THE ADVANCED LEARNER'S DICTIONARY OF CURRENT ENGLISH

 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$

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SECOND EDITION

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For this new edition I also wish to acknowledge my debt to the Delegates of the Clarendon Press for generous permission to make use of the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the list of words and quotations now being compiled for a new edition of the Oxford English Dictionary Supplement.

The task of revision has been almost entirely my responsibility. Professor Gatenby died in 1955. Mr Wakefield was fully occupied in educational work in Malaya until 1959. On his return to England he became ill, and died in 1962. I was, however, fortunate enough to have the help of Mrs M. Alden, who shared in the preparation of the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary. Mrs Alden gave the typescript a thorough scrutiny, and I gratefully acknowledge her valuable services.

I have also had the advantage of being able to use the work done by Mr E. C. Parnwell for the *English-Reader's Dictionary*, and am still further in his debt for checking the final proof of this new edition.

A. S. HORNBY

October 1962

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

This is a completely revised and reset edition of the Dictionary that was first published in Tokyo, under the title *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary*, for the Institute for Research in English Teaching¹ in 1942 and reprinted photographically by the Oxford University Press from 1948 onwards for publication outside Japan.

The Dictionary was written in the years 1937–40, when the three compilers were teaching in Japan. The new edition has made it possible to bring the Dictionary up-to-date and to increase considerably the number of entries. Since the first edition appeared two smaller dictionaries have been compiled for foreign learners of the English language: The Progressive English Dictionary and An English-Reader's Dictionary (both by A. S. Hornby and E. C. Parnwell). Because these two books are designed for learners in the earlier stages of study, this new edition has been adapted to meet more directly the special requirements of advanced students and teachers of English.

A large number of new words has entered the language since 1940. Many words that occur in the first edition are now used in new senses and enter into new compounds. The compilers, aware of the wide range of books, from publishing houses in the U.S.A. besides those in Great Britain, that are likely to be read by advanced students of English, have readily admitted new words and phrases.

The words and phrases given in this Dictionary are those that are likely to be needed by persons who use English for general purposes. This is not a Dictionary of 'Modern English' if this term is used in its usual accepted sense, English since the time of Chaucer. The student of Chaucer will need specially annotated editions. It does not include all the words that occur in Shakespeare's plays. For these, too, annotated editions are needed.

This is a Dictionary of Current or Contemporary English, the kind of English used in the twentieth century by well-educated persons in Great Britain and the U.S.A. It includes also certain archaic words that are likely to be met with in literary, especially poetic, contexts. It admits scientific and technical words that occur commonly in ordinary periodicals, but not those that rarely

¹ Now the Institute for Research in Language Teaching.

occur outside advanced textbooks and specialist periodicals. Colloquial and slang words and phrases are included if they commonly occur in modern fiction and drama. Warnings about these will be found in the Notes on the Use of the Dictionary. Foreign words and phrases widely adopted by English writers are also recorded, together with common Latin phrases.

Because many users of this Dictionary are likely to welcome help in the composition of English, the guidance on syntax, in the form of references to verb patterns, has been reprinted in the new edition. Verb entries are supplied with references to the 25 verb patterns set out in the Notes. Students who would like fuller information on these and on other questions of syntax and usage are referred to A Guide to Patterns and Usage (O.U.P.). The references to verb patterns are, in most cases, followed by illustrative phrases and sentences that show the patterns in use.

Definitions have been made as simple as possible consistently with accuracy. Many words defy definition in simple terms. The commonest structural words (for example, the finites of be and have, the articles, such prepositions as up, down, in, at, by, and for) are dealt with by the provision of very numerous examples. If the user of the book is in doubt about the correct preposition or adverbial particle to use with a noun or verb, he should, in general, turn to the noun or verb entry itself, not to the entries for the prepositions or adverbial particles which he may consider likely or possible. If, for example, he needs to use the noun duty, he will, at duty, find the examples 'your duty to your parents', 'go on duty' and 'come off duty', 'in duty bound', and 'do duty for'.

