remember that contracted forms of verbs, as in I don't, they wouldn't and the like, are properly used only in representations of direct speech.

Principal parts of a verb

The principal parts of a verb are its present tense (as in the first person singular), its past tense and its past participle.

The present participle is not regarded as a principal part because it is formed with a greater degree of regularity than is the past participle.

The principal parts of a verb, together with such auxiliary verbs as are required, provide the foundation for all the tenses.

The table that follows contains the principal parts of a few of the more common verbs. I have added the present participles as a guide to correct spelling.

This collection of verbs is small, but you can use it at once to practise the formation of tenses. Consult your dictionary for the parts of verbs that are not represented in the table; do not attempt to guess at their spelling.

Remember that to be is unlike all other verbs in the formation of its present and past tenses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you are</td>
<td>you were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Formal English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>he, she, it is</em></td>
<td><em>he, she, it was</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>we are</em></td>
<td><em>we were</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>you are</em></td>
<td><em>you were</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>they are</em></td>
<td><em>they were</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To *be* has the present participle *being* and the past participle *been.*

To *have* differs slightly from all other verbs in the form of the third person singular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have</th>
<th>we have</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>you have</td>
<td>you have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, she, it has</td>
<td>they have</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All other verbs form the third person singular by adding *s* or *es* to the first person singular as in the formation of plurals of nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>believe</td>
<td>believing</td>
<td>believed</td>
<td>believed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bear</td>
<td>bearing</td>
<td>bore</td>
<td>borne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>become</td>
<td>becoming</td>
<td>became</td>
<td>become</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>beginning</td>
<td>began</td>
<td>begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bend</td>
<td>bending</td>
<td>bent</td>
<td>bent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*also conceived, relieved*

*but* He was born in 1948

*also come*

*also lend, rend, send, spend*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| bind         | binding           | bound      | bound           | also find, grind, wind  
| bite         | biting            | bit        | bitten          | also breed, feed, speed  
| bleed        | bleeding          | bled       | bled            |  
| blow         | blowing           | blew       | blown           | also grow, know, throw  
| break        | breaking          | broke      | broken          |  
| bring        | bringing          | brought    | brought         |  
| broadcast    | broadcasting      | broadcast  | broadcast       | also forecast  
| build        | building          | built      | built           |  
| burn         | burning           | burnt      | burnt           |  
| burst        | bursting          | burst      | burst           |  
| buy          | buying            | bought     | bought          |  
| call         | calling           | called     | called          |  
| cast         | casting           | cast       | cast            | also cost  
| catch        | catching          | caught     | caught          |  
| cheat        | cheating          | cheated    | cheated         | also defeat, heat, repeat, seat  
| choose       | choosing          | chose      | chosen          | also fling, sling, sting, string, swing, wring  
| cling        | clinging          | clung      | clung           |  
| contract     | contracting       | contracted | contracted     | also attract, extract, detract and so on  

* The *t* ending has replaced *ed* in many forms of past tense and past participle. Where both endings survive in use the preferred form will be given first.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cope</td>
<td>coping</td>
<td>coped</td>
<td>coped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creep</td>
<td>creeping</td>
<td>crept</td>
<td>crept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deal</td>
<td>dealing</td>
<td>dealt</td>
<td>dealt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>die</td>
<td>dying</td>
<td>died</td>
<td>died</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dig</td>
<td>digging</td>
<td>dug</td>
<td>dug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dive</td>
<td>diving</td>
<td>dived</td>
<td>dived</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>doing</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>draw</td>
<td>drawing</td>
<td>drew</td>
<td>drawn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dream</td>
<td>dreaming</td>
<td>dreamt*</td>
<td>dreamt*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink</td>
<td>drinking</td>
<td>drank</td>
<td>drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drive</td>
<td>driving</td>
<td>drove</td>
<td>driven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drop</td>
<td>dropping</td>
<td>dropped</td>
<td>dropped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dry</td>
<td>drying</td>
<td>dried</td>
<td>dried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dwell</td>
<td>dwelling</td>
<td>dwelt</td>
<td>dwelt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>earn</td>
<td>earning</td>
<td>earned</td>
<td>earned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>eating</td>
<td>ate</td>
<td>eaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equal</td>
<td>equalling</td>
<td>equalled</td>
<td>equalled</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The pronunciation of this form differs from that of the present tense. Consult your dictionary.

† See note on page 81.
### Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fall</td>
<td>falling</td>
<td>fell</td>
<td>fallen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fear</td>
<td>fearing</td>
<td>feared</td>
<td>feared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feel</td>
<td>feeling</td>
<td>felt</td>
<td>felt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fight</td>
<td>fighting</td>
<td>fought</td>
<td>fought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fly</td>
<td>flying</td>
<td>flew</td>
<td>flown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forbid</td>
<td>forbidding</td>
<td>forbade</td>
<td>forbidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>forgetting</td>
<td>forgot</td>
<td>forgotten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freeze</td>
<td>freezing</td>
<td>froze</td>
<td>frozen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get</td>
<td>getting</td>
<td>got</td>
<td>got</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>giving</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>going</td>
<td>went</td>
<td>gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greet</td>
<td>greeting</td>
<td>greeted</td>
<td>greeted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hang</td>
<td>hanging</td>
<td>hung</td>
<td>hung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have</td>
<td>having</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hear</td>
<td>hearing</td>
<td>heard</td>
<td>heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hide</td>
<td>hiding</td>
<td>hid</td>
<td>hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hold</td>
<td>holding</td>
<td>held</td>
<td>held</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hurt</td>
<td>hurting</td>
<td>hurt</td>
<td>hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infect</td>
<td>infecting</td>
<td>infected</td>
<td>infected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jog</td>
<td>jogging</td>
<td>jogged</td>
<td>jogged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>joke</td>
<td>joking</td>
<td>joked</td>
<td>joked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kneel</td>
<td>kneeling</td>
<td>knelt</td>
<td>knelt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>laughing</td>
<td>laughed</td>
<td>laughed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lay</td>
<td>laying</td>
<td>laid</td>
<td>laid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lead</td>
<td>leading</td>
<td>led</td>
<td>led</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*also forgive, protect, reject, respect, suspect and so on*

*of pictures of capital punishment*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lean</td>
<td>leaning</td>
<td>leant*</td>
<td>leant*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leap</td>
<td>leaping</td>
<td>leapt*</td>
<td>leapt*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leave</td>
<td>leaving</td>
<td>left</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let</td>
<td>letting</td>
<td>let</td>
<td>let</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level</td>
<td>levelling</td>
<td>levelled</td>
<td>levelled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lie</td>
<td>lying</td>
<td>lain</td>
<td>lain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lie</td>
<td>lying</td>
<td>lied</td>
<td>lied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light</td>
<td>lighting</td>
<td>lit</td>
<td>lit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lose</td>
<td>losing</td>
<td>lost</td>
<td>lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>love</td>
<td>loving</td>
<td>loved</td>
<td>loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td>making</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mean</td>
<td>meaning</td>
<td>meant*</td>
<td>meant*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meet</td>
<td>meeting</td>
<td>met</td>
<td>met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>move</td>
<td>moving</td>
<td>moved</td>
<td>moved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mow</td>
<td>mowing</td>
<td>mowed</td>
<td>mown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pass</td>
<td>passing</td>
<td>passed</td>
<td>passed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pay</td>
<td>paying</td>
<td>paid</td>
<td>paid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quit</td>
<td>quitting</td>
<td>quitted</td>
<td>quitted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quote</td>
<td>quoting</td>
<td>quoted</td>
<td>quoted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reach</td>
<td>reaching</td>
<td>reached</td>
<td>reached</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>read*</td>
<td>read*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rid</td>
<td>ridding</td>
<td>rid</td>
<td>rid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See note on page 82.
† See note on page 81.
### Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present tense</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ride</td>
<td>riding</td>
<td>rode</td>
<td>ridden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring</td>
<td>ringing</td>
<td>rang</td>
<td>rung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rise</td>
<td>rising</td>
<td>rose</td>
<td>risen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run</td>
<td>running</td>
<td>ran</td>
<td>run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saw</td>
<td>sawing</td>
<td>sawed</td>
<td>sawn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>say</td>
<td>saying</td>
<td>said*</td>
<td>said*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>seeing</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seek</td>
<td>seeking</td>
<td>sought</td>
<td>sought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sell</td>
<td>selling</td>
<td>sold</td>
<td>sold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sew</td>
<td>sewing</td>
<td>sewed</td>
<td>sewn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shake</td>
<td>shaking</td>
<td>shook</td>
<td>shaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shear</td>
<td>shearing</td>
<td>sheared</td>
<td>shorn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shine</td>
<td>shining</td>
<td>shone</td>
<td>shone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit</td>
<td>sitting</td>
<td>sat</td>
<td>sat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slay</td>
<td>slaying</td>
<td>slew</td>
<td>slain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smell</td>
<td>smelling</td>
<td>smelt</td>
<td>smelt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sow</td>
<td>sowing</td>
<td>sowed</td>
<td>sown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak</td>
<td>speaking</td>
<td>spoke</td>
<td>spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spell</td>
<td>spelling</td>
<td>spelt</td>
<td>spelt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spill</td>
<td>spilling</td>
<td>spilt</td>
<td>spilt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spin</td>
<td>spinning</td>
<td>spun</td>
<td>spun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spoil</td>
<td>spoiling</td>
<td>spoilt</td>
<td>spoilt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See note on page 82.
† See note on page 81.
5. Give the principal parts of each of the following verbs. Consult your dictionary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tense</td>
<td>participle</td>
<td>tense</td>
<td>participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spread</td>
<td>spreading</td>
<td>spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand</td>
<td>standing</td>
<td>stood</td>
<td>stood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steal</td>
<td>stealing</td>
<td>stole</td>
<td>stolen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stick</td>
<td>sticking</td>
<td>stuck</td>
<td>stuck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strike</td>
<td>striking</td>
<td>struck</td>
<td>struck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swear</td>
<td>swearing</td>
<td>swore</td>
<td>sworn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweat</td>
<td>sweating</td>
<td>sweated</td>
<td>sweated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swim</td>
<td>swimming</td>
<td>swam</td>
<td>swum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talk</td>
<td>talking</td>
<td>talked</td>
<td>talked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teach</td>
<td>teaching</td>
<td>taught</td>
<td>taught</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell</td>
<td>telling</td>
<td>told</td>
<td>told</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tend</td>
<td>tending</td>
<td>tended</td>
<td>tended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>thinking</td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tread</td>
<td>treading</td>
<td>trod</td>
<td>trodden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wake</td>
<td>waking</td>
<td>woke</td>
<td>woken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weave</td>
<td>weaving</td>
<td>wove</td>
<td>woven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wet</td>
<td>wetting</td>
<td>wet</td>
<td>wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>win</td>
<td>winning</td>
<td>won</td>
<td>won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td>wrote</td>
<td>written</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See note on page 81.
Verbs

Imperative mood

The imperative mood is used to convey commands, but according to the way in which these commands are expressed they may appear as words of advice or as requests.

Each of the following sentences contains a verb in the imperative mood.


There is no subject given; you is implied; that is, the command is given to the second person, as in You get out and You go, and so on. None of these sentences is an exclamation; exclamation marks are not required. See page 121.

Subjunctive mood

The subjunctive mood is used to express wishes or suppositions or possibilities; that is, it is concerned with what might be, and not with what is.

It is a mood that is almost, but not quite, dead.

In each example that follows, the verb in the subjunctive mood is in bold type, and an explanatory note is enclosed in brackets.

I wish that it were (although I know that it is not) true.
If he were here (which he is not) he would take command.
I would not do that if I were you (which I am not).

These sentences illustrate the use of the past tense of the subjunctive mood of the verb to be, which is were for all three persons, singular and plural, and thus has the same form as the past tense in the indicative mood, except for the first and third persons singular.
In the sentence *If they were here they would take command were* is in the subjunctive mood.

Remember that not all clauses beginning *If . . .* require the subjunctive mood.

*If I did that* (a possibility that I am prepared to concede) *I was wrong.*
*If I were to do that* (which I have not done) *I should be wrong.*

The present tense of the subjunctive mood of the verb *to be*, which is *be* for all three persons, singular and plural, survives particularly in expressions used at formal meetings, as in

*I move that the minutes be taken as read.*
*I move that Miss Jackson be appointed treasurer.*

The subjunctive is also used after verbs such as *desire, demand, require, insist*, as in

*I insist that it be done now.*
*We demand that an enquiry be held.*

6. **Label each of the verbs in the following sentences according to whether it is in the indicative, the conditional, the imperative or the subjunctive mood.**

(a) Wait a moment.
(b) I shall go now.
(c) They will arrive soon.
(d) Please shut the door.
(e) Are you ready?
(f) He spent a fortune.
(g) Give that to me.
(h) I demand that the case be heard.
(i) That taught him a lesson.
(j) If I were you I should wait.
Verbs

Voice

A transitive verb has two voices: the active and the passive.

In the active voice the subject does something to some other person or thing, as in

*I speak the words.*

*He gave the sign.*

In the passive voice the subject suffers (that is, undergoes) something done by some other person or thing, as in

*The words are spoken by me.*

*The sign was given by him.*

The passive voice is formed by adding the past participle of the verb to the appropriate tense of the verb *to be.*

The following examples of the verb *to give* in the passive voice will illustrate the pattern.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td><em>I am given insufficient time.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td><em>I was given a bicycle.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td><em>I shall be given my assignment tomorrow.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td><em>I should be given some leave soon.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The passive voice is often used to express general statements with the impersonal pronoun *it,* as in

*It is said that the building will be finished this year.*

*It is believed that the worst of the floods is over.*

Interrogative

All tenses that are constructed with at least one auxiliary verb form the interrogative by placing the subject after the (first) auxiliary verb, as in
Was he organising the games?
Will they have seen us?
Is it moving?
Ought we to leave it?
The present and past tenses of all verbs except the verb to be form the interrogative by adding the auxiliary verb do before the subject, and changing the verb to the infinitive.

Does it have a lid?
Do we go tomorrow?
Did he enjoy the party?
The verb to be in the present and past tense forms the interrogative by placing the subject after the verb, as in

Is it there?
Were they at home?
The verb to have in the present and past tense may form the interrogative by placing the subject after the verb, as in

Has it an outlet?
Have we a moment to spare?

7. Rewrite each of the following sentences in the interrogative form.
   (a) They will be leaving soon.
   (b) He likes his new job.
   (c) It can wait until tomorrow.
   (d) They are fond of swimming.
   (e) I spoke well.
   (f) We ought to tell them.
   (g) She has a better plan.
   (h) You needed some more time.
Verbs

(i) They spent all their money.
(j) It was a good idea.

Negative

All tenses that are constructed with at least one auxiliary verb form the negative by inserting the adverb not after the (first) auxiliary verb, as in

*We have not been taking proper care.*
*I had not seen them before.*
*They are not being very helpful.*
*I shall not return.*
*We could not mend it.*

In the interrogative the subject and the (first) auxiliary change places, as in

*Have we not had enough?*
*Will they not try to agree?*

*The present and past tenses of all verbs except to be form the negative by inserting not between the auxiliary verb do and the infinitive of the verb, as in*

*I do not have an answer.*
*He did not finish the work.*
*She does not live here.*
*They did not succeed.*

*In colloquial use (auxiliary) verb and adverb combine to displace the subject as in*

*Have n’t we had enough?*

See also note on page 92.
In the interrogative the subject and the auxiliary verb change places, as in

*Does he not want to stay?*
*Did they not know the way?*

The verb *to be* in the present and past tense adds *not* after the verb, as in

*I am not well.*
*She was not present.*

In the interrogative the subject and the verb change places, as in

*Is he not ready?*
*Were they not available?*

The verb *to have* in the present and past tense may add *not* after the verb for the sake of emphasis, as in

*I have not one decent painting.*

In the interrogative the subject and verb change places, as in

*Have I not any hope of success?*

The effect is perhaps excessively formal.

Verbs in the imperative mood form the negative with the auxiliary verb *do* and *not* before the verb, as in

*Do not be afraid.*
*Please do not wait.*

Verbs in the subjunctive mood form the negative as do verbs in

*In colloquial use (auxiliary) verb and adverb combine to displace the subject as in*

*Does n’t she want to stay?*
*Is n’t he ready?*

See also note on page 91.
Verbs

the indicative mood, as in

*If she were not here we should be in trouble.*

Two negative forms cannot be used together without the one cancelling out the other, as in

*He never says nothing or He does not say nothing.*

You have a choice between two constructions

*He does not have any ambition or He has no ambition.*

*They do not visit anybody or They visit nobody.*

*She does not do anything or She does nothing.*

8. **Rewrite each of the following sentences in the negative form.**

(a) We need to investigate the matter.
(b) John and his brothers went yesterday.
(c) I froze the mixture quickly.
(d) We led the procession into the hall.
(e) Does he take your advice?
(f) The flame burnt steadily.
(g) Were they co-operative?
(h) The light disappeared at once.
(i) Could they send it on?
(j) The accident occurred after dark.