This Dictionary contains about 1,000 illustrations and diagrams. In the Appendixes there are other drawings and diagrams for sport and music, and for sailing-ships, aircraft, and motor-cars. Anyone reading, for example, the novels of Conrad or other authors concerned with the sea, will meet with many technical words connected with sails and rigging. It would be uneconomical of space to enter all such words in the body of the Dictionary. Some of them are not easily defined, whereas a drawing is simple to understand. Information on weights and measures and on ranks in the Armed Forces is also given in the Appendixes.

Conventional or traditional grammatical terminology is far from satisfactory. There is no agreement among grammarians on how words should be named as parts of speech. In this Dictionary the terms are, for the most part, those sanctioned by usage and likely to be familiar to readers. In a few cases terms used in the first edition, introduced by Dr. H. E. Palmer, first Director of the

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Institute for Research in English Teaching, have been retained. The terms anomalous finite and adverbial particle have been accepted by many writers on grammar. They are used in this Dictionary and are explained in the Notes (pp. ix-xiv).

NOTES ON THE USE OF THE DICTIONARY

PRINTING CONVENTIONS

COMPILERS and printers of a dictionary face the difficulty of setting out a mass of detailed text economically and clearly. If they use too many contractions and symbols the dictionary may prove to be too complicated for easy use; if they are too extravagant of space the dictionary may become too large and expensive. A balance has to be struck between these two considerations. The user of this Dictionary will be helped to grasp its simple printing conventions if he will study the following explanations.

1. Headwords and Derivatives

A headword and its derivatives are printed in bold roman type, thus: am pli fy, am pli fi ca tion, am pli fi er

Words of more than one syllable have spaces to indicate the separate syllables. If a headword is written and printed with a hyphen, the hyphen is printed in the headword, as riff-raff. When a headword functions as more than one part of speech and when a single article covering these would be too long, each is given a separate entry and each such headword is numbered (e.g. cover, v. & n.). Similarly, words with the same spelling but unrelated in meaning are treated in separate articles under numbered headwords, thus:

1row, 2row, 3row (see p. 863 of this Dictionary).

If derivatives can be dealt with briefly (e.g. most adverbs in -ly after the adjective) they are not entered as headwords. If, however, such a word has a meaning not closely related to the word to which a suffix is added (e.g. hardly meaning 'scarcely'), it is entered as a headword.

2. Part of Speech

This is printed in bold italic type, thus: v.t. & i. See the List of Abbreviations, pp. xxix-xxx.

3. The tilde (~)

When a headword of more than three letters is repeated in the article, for example in illustrative phrases, it is usually represented by a tilde to save space. The tilde is not used in derivatives (when printed in bold roman type) if this would be misleading for syllable division. Thus, in the article on adopt, the derivatives adoption and adoptive (with syllable division a dop tion and adoptive) are printed in full, without the tilde, though the forms with the tilde (\sigmains ion and \sigmains ive) are used in the examples.

4. Pronunciation

The pronunciation of each headword (see the Key to Pronunciation on pp. xxxi-xxxii) is printed immediately after it in square brackets. If, in derivatives or compounds, there is a change in the position of the stress that causes a change in the pronunciation, the pronunciations are given; otherwise they are not. Thus:

a dore [o'do:*, o'doo*], a do ra tion [awdo'reifon].

5. Definitions

These, and also any explanation or paraphrase of any example or usage, appear in ordinary (roman) type.

6. Illustrative Phrases and Sentences

These are printed in ordinary italic type. If an explanation or paraphrase of a part of such a phrase or sentence occurs within the phrase or sentence it is enclosed in parentheses; if it follows, it is preceded by a comma and parentheses are not used.

7. Compounds

These, when they do not appear as headwords, are printed within the entry in bold italic type, with or without the tilde, as may be appropriate. Thus, under back, the following, among others, appear:

~-bencher, ~-blocks, ~bone, ~ground

In such compounds the hyphen is printed if it is normally used. If the tilde is joined to the second element of the compound (as in ~bone), this indicates that a hyphen is not normally used. In the use of hyphens, for which there is seldom an invariable rule, this Dictionary usually follows the Concise Oxford Dictionary.