Verbal nouns

A present participle may be used as a kind of noun that indicates the action or state denoted by the verb, as in *running, spelling, teaching.*
It is then not called a participle but a *verbal noun*. Like a noun it may be the subject, object or complement to a verb. Like a verb it has tense and voice, and may take an object.

*His running has improved.*

*I admire her teaching.*

*My problem is my careless spelling.*

The verbal nouns in the above sentences are easily recognised, but the form of the verbal noun is not always in that tense and voice.

In each of the following sentences the verbal noun is in bold type.

*My typing needs practice.*

*Does the sound of the typing bother you?*

*Would his typing the letters be of any use?*

*My having typed the letters helped to finish the job quickly.*

*They much appreciated Dion’s having typed the letters.*

Note the possessive adjectives, and the noun in the possessive case; a verbal noun may, like any other noun, be something that is owned.

A verbal noun may be the object to a preposition, as in

*He was angry at having missed the train.*

*He has the unpleasant habit of boasting.*

*She was tired of doing the work.*

9. Write out the following sentences, labelling each of the verbal nouns.

(a) Their intervening has saved the situation from further deterioration.

(b) That accounts for the plan’s having ended in disaster.

(c) I have no objection to Max’s being chosen.

(d) She is intent on doing her best.

(e) We were surprised at his taking sides.
(f) They succeeded in reaching the top.
(g) Being loved is a great responsibility.
(h) His complaining is of no use.
(i) Did you hear of her having won a prize?
(j) It will end in Zena’s running the show.

**Verbal adjectives**

A participle when it is not part of a tense is a *verbal adjective*. It is called a participle because it participates (that is, shares) in the nature of both verb and adjective.

Like an adjective it qualifies a noun or pronoun, and it may have degrees of comparison. Like a verb it has tense and voice, and it may be followed by an object.

*They warmed themselves at the blazing fire.*

*He cut his hand on the broken glass.*

*These curtains are more faded than the rest.*

*Blazing, broken and faded* are easily recognised as verbal adjectives, but the form varies in tense and voice.

In each of the following sentences the verbal adjective is in bold type, as is the noun or pronoun that it qualifies.

**Laughing, they ran away.**

**Having finished our work, we went home.**

*We heard Lisa playing the piano.*

**Not knowing the answer, I remained silent.**

**Pleased at my success, my parents praised me.**

You will often find it helpful to use a participial construction, but it has to be used with care.
The participle (that is, the verbal adjective) must be attached to a noun or pronoun; it is this ability to be attached to a noun or a pronoun that makes it adjectival.

If you are careless in the construction of your sentence, and you fail to provide the participle with an appropriate noun or pronoun, you may find that the participle has attached itself to the only noun or pronoun available, with ludicrous results.

I have generally avoided giving you examples of ungrammatical sentences, but I cannot easily explain the nature of the difficulty without some illustrations of what you must not do.

In each of the following sentences the verbal adjective is in bold type as is the noun or pronoun that it qualifies.

The streets were full of shoppers who carried bags looking for the best bargains.

Having spent four years painting the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel, you feel that Michelangelo might have wanted to rest.

Burnt twenty years ago, the present forest is now near maturity.

Following the manual, the repairs were simple.

With care you may avoid such nonsense. Remember that a mistake is most likely to occur when a sentence is begun with a participial construction and the first available noun or pronoun appears at some distance further on in the sentence. If you forget that you have begun the sentence with a participle and you leave it unattached, it will make what attachment it can.

10. Write out the following sentences, labelling each verbal adjective and the noun or pronoun that it qualifies.

(a) Having run in four events, Nina was very tired.
(b) The mother, expecting to see her children, went to the gate.
Verbs

(c) A smiling face is a welcoming sight.
(d) Moving cautiously, I began the descent.
(e) We last saw them standing on the pier.
(f) Overcome by the heat, some of the spectators fainted.

Verbs that are wrongly used

Affect and effect

Affect and effect are often used as though they were interchangeable.

Affect is always and only a verb: to affect is to alter or change, as in

Our plans will be affected by their decisions.

To affect can also mean to assume or to pretend, as in

He affects a sympathy that he does not feel.
She talks with an affected voice. (That is, a voice sounding unlike her normal voice.)

Effect may be either a noun or a verb.

To effect is to bring about or to accomplish, as in

The council hope to effect the road-widening proposals in the new year.

An effect is a result or a consequence, as in

The contrast of colours achieved a brilliant effect.
The effect of the treatment did not last.

In the plural the word may mean property, as in personal effects.

Imply and infer

Imply and infer are often used as though they were interchangeable, or rather, infer is often wrongly used instead of imply.
To imply is to assume or to suggest or to hint, as in

*The question ‘Can ghosts be exorcised?’ implies that ghosts do exist.*

*She said little, but her tone of voice implied disapproval.*

To infer is to draw a conclusion, to be aware of a suggestion, to pick up a hint, as in

*From his constant choice of landscapes as subjects we may infer that he had no interest in figure painting.*

*May I infer from your silence at the meeting that you do not intend to oppose my plan?*

**Interested and disinterested**

If you are interested in some subject you are devoted to it and absorbed by it.

If you have an interest in the outcome of some affair you have something to gain by it; it is in this sense that we use the noun *interest* to describe what is earned from lending money.

*Disinterested* is the antonym of *interested* in this sense; it has the same sense as *impartial*.

You would not want a judge set to try your case to be *uninterested* in the case, but you would want him to be *disinterested*; that is, having nothing to gain from the outcome of the case.
The chief function of an adverb is to modify the verb to which it is attached; that is, the adverb gives us more information about the way in which the action of the verb is carried out, as in

*He spoke freely.*

Adverbs are attached not only to verbs; they also modify adjectives, as in *That is most kind,* and other adverbs, as in *She has done very well.*

Adverbs are of various kinds.

- Adverbs of manner tell *how* something is done, as in
  
  *He finished the course successfully.*
  
  *The children were playing quietly.*

- Adverbs of degree tell *to what extent* something is done, as in
  
  *Are you warm enough?*  
  
  *The injury was extremely serious.*

- *Not* is an adverb of degree, as are *yes* and *no* as answers to questions.

- Adverbs of time tell *when* something is done, as in
  
  *I shall be at home tomorrow.*
  
  *We visited them recently.*

- Adverbs of place tell *where* something is done, as in
  
  *You must wait here.*
  
  *Leave the luggage there.*

1. Find the adverbs in the following sentences.
   Give for each adverb the part of speech that it modifies.
Do not confuse adverbs with adjectives.

(a) He will probably return in the afternoon.
(b) I hit it hard with a heavy hammer.
(c) You are too late.
(d) She will do better at her next attempt.
(e) I shall soon finish this book.
(f) We were quite tired by the end of the day.
(g) The team was entered twice in the same event.
(h) The choir is singing really well.
(i) Only one survivor was found.
(j) That last explosion was close.

Some adverbs exist independently, as do here, not, so, soon, too.
Some adverbs and adjectives have the same form, as do close, fast, hard, well, wide.

Many adverbs are formed from adjectives, as in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bright</td>
<td>brightly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due</td>
<td>duly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magic</td>
<td>magically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marginal</td>
<td>marginally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>merry</td>
<td>merrily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>public</td>
<td>publicly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terrible</td>
<td>terribly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woeful</td>
<td>woefully</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When this formation is not possible an adverbial phrase may be constructed, as in

difficult with difficulty
ungainly in an ungainly manner or way
2. Form an adverb from each of the following adjectives.
Consult your dictionary.

active  
authentic  
basic  
brutal  
curious  
eternal  
exaggerated  
fierce  
gentle  
lazy  
merciful  
moody  
painful  
real  
similar  
subtle  
true  
vViolent  
visible  
Willing

Degrees of comparison

Adverbs, like adjectives, have degrees of comparison.

Generally, *more* is added to make the comparative degree, and *most* is added to make the superlative degree, as in

- Positive
  - beautifully
  - skilfully

- Comparative
  - more beautifully
  - more skilfully

- Superlative
  - most beautifully
  - most skilfully

If an adverb has the same form as an adjective, it forms its degrees of comparison in the same way as the adjective, as in

- hard
  - harder
  - hardest

- long
  - longer
  - longest

A few adverbs form the degrees of comparison irregularly, as in

- badly
  - worse
  - worst

- much
  - more
  - most

- well
  - better
  - best
Interrogative adverbs

How, why, when and where are interrogative adverbs in that they are used to introduce questions, as in

How was the effect achieved?
Why were the men not present?
When did your friends arrive?
Where are they going?

Adverbs that are wrongly used

Hardly and scarcely

Where these adverbs mean almost not; as in

He could hardly finish the meal or
We were scarcely seated before the show began,
the adverb not must not be used as well.

Literally

Literally is a warning to your reader that what you are about to write (surprising, odd or unbelievable as it may seem) is the exact truth.

To use the word in any other way is wrong. To write, for example, The losing team was literally annihilated is to write nonsense.

See page 132 for a further note.

Adverbs ending in wise

Adverbs such as clockwise, endwise and lengthwise denote direction or motion, as in
Adverbs

They moved clockwise around the hall.
Set the boxes endwise on to the corridor.
I want the carpet to run lengthwise down the room.

The ending wise must not be tacked on to words that cannot be used in this sense: education-wise, money-wise and other similar combinations are unacceptable.
A preposition must not be confused with an adverb. The two parts of speech often share the same form, but each has a different relationship to the rest of the sentence.

An adverb is related only to the word that it modifies, as in

*We sat down.*

*You must stay behind.*

A preposition connects the word that is its object* with some other word, as in

*They rowed down the river.*

*I waited behind the curtain.*

Some nouns, adjectives and verbs are followed by particular prepositions, as in

*He has a reputation for severity.*

*She has a degree in medicine.*

*They are ignorant of the rules.*

*I sympathise with him in his difficulties.*

*Do they consent to our request?*

*Remember that a noun or pronoun following a preposition must be in the objective case, as in*

*Is this coffee for me?*

*Leave the bags with him.*

*The panels were carved by her.*

*This is from us, with love.*

*I stood before them.*

*By whom was this done?*
Different senses require different prepositions, as in
I am grateful to them for their help.
I am grateful for the help that I have had.
I am responsible for my actions.
The Director is responsible to the Minister.
We ran on to the next bus stop.
The team ran onto the field.
Let them run on the spot.
Run to the window and see who is there.

There are no rules for deciding which preposition to use.* Your
dictionary will provide you with the prepositions required by the
different senses of a word, as in
I distinguish things into classes.
I distinguish one thing from another.
I distinguish (that is, draw favourable attention to) myself by my good
conduct.

1. Write out the following sentences, including an appropriate pre-
position in place of each dash.
   (a) She was invited to the conference — an adviser.
   (b) He was accompanied — a pianist.
   (c) We hope constantly — peace.
   (d) They are inseparable — one another.
   (e) I put my trust — him.
   (f) Do you approve — their plans?
   (g) We may rely — her.
   (h) I prefer roses — camellias.
   (i) The firemen soon brought the fire — control.
   (j) You look very pleased — yourself.

* See page 129 for a note on usage, under the heading of Idiom.
Conjunctions

A conjunction joins one word to another, or one clause to another. Do not confuse a conjunction with a preposition or an adverb (or any other part of speech). If it merely joins one word or clause to another, it is a conjunction. If it shows in what relation one thing stands with another, it is a preposition. If it modifies some other word, it is an adverb.

He left before we did.  
He left before lunch.  
I have not seen him before.

Conjunction  
Preposition  
Adverb

Co-ordinating conjunctions

Co-ordinating conjunctions join words or clauses of equal importance. In a sentence of two clauses joined by a co-ordinating conjunction, both the clauses are principal clauses.*

And adds one word or clause to another, as in
Peter and I shall be there.
The clouds vanished, and the sun shone.

But opposes one word or clause to another, as in
The boat is old but sound.
They are weak, but we are strong.

Or links alternatives, as in
Take one or the other.
Either he goes or I go.

* See the notes on principal and subordinate clauses on page 18.
Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions join subordinate (that is, less important) clauses to principal clauses or to other subordinate clauses, as in

She said *that* she would wait.

*I* shall vote for *him* *because* he is reliable.

*We* called to *them* *although* we were too far away.

He continued to work *until* it was quite dark.

1. Give the part of speech of each word in italic in the following sentences.

(a) I went out, *for* I needed some fresh air.

(b) Make hay *while* the sun shines.

(c) He was a great traveller, *as* were many of his generation.

(d) Your room is tidier *than* mine is.

(e) I believe you, *since* you have given your word.

Note that *like* is not a conjunction. It must not be used in place of *as* or *as if* in such constructions as

He treats me *as you would treat a child.*

They ran *as if they were being chased by demons.*
A phrase, like a clause, is the equivalent of a noun, adjective or adverb.

A phrase does not contain a finite verb; a clause must contain a finite verb.

**Noun phrase and noun clause**

A noun phrase is the equivalent of a noun. Like a noun it may be the subject, object or complement of a verb, as in

Subject: *When to help them is the problem.*

Object: *They know what to say.*

Complement: *That is how to do it.*

Similarly a noun clause may be the subject, object, or complement to the verb of a principal clause, as in

Subject: *What she did was very brave.*

Object: *I should like to know how he managed that trick.*

Complement: *Is it that they are afraid?*

The noun phrase or the noun clause is to be recognised in that it may be replaced by a noun, as in

*They know the words.*

*Her action was very brave.*

1. Find the noun clause in each of the following sentences. Say whether it is the subject, the object or the complement to the verb of the principal clause.
(a) He could not discover why they were amused.
(b) What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander.
(c) It is clear that they do not intend to return.
(d) How she succeeded was a mystery to me.
(e) Freedom from interruptions is what I want.
(f) I do not know when I shall be finished.

Adjectival phrase and adjectival clause

An adjectival phrase, like an adjective, qualifies a noun, as in

*The scent of the roses filled the room.*
*I noticed a child with very fair hair.*

Similarly, an adjectival clause qualifies a noun in the principal clause, as in

*That is not the colour that I want.*
*He took them to the spot where he had found the money.*
*The travellers, who had just arrived, were in need of rest.*

2. Find the adjectival clause in each of the following sentences. Indicate the noun that is qualified in each principal clause.

(a) Mark, who could not bear to hear more, left the room.
(b) The story that I have heard cannot be true.
(c) They examined the intersection where the collision occurred.
(d) The plan, which I had presented as a rough sketch, was drawn now in detail.
(e) The time when the theft was committed has not yet been established.
(f) This is a film that I have seen before.
Adverbial phrase and adverbial clause

Like an adverb, an adverbial phrase modifies a verb or an adjective or an adverb, by telling us how, why, where and so on, as in

*We stayed in the garden.*
*The jewellery was heavily insured because of its value.*
*He acts cautiously on most occasions.*

Similarly an adverbial clause modifies a verb or an adjective or an adverb in a principal clause.

Adverbial clauses differ from noun clauses and adjectival clauses in that they fall into classes, as in

**Time**

*We welcomed them warmly when they arrived.*
*They stood as she entered the room.*

**Place**

*The petals remained where they had fallen.*
*He led them wherever he pleased.*

**Reason**

*We went swimming because it was a very hot day.*
*As I was in a hurry I did not wait for you.*

**Manner**

*You may act as you please.*
*He paints very much as he has been taught.*
Phrases and Clauses

Comparison

*It is not as easy as it looks.*
That is more than I should care to give.

Concession

Even if it rains the sports will go on.
*I respect her although I do not like her.*

Result

He argued so well that he convinced them.
She ate so little that she became ill.

Condition

Adverbial clauses of condition require the subjunctive mood for wishes, suppositions and possibilities, as in

*If wishes were horses, beggars would ride.*
*I should be completely happy if she were here.*

The indicative mood is used for adverbial clauses of condition that are mere statements as in

*If he does that he will be sorry.*
*If they did the work they must have the credit.*

3. Find the adverbial clause in each of the following sentences. Give the class of each adverbial clause (time, place, and so on) and indicate the part of speech that is modified in each principal clause.

(a) He likes you as much as I do.
(b) Although her manner is disagreeable, she means well.
(c) We were awake before the sun rose.
(d) They built the house where it would have the best view of the valley.
(e) I do the job because I like it.
(f) It sounded as though there had been an accident.
(g) I should act differently if I were you.
(h) We worked so well that the room was painted by midday.
(i) You might call me when it is time to go.
(j) They have raised more money than we have.
(k) She arrived punctually, as she always did.
(l) Even if you had waited, you would have been disappointed.
(m) The rain fell so heavily that the garden was flooded.
(n) I planted the trees where they would have the best effect.
(o) If he knows the true story, he must tell it.
(p) I ran because I was late.

**Combinations of subordinate clauses**

Remember that the same clause may be a noun clause in one sentence, an adjectival clause in another, and an adverbial clause in another, as in

Where the meeting was to be held had not been decided. Noun clause, subject to the verb had been decided.
We had to decide upon the room where the meeting was to be held. Adjectival clause, qualifying the noun room.
A public address system had been provided where the meeting was to be held. Adverbial clause of place, modifying the verb had been provided.
It is the relationship of the subordinate clause to some part of the principal clause that decides whether the subordinate clause is a noun clause, an adjectival clause or an adverbial clause.

A sentence may have two or more subordinate clauses, as in

The audience, who had shown their appreciation throughout the evening, applauded wildly as the curtain fell.

The audience . . . applauded wildly Principal clause
who had shown their appreciation throughout the evening Adjectival clause qualifying the noun audience
as the curtain fell Adverbial clause of time modifying the verb applauded.

One subordinate clause may be related to another, as in

I hoped that I might soon see the results that had been promised.

I hoped Principal clause
that I might soon see the results Noun clause, object to the verb hoped
that had been promised Adjectival clause qualifying the noun results.

4. Analyse each of the following sentences, according to the pattern shown above. Write out each clause separately, label it according to its kind and, where it is a subordinate clause, according to the relation that it has to any other clause in the sentence.

You will find it helpful to look first for the finite verbs and from them identify the clauses.

(a) The actors, who had been waiting in the wings, moved forward as the curtain rose.
(b) I knew that he would arrive when he was least expected.
(c) If it were not that I am so busy, I should have helped.
(d) Although it was a very cold day we attended the match because we wanted to show our support.
(e) Our thanks are due to the junior school, which has presented the splendid exhibition that we have seen this afternoon.
(f) The announcements had little effect because the loudspeakers, which had been provided at a moment’s notice, were too small.
(g) We could provide more seats for the spectators if we used the chairs that are kept in the pavilion.
(h) It was soon apparent that the fair would raise much more money than we had expected.
(i) The conference, which was held over the week-end, produced some excellent ideas that could be put into immediate effect.
(j) When the last race had been run the spectators, who were already cheering wildly, surged onto the track.
A capital letter (or briefly, a capital) is required for the first word of any sentence, or for any interjection used as a separate expression, as in
Oh! That will never do;
for the names and initials of persons, as in
Alice, Lewis Carroll, W. S. Gilbert;
for the pronoun I;
for the names of the days of the week and the months of the year;
for the titles and ranks of persons, either in full or in abbreviation,* as in
Queen Elizabeth II, the Prime Minister of Australia, Lord Lister, Dr Samuel Johnson, the Reverend Sydney Smith, Major General, Chief Secretary, B.A. (Bachelor of Arts), Ph.D. (Doctor of Philosophy);
for the names of countries, cities, streets and places, either in full or in abbreviation,* as in
Australia, Canberra, St Kilda Road, The Great Australian Bight, U.S.A.;
for the names of institutions, the titles of publications, works of art, and the like, either in full or in abbreviation,* as in
* Note that articles, prepositions and conjunctions are not given capitals unless they fall at the beginning of the title of a publication or the like (or, of course, unless they form the beginning of a sentence), as in
the Parthenon, the Isle of Man, A Tale of Two Cities, Of Mice and Men, F.R.C.S. (Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons).
the Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (R.S.P.C.A.),
The Times, the National Gallery, the Ninth Symphony;
for the Deity, as in
God the Father, Son and Holy Spirit.

Poetry was formerly written with a capital letter at the beginning
of each line, but many poets today use capitals only as they would
be used in prose.

Capital letters are not required for titles that are used in a general
sense.

We distinguish between
The King of Sweden made a state visit and
Many kings and queens were present.

1. Write out the following sentences in your ordinary handwriting, using
capital letters in the appropriate places.

(a) ALFRED THE GREAT WAS KING OF WESSEX.
(b) HE RECEIVED HIS DEGREE AS DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY.
(c) SHE IS A MEMBER OF THE ROYAL AUSTRAL-
ASIAN COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS.
(d) I SPENT EASTER IN TASMANIA WITH MY
BROTHER MAX AND HIS WIFE.
(e) THE OSBORNES HAVE MOVED TO BELMONT
AVENUE.
Written English is marked by various signs that emphasise the sense of the writing. The use of these signs (or stops, as they are sometimes called) is known as punctuation.

Punctuation does not cure bad writing; it merely improves what is already good.

**Full stop**

The full stop is used to show the end of a sentence.

The full stop is also used for abbreviations such as *B.A.* (for Bachelor of Arts) and *Co.* (for Company).

Formerly the full stop was applied to all abbreviations, but now it is usually applied only to those abbreviations that are made by curtailing (that is, docking) a word as in *Capt.* (for Captain) and *Phys. Ed.* (for Physical Education).

Abbreviations such as *Pty* (for Proprietary) and *Ltd* (for Limited) take no stop because each represents a contraction of a word; the middle of the word has been removed but the ends remain. Thus *Dr.* represents Drive and *Dr* represents Doctor.

There is a further note on abbreviations on page 138.

The series of stops (conventionally three) called suspension points is used to denote a gap or an omission in a quotation, as in

"He hath rid . . . like a rough colt; he knows not the stop."

**Colon**

The colon may be used to create a sentence of two elements where the second element, which may be made up of one or more clauses,
is a balance to or an elaboration of the first, as in

*Man proposes: God disposes.*

The benefits of the scheme are twofold: there will be an increase in employment, and there will be a valuable expansion of the export market.

The colon is used chiefly in an extension of the use implied in the second of the above illustrations; that is, as an introduction to lists, as in

*The following rehearsals are called:*

*Tuesday: 4.15 p.m.: Act I (principals)*

*Tuesday: 4.15 p.m.: Act II (company)*

The colon may also be used to introduce a lengthy quotation, as in

*In the course of his address the Principal said:*

*(Here follows an extract from the speech.)*

**Semi-colon**

The semi-colon has a value between that of the full stop and the comma. The word value refers essentially to the length of a pause that a stop indicates. The full stop indicates the greatest pause; the comma indicates the least pause. The semi-colon is used to unite in one sentence two or more elements that are grammatically separate sentences. The elements must be closely connected in meaning, but nothing that occurs before the semi-colon in a sentence may be grammatically related to anything that occurs after the semi-colon. The semi-colon acts in much the same way as a co-ordinating conjunction, although it does not necessarily displace such a conjunction.
We have rested quite long enough; it is time that we were moving on. Here the semi-colon could be replaced by nothing other than a full stop.

He had provided the inspiration for the project; but he did not live to see the work completed. Here the semi-colon might be replaced by a comma; but the semi-colon produces a more impressive pause.

I knew that the play would be a success; and it was. Here again the semi-colon might be replaced by a comma. The decision to use one or the other would depend upon the stress that was wanted on the second clause; a semi-colon tends to give greater weight to what follows.

**Comma**

The comma provides the slightest separation between the parts of a sentence.

It cannot stand in the place of a full stop. A semi-colon may replace a full stop, but a comma cannot replace the semi-colon that is so used.

I am very proud of their effort; it was a generous thing to do.

Here the semi-colon might be replaced by a full stop, but not by a comma.

He is a great believer in equality; but he wants the equality to be all his way.

Here the semi-colon might be replaced by a comma; but the semi-colon is better.

It was not tea that I wanted, but coffee.

Here the comma is necessary. No other stop is possible.

The comma is a substitute for all except the final and in a list or series, as in
Hats, towels, rugs and umbrellas were scattered along the beach.

The comma also separates phrases and clauses, as in

**Having spoken, he left the room.**
**She opened the book, settled herself comfortably, and began to read.**

Note that in a simple list a comma is not required before the

**and, as in**

**We shall need red, white and blue paint.**

But it is needed where the reader might otherwise run two

**senses into one, as in**

**We admired the design of the sets, the colours of the costumes, and the generally rich effect.**

The comma is used to enclose words, phrases or clauses that are

**included as an aside; that is, words, phrases or clauses that are provided by way of explanation, but might be omitted without destroying the structure of the sentence, as in**

**It is not, however, his only contribution.**
**She had, for the most part, enjoyed her holiday.**
**David, who had been overseas for six months, returned just before Christmas.**

Commases are used to separate words in apposition, as in

**My friend, Mrs Duncan, is an enthusiastic traveller.**

Commases are used to enclose words that are used as a form of

**address, as in**

**We are pleased, sir, that you could visit us.**
**It is time, my dear, that we left.**

Commases should not be used where they are not needed.

**Placed as we are with our limited resources, we must conserve our strength.**
A comma after placed requires a comma after are. Neither is needed.

They knew then that the game had been won.

A comma after knew requires a comma after then. Neither is needed.

**Question mark**

The question mark is placed at the end of a direct question, as in

*What have they done?*

*Would you like some tea?*

A sentence that contains a direct question must end with a question mark, even when the question is developed into a statement, as in

*How may we protect a man that needs to be guarded against exploitation throughout his life?*

An indirect question does not have a question mark.

*Find out who did it.*

*The question is whether or not he should receive such consideration.*

**Exclamation mark**

An exclamation is a cry of pleasure or pain or anger or disgust or the like.

The exclamation mark follows interjections such as *Ah!* and *Oh!*, and words such as *Heavens!* and *Hell!* when they are used as interjections.

The exclamation mark follows expressions of pleasure, distress, and so on, as in
What a hot day!
How kind you are!
How terrible!
You angel!
You little devil!

It is not to be attached to statements or commands, no matter how full of emotion they might be.

The following sentences are not exclamations, and they do not require exclamation marks.
That is a lie.
Get out.
Stop.

Apostrophe

The apostrophe is a sign of omitted letters in contracted words, as in can’t for cannot and wouldn’t for would not.

It is also used to denote the possessive case as in the cat’s whiskers.

It is on no account to be used in the plurals of nouns, nor is it to be used in the plurals of abbreviations such as M.Ps. or the 1900s.

Quotation marks

Direct speech

Quotation marks (sometimes called inverted commas) are used to indicate direct speech, as in
‘I quite understand’ he said.
‘In that case,’ she said ‘I am prepared to go.’
You may use single or double marks as you prefer, but be consistent. Single marks are usual in printed matter, but double marks are common in handwriting. On the rare occasion when one quotation needs to be set within another you simply exchange double for single (or single for double) marks, as in

'I think' John replied 'that he said "Go away".'

A quotation must be supplied with an initial capital letter and punctuation as for any independent sentence, as in

He said apologetically 'We're sorry, but we meant well.'

A quotation that is interrupted by he said and the like resumes with a capital letter only if a new sentence is begun, as in

'I don't see' he said 'how it can be managed.'

'Yes' she said. 'That would be a good idea.'

A quotation must be supplied with any necessary question mark or exclamation mark, but it does not take a final full stop unless it ends with the sentence that contains it, as in

'Have you finished the crossword?' he asked.

'What a day!' she said.

'We shall have to leave' I said.

As he was leaving he said 'Thank you for a pleasant evening.'

A quotation from a book or the like must be included within quotation marks. Try to blend fragmentary quotations into the construction of the enclosing sentence as in

Antony's willingness to 'let slip the dogs of war' reveals the dark side of his character.
Any prose quotation that will occupy more than one line should be begun on a new line; a quotation of more than a line of poetry should be begun on a new line, and continued line by line as in the original,

I would agree with Theseus that:
‘Love, therefore, and tongue-tied simplicity
In least speak most, to my capacity.’

The wrong use of quotation marks

When you decide that you must use a word that borders on slang or the colloquial or worse, you must not enclose the word in quotation marks (unless, of course, it forms part of a quotation or direct speech).

If you use quotation marks in this way you are trying to have what benefit there may be in using a dubious word, and to suggest to your readers that you do know better, and you could do better if you chose to take the trouble. This double dealing will not do. If it is the best word for the context, use it without apology; if it is not the best word, do not use it.

Hyphen

The hyphen links two or more words that have to do duty for one. Hyphens are necessary in compound adjectives, as in

She wore a reddish-brown coat.
He has a happy-go-lucky attitude to life.
It was painted by a twelve-year-old girl.
They are not needed in

*Her coat was a reddish brown.*

*The girl who painted that was twelve years old.*

Hyphens may be avoided in such compound nouns as *bookcase* and *timetable*; they are not needed in *Attorney General* and *Field Marshal* and the like; but they are inevitable in such compounds as *brother-in-law*.

A hyphen is used to indicate a break in a word that must be divided between the end of one line and the beginning of the next. Such breaks are better avoided, but if you must break a word do it so that you give the reader a clear indication of the nature of the word, as in

*acceptable, contrast, discovery.*

**Dash**

The dash shows a break in the sense of a sentence, or a sentence broken off completely, as in

*I had hoped—but that will be impossible.*

*Oh, how I wish—!*

It is also used to indicate words that have been omitted, as in

*If the news is true—and I hope that it is true—we shall be very happy.*

Such parentheses should be used very sparingly indeed; used excessively they have the look of unplanned afterthoughts.
Brackets

Curved brackets

Curved brackets that are used to enclose parentheses indicate a stronger and more pronounced break than that made by dashes, and dashes indicate a stronger and more pronounced break than that made by commas, as in

He was, moreover, a brilliant pianist.
I found—much to my surprise—that they had gone.
'Jerusalem' (in its popular setting by Parry) is perhaps better known as a hymn than as a poem.

Curved brackets are also used to enclose dates, page numbers, and the like, as in this book.

Square brackets

Square brackets are generally used to enclose an explanatory comment that has been inserted in a quotation, as in

'By this good light this [Caliban] is a very shallow monster.'

The wrong use of brackets

Brackets must not on any account be used to enclose a mistake. If you should make a mistake, cross it out neatly.

Braces

Braces are used to tie groups of words together, as in

YUM-YUM
PITTI-SING
PEEP-BO

Three sisters—wards of KO-KO
Printing, unlike handwriting, has a choice of type-faces that may be used to give emphasis to important words.

The bulk of this book is printed in roman type, as in this sentence.

The examples and illustrations and some of the headings in this book are printed in italic type, as in this sentence.

Some words and headings are printed in bold type, as in this sentence.

Italic, so called after a beautiful sloping type introduced during the Renaissance in Italy, is generally used in printing for the titles of books, newspapers and the like, as in

I spent an hour doing the crossword in The Age.

Have you read Great Expectations?

Italic is also used to show that, if the sentence were being spoken, there would be a particular stress on the word that appears in italic, as in

He may understand you, but I do not.

The printer can, of course, change from roman to italic type at will; in handwriting and in ordinary typing it is customary to indicate what would be printed in italic by underlining, as in

Hamlet is perhaps the most enigmatic of Shakespeare's plays.

Quotation marks could be used instead of underlining, but it is customary to use them for the titles of chapters, articles and the like, as in

The article 'Exploring Asia' was in last month's National Geographic Magazine.
Italic is also used for words and phrases that are not accepted as English.

A precise definition of *not accepted as English* is impossible because much depends on the degree to which the word or phrase is in general use, but I would suggest that the distinction lies between dachshund and *de facto*, fauna and *faux pas*, pizza and *pizzicato*.
Idiom

Idiom is the form of expression that is peculiar to a particular language. Idiom is not the same as grammar, although what is idiomatic is usually grammatically correct.

Consider the following sentences:

*She has been elected president* is idiomatic and grammatical.

*It was him that did it* is idiomatic, but ungrammatical.

*This kindness creates me very happy* is grammatical, but not idiomatic.

The error here lies in the use of the verb *creates*. Grammatically it is faultless. *To create* is a transitive verb, here correctly placed in relation to subject, and of the proper person and number. But its use is idiomatically wrong: the verb *to create* is simply not used in this sense.

The nature of idiom may become clearer if we turn aside for a moment to examine the term *synonym*.

A synonym is a word that denotes the same thing as another. There are very few complete synonyms because it rarely happens that one word is completely interchangeable with another in every context.*

Nevertheless, if one word can sometimes be substituted for another without affecting the meaning of a sentence, then those words may be said to be synonymous.

*The context here is the setting in which a word is to be used. In *This kindness creates me very happy* we say that *creates* is unidiomatic because it is not used in this context; it is not to be used in such a sentence.*
In some contexts the adjectives *little* and *small* are synonymous.  
*A little dog has just run onto the field.*  
*A small dog has just run onto the field.*  

*Little* and *small* are here synonymous, but they are not always so.  
In the sentence  
*Their house is a little way further on.*  
*small* cannot be substituted for *little.*  

The grammar of the sentence would be unaffected; the general sense of the sentence would be unaffected; but usage does not allow the substitution.  

Consider again that first example of an unidiomatic sentence.  
*This kindness creates me very happy.*  

*To create* is one of a group of synonyms that has the general meaning of *to cause to exist* as in *to make, to form and to produce.*  
But idiom does not allow the members of this group to be completely interchangeable with one another. Idiom requires that, although you may be *created* a peer, you be *made* happy.  

Of course idiom is not only a question of a choice of synonyms.  
You will have noted in the section on prepositions on page 104 that there is no rule that decides what preposition shall follow a verb, as in  

*to accede to, to acquiesce in, to agree to or with, to comply with and to connive at.*  

The choice is dictated by idiom.  

You may rely on a dictionary for help in matters of idiom only if the dictionary includes examples of usage; this provision is not easily made in a very small dictionary.
Idiom and Image

Image

An image is a mental picture that is created for us by the words that we read or hear. Some images are idiomatic in that their form is fixed by usage: among these images are such proverbial and metaphorical expressions as to be a good Samaritan, to make a mountain out of a molehill, to keep a straight face.

Beyond these fixed expressions there are the individual words that test the user’s skill in determining the particular shade of meaning or emphasis that each is able to convey.

Figures of speech

Figures of speech are recognised forms of expression that give strength to our speaking and writing. Two of the most common are the simile and the metaphor.

Simile

A simile is a reference to a person or thing by means of a comparison introduced by as or like, as in

He is as quiet as a mouse.
They ran like startled hares.

Metaphor

A metaphor goes beyond comparison to make a statement that is not literally true. The distortion is made for the sake of emphasis. Their effort was only a drop in the ocean (Their effort made an infinitesimally small contribution).
We face a Herculean task (We face a task comparable in its immensity to one of the twelve labours of Hercules).

Remember that literally is not to be used as though it intensified the impact of a metaphor; literally introduces a fact, but a metaphor is not a fact.

**Shades of meaning**

Grammatical idiomatic English is the beginning, not the end, of good writing. There is a point at which both grammar and idiom desert you, and you must choose on your own responsibility the words that best express the meaning that you want to convey. You have no guide here other than the breadth of your vocabulary and the sense that you have developed of the fine shades of meaning that may distinguish one word from another.

Consider this group of synonyms denoting the action of light: to glow, to glitter, to sparkle, to blaze.

Why should you decide to use one rather than another of these verbs? Which of them, if any, would you use in place of the dash in each of the following sentences?

*The copper pans on the dresser — warmly in the light of the fire.*
*The diamond necklace — against the deep blue velvet of its case.*
*The moonlight — on the frost crystals that patterned the window.*
*The great line of beacons — out of the darkness.*

These sentences might be completed with the addition of any of the above verbs in the correct person and number: grammar and idiom could not require more. But good writing requires what is effective as opposed to what is no more than adequate, and if you are to use words effectively you must be aware of the possibilities of choice that are available to you.
There is a fascinating dictionary of synonyms, originally drawn up by Dr P. M. Roget in 1852, and since then frequently republished. It is known simply as Roget's *Thesaurus*. *Thesaurus* means treasure, and that is very much what it contains: the briefest of glances through it should make you aware of the richness and power of our language.

Your general reading is by far your greatest ally. It is a pleasure in itself, and it will lead you on to new forms of thought and expression. And when you write, which you should do often, do not fear the mistakes. They will gradually disappear if you note why they occurred, and you understand how to avoid them in the future. You will find that your reading and writing will interact constantly with each other, and they are skills that can only improve with practice.
Your ability to write accurately depends largely upon your ability to read with understanding. A dictionary is only a partial help; you need also some sense of the way in which what you read is related to the time when it was written. If you do not have this awareness of the past you will find that much of what you are asked to read is meaningless because it takes for granted a background knowledge that you do not have.

You should discover what you can about the streams of Eastern and Western culture that have made us what we are; by knowing what they have contributed and when that contribution was made you will begin to see your own world through new eyes. You might do worse than read some book such as H. G. Wells’s *A Short History of the World* or, failing that, anything on the ancient civilisations of the Mediterranean. There at least you have an important starting-point.

**The library**

Learn to use a library. The catalogue in a library contains cards for each book: a card for the title of the book, a card for the author or editor, and (sometimes) a card for the subject of the book. Author and title cards are easily found in the catalogue, for they are arranged in alphabetical order according to the surname of the author and the title of the book (excluding *A, An* and *The*). That
Compositional is all very well if you know the name of the author or the title of the book, but if you want a book on a particular subject you must find out what subject headings the library uses. Ask the librarian for help. The more often you do this the sooner you will learn to find your way about the catalogue and the library.

Remember, when you take a reference book from the shelf, to look at the table of contents, which is at the front of the book, and at the index, which is at the back. The table of contents will give you the chapter headings of the book, and it will tell you whether the book contains any illustrations or maps. The index is more important when you want to know whether the book contains the kind of detailed information that you need. An index is arranged alphabetically according to the subjects that the book touches upon: in the index in this book adjective precedes adjunct which precedes adverb, and so on.

Choosing a topic

When you have to choose a topic for composition, either of your own invention or from a set list, you may find it difficult to begin because you cannot see the possibilities that are contained in the topics that are available.

Consider each topic carefully. Ask yourself whether you might make use of it to narrate a story, to describe a scene, to imagine a situation out of your world, or to argue a point of view. Do not hesitate to draw upon your personal experience: you need not write about yourself, but you may very well find that it is easiest to begin by writing of the things that you know and care about.
Planning

Make notes of what you intend to write. Lengthy plans are a waste of time; a few key phrases are enough for each paragraph. You should get into the habit of taking notes whenever you study. Study notes, like plans for compositions, need not be lengthy but they must be accurate. You should not rely on memory alone.

Short compositions are better without long introductions or conclusions. Avoid anything that looks like repetition. If, for instance, your composition is in the form of an argument, you should need only to state your general attitude briefly, and follow with two or three well-chosen and clearly-explained reasons, one to each of two or three paragraphs. And if you were to save the best reason till last, your composition would need no other conclusion than a simple closing sentence.

If you choose to tell a story, think of the feeling that you want to convey to the reader. Consider whether your story might be best presented in a calm and even tone throughout, or whether it needs something with a stronger accent. Before you begin to write you should have a clear idea of what you want to write and how you want to write it.

Writing a paragraph

A paragraph is a distinct section in a piece of writing. This distinctness is obtained in two ways. A paragraph reveals itself even before the words in it are read, because the first line of a paragraph is indented; that is, it is begun some fifteen millimetres (half an inch) in from the left-hand margin. You do not need to measure the distance with a micrometer; but make sure that the line is clearly indented.
This visual quality has its own value; it provides the reader with a break in concentration between one point and the next. A very long paragraph looks rather forbidding, and many short paragraphs set one after the other suggest a lack of continuity. Margins are visually important in the same way; a page that lacks decent margins is as disconcerting as a brimming cup of tea: it can be managed, but one would rather not have to try.

The size of a paragraph is decided by its content: a paragraph should contain one unit of thought. The word unit implies that the contents of a paragraph must be related to one theme or idea. Such a theme may be very simple. A story, for instance, has a beginning, a middle and an end. You may not choose to tell your story in that order: it is possible to begin with the end of a story and follow with its explanation, but questions of order and sequence will have been decided in the first stage of planning.

Once the order is settled you must give yourself to the task of securing and holding the attention of the writer.

Consider the following paragraph.

*The nurse led me to the waiting-room. She smiled at me and left. I was very nervous. I sat down and I tried to read a magazine. I could not concentrate, and I could hear the high-pitched whine of the drill.*

The passage is unsatisfactory as a piece of composition because the construction of each clause follows the same pattern. There are conjunctions, but they are co-ordinating conjunctions: all the clauses are principal clauses. The passage is accurate, but it is dull.

Consider the following paragraph.

*The nurse led me to the waiting-room, then she smiled at me, and left. I tried to read a magazine but I could not concentrate. I was very nervous because I could hear the high-pitched whine of the drill.*
The passage now contains some subordinate clauses, but it has a relaxed tone that is at odds with the topic. This relaxation is a fault of construction. Generally, if the principal clause stands first in a sentence the following subordinate clause relaxes any tension that might have been created. A relaxed tone is sometimes exactly what is wanted, but it is not wanted here.

Consider the following paragraph.
*When the nurse led me to the waiting-room she smiled at me, and left; as I sat down I could hear the high-pitched whine of the drill. I tried to read a magazine, but I could not concentrate. I was very nervous.*

There are three sentences: the longest is first; the shortest is last. The tension is appropriately established and maintained, partly by the decrease in length of the sentences, and partly by the impact of the principal clauses that follow the subordinate clauses. The final sentence is the most important sentence in the paragraph.

As you become increasingly aware of the power that lies in a wide vocabulary and a planned construction, the strength of your writing will increase. Do not fear to experiment; the possibilities are limitless.

**Presentation**

Neatness is important. Handwriting can be improved with practice, and a page that is set out carefully is attractive in itself.

**The use of abbreviations**

Abbreviations other than those of titles such as *Mr*, *Mrs* and *Dr* should be avoided in ordinary writing.
Mr Brown was relieved when the doctor finally arrived.
Dr Mackenzie was startled to hear a voice call 'Hey, mister!'

Abbreviations of the names of institutions should not be used unless the name of the institution has appeared in full at least once in the passage of writing. Abbreviations are convenient, but they must not become a source of confusion.

Fanciful spellings or abbreviations of such words as barbecue, night, television and through must not be used, nor should signs or symbols be borrowed from mathematics as a substitute for such words as and and therefore.

Contractions such as can’t, didn’t and shouldn’t belong only in representations of direct speech.

**The use of numerals**

I would suggest that when numerals have to be used they should be written as follows.

Dates should be written in the order of day, month and year as in 9 March 1935.

Numerals, apart from dates, that can be expressed in one or two words should be written in words, as in one, two and a half, twelve, twenty-four, three hundred, five thousand, ninety-six million.

Numerals that cannot be so expressed should be given in figures, as in 1,234 and 567,890.
When you write a letter you create an extension of yourself that reveals a good deal about you.

Neatness and clarity are as important in a letter as they are in any other form of writing.

Business letters

If the letter is an application for a job or an interview you should take particular care with the appearance of your letter. In stationery (as in most things) the plainest is the best: crisp white paper and dark ink have few rivals. Avoid, if you can, those minute sheets of paper that have only enough room for the briefest of notes. Within reason the wider the margins (sides, top and bottom) the better. Cramped margins have a mean look about them.

Make sure before you begin to write that you have made a note of any reference symbols that you need to use in your letter.

On page 141 you will find an example of a business letter showing how it should be set out.

The first line of your letter should note any letter received from the firm on the subject of your present letter, and contain any reference symbols that you are required to use. The bigger the firm the more need there is for you to be precise, so that your letter will not go astray.

State your business as briefly and clearly as you can.

If you enclose any document, send copies rather than original documents.
Dear Sir,

I wish to apply for the position of secretary advertised in The Age on Saturday, 30 October.

I enclose a copy of a reference from Pontings of Martin Place, Sydney; I was with them for three years as secretary to the Sales Manager.

Yours faithfully,

(Miss) Karen Read

Encl.
An illegible signature is an unnecessary nuisance. If your handwriting is incurably bad you would be wise to include your name in BLOCK CAPITALS below your signature in any letter that is handwritten.

The inclusion of the name and address of the firm or organisation to which you are writing is essential if you keep (as you should) a carbon copy of each business letter. Should a query arise you will have on one sheet of paper all the necessary information concerning the business.

On the envelope write the address of the firm exactly as it appears in your letter. Do not begin the address much more than half way above the centre of the envelope. Use the address that you have written in your letter as a guide to the space that it will occupy on the envelope.

On the back of the envelope write your name and address in full.

**Social letters**

The telephone has brought an end to much social letter writing, but there are times when a telephone call is not appropriate.

There is still a place for letters that convey thanks or sympathy or congratulations. A letter such as these need not be long; it is enough that it should be the expression of a sincere and kind thought, even though it may be contained in one sentence.

Begin with *Dear Mrs Turner* or *Dear Mary* according to how well you know the person, and end with *Yours sincerely* or *Yours* or the like. Your signature also should be suited to the degree of familiarity expressed in the letter. An example of a social letter is shown.

Address the envelope and write your name and address on the back of the envelope as for a business letter.
Dear Peter,

Thank you very much for having me to stay with you during the holidays. I had a marvellous time, although I fear that there was too much good food and not enough exercise.

With all good wishes to you and to your family,

Yours,

Val.
The following books will help you to fill in the outline that is sketched in this book:

*The Complete Plain Words* by Sir Ernest Gowers (published by Penguin Books) is clear and concise.

*Usage and Abusage* by Eric Partridge (published by Penguin Books) offers constructive advice.

*A Dictionary of Modern English Usage* by H. G. Fowler, revised by Sir Ernest Gowers (published by the Oxford University Press) is excellent for advanced students.

*Mind the Stop* by G. V. Carey (published by Cambridge University Press) is a brief guide to punctuation.

*What a Word!* by Sir Alan Herbert (published by Methuen) is an enjoyable, funny book on the use and misuse of words.

The following books were mentioned in the text:


Roget’s *Thesaurus* (The Penguin edition revised and abridged by Robert A. Dutch is a good introduction).
Abbreviations, 115, 138
Abstract nouns, 21
Active voice, 89
Adjective, 2, 48; demonstrative, 54; distributive, 55; possessive, 54
Adjectival clause, 110
Adjectival phrase, 110
Adverb, 4, 99; degrees of comparison, 101
Affect and effect, 97
Apostrophe, 122
Article, 3, 57
Auxiliary verbs, 74

Background material for compositions, 134
Brackets, 126
Business letters, 140

Capital letters, 115
Case, 11; objective (of nouns), 11, (or personal pronouns), 11, 31, (of relative pronouns), 33, 36; possessive (or nouns), 12, (of personal pronouns), 14, 33, (of relative pronouns), 33, 39; subjective (of nouns), 11, (of personal pronouns), 11, 31, (of relative pronouns), 33, 34
Clause, 18; adjectival, 109; adverbial, 110; noun, 108; principal, 18, 108; subordinate, 18, 108, 112
Colon, 117
Comma, 119

Common gender, 10
Common noun, 20
Common number, 28, 55
Comparison, degrees of: of adjectives, 49; of adverbs, 101
Composition, 134
Conditional mood, 72
Conjunction, 6, 106; co-ordinating, 106; subordinating, 107

Dash, 125
Degrees of comparison: of adjectives, 49; of adverbs, 101
Demonstrative: the use of this, 41
Demonstrative adjectives, 54
Demonstrative pronouns, 42
Dictionary, its importance and use, xi
Direct object, 63
disinterested and uninterested, 98
Distributive adjectives, 55
Distributive pronouns, 45

Effect and affect, 97
Emphatic pronouns, 43
Exclamation mark, 121

Feminine, 10
Fewer and less, 53
Figures of speech, 131
Full stop, 117

Gender, 9
Grammar, ix
Index

Hardly, 102
Hyphen, 125
Idiom, 128
Image, 131
Imperative mood, 87
Impersonal pronouns, 44
imply and infer, 97
Indefinite pronouns, 45
Indirect object, 63
Infinitive, 59
infer and imply, 97
Interested and disinterested, 98
Interjection, 6
Interrogative: adverbs, 102
Interrogative pronouns, 42
Interrogative verbs, 89
Intransitive, 60
Italic, 127

less and fewer, 53
Letter writing, 140
Library, its importance and use, 134
literally, 102

Masculine, 10
Metaphor, 131
Mood, 59; conditional, 72; imperative, 87; indicative, 68; subjunctive, 87

Negative, 91
Neuter, 10
Noun, 1, 20; abstract, 21; collective, 21; common, 20; of common number, 28; plural, 23; proper, 20; verbal, 93
Noun clause, 108
Noun phrase, 108

Number, 6; agreement, 7
Numerals, 139

Object, 60; direct, 63; indirect, 63
Objective case, 11; of nouns, 11; of personal pronouns, 11, 31; of relative pronouns, 33, 36

Paragraph, 136
Participle (verbal adjective), 95
Parts of speech in outline, 1
Passive voice, 89
Person, 8
Personal pronoun, 11, 31
Phrase, 17, 108; adjectival, 109; adverbial, 110; noun, 108
Planning of composition, 136
Plural, 7; of nouns, 23; of verbs, 80
Possessive, adjectives, 54; case, 12; (of nouns) 12; (of personal pronouns) 14, 33; (of relative pronouns) 33, 39
Predicate, 16, 62
Preposition, 5, 104, 105
Presentation of written work, 138, 140
Principal clause, 18, 108
Pronouns, 2, 31; demonstrative, 42; distributive, 45; emphatic, 43; impersonal, 44; indefinite, 45; interrogative, 42; personal, 11, 31; reflexive, 43; relative, 33
Proper nouns, 20
Punctuation, 117; apostrophe, 122; brackets, 126; colon, 117; comma, 119; dash, 125; exclamation mark, 121; full stop, 117; hyphen, 124; italic, 127; question mark, 121; quotation mark, 122; quotations (use of) 123; semi-colon, 118
Index

Quotation mark, 122
Quotations: use of, 123

Reading list, 144
Reflexive pronouns, 43
Relative pronouns, 33; objective case, 33, 36; possessive case, 33, 39; subjective case, 33, 34, 35, 40

scarcely and hardly, 102
Semi-colon, 118
Sentence, 15; simple, 16; complex, 18
Shades of meaning, 132
Simile, 131
Singular, 6
Social letters, 142
Subject, 16, 62
Subjective case, 11; of nouns, 11; of personal pronouns, 11, 31; of relative pronouns, 33, 34
Subjunctive mood, 87
Subordinate clause, 18, 108, 112
Subordinating conjunction, 107

Tense, 66, 78
Topics for composition, 135
Transitive verbs, 60

Verb, 3, 59; auxiliary, 74; infinitive, 59; interrogative, 89; intransitive, 60; mood, 59, (conditional) 72, (imperative) 87, (indicative) 68, (subjunctive) 87; principal parts, 79; transitive, 60
Verbal adjective (participle), 95
Verbal noun, 93
Voice, 89