8. Semantic Varieties

The various senses of a headword are marked off by numerals in bold roman type: (1, 2, 3, etc.). If a compound, phrase, or phrasal verb is used in more than one sense, each is introduced by a letter of the alphabet in italic type within parentheses, thus: (a), (b), (c).

9. Structural Words

Important structural words (for example, some, any, all, one, on, off, only) are often best dealt with by means of illustrative phrases and sentences. Many of them function as more than one part of speech.

Each part of speech is, in such cases, preceded by a roman numeral in bold type, thus:

all [0:1] adj., pron., adv., & n. I. adj.... II. pron.... III. adv.....
IV. n.

These may be further divided by the use of arabic numerals in bold type.

10. Idiomatic word groups, or collocations

These are printed in bold italic type, thus: (in the article on all) on all fours, all in all, once (and) for all; (in the article on answer) ~ the door (the bell), ~ (sb.) back. A parenthesis in such entries indicates an alternative usage. Thus, the entry (under back, adv.) go ~ upon (from) one's word indicates that go back upon one's word and go back from one's word are both in use.

11. Asterisks

Asterisks refer the user to entries elsewhere. Thus, under take, def. 28, there are references to numerous collocations of take and a noun:

~ the *chair, ~ *pains, ~ *heart, ~ (holy) *orders.

SPELLINGS

Alternative spelling forms that are commonly used in Great Britain are given. Thus tire and silvan are entered, but are dealt with at tyre and sylvan. Alternative spelling forms usual in the U.S.A. are given. Thus, theatre (U.S.A. theater); honour (U.S.A. honor). In dealing with verbs of which the final consonant may be doubled, both British and American usage is indicated. Thus travel (-ll. U.S.A. also -l-), showing that British usage is travelled, traveller, and U.S.A. usage traveled, traveler.

When, in the comparative and superlative of adjectives and adverbs in -y, ier and iest are used, this is indicated. Thus, lively (-ier, -iest). Such indications

should not be taken as rules, however. The use of *more* and *most* is often equally possible, the choice depending upon sentence rhythm and other factors.

STYLISTIC VALUES

The foreign student of English often has difficulty in judging the stylistic values of words. It would be helpful to indicate these values in the Dictionary. Unfortunately it is almost impossible to do this. It is simple in many cases to label a word as slang, archaic, literary, or poetic, but there are many borderline cases. Is lousy, for example, an ordinary colloquial word, safe to use in conversation in polite circles, or should it be marked slang? It has been ruled by the Speaker of the House of Commons as 'unparliamentary'. Many words that are seldom used in conversation by the majority of English people are commonly used in speech by the well-educated classes. They might be labelled 'high-level colloquial'. But he would be a rash person who dared to make such distinctions,

Indications in this Dictionary, therefore, are given only when stylistic values can be stated without much doubt. Slang uses are given. The foreign student of English is advised to avoid the use of slang. He needs a recognition knowledge of these words and phrases, for he may hear them, and he will meet them in fiction and drama. But slang is usually the possession of a class. There is school-boy slang, army slang, technical jargon. Nothing more quickly dates than slang. To use slang that is out of date, or to use it in a wrong situation, is to betray oneself at once as one to whom English is still an unfamiliar element.

A small number of words in this Dictionary are marked 'taboo'. This is a warning that they should in no circumstances be used, even though they may be encountered in print. Other words and phrases are marked by the sign A, which is, to pedestrians and drivers of vehicles, a warning of danger and the need for caution. Any word or phrase marked by this sign should also be avoided. The sign is a warning that the word or phrase is either vulgar or incorrect. Ain't occurs in print, but its use is normally confined to dialect or to the illiterate and uneducated. Words marked liter. (for literary) or poet. (for poetic) are better avoided in conversation. Lonely and sad are preferable to forlorn; enemy is preferable to foe, and soldier or fighter to warrior.

PRONUNCIATION AND STRESS

The symbols used in this Dictionary for indicating pronunciation are those of the International Phonetic Association and the transcription is a broad one, as used by Professor Daniel Jones in his English Pronouncing Dictionary. Only the most commonly used variants are given. A key to the symbols is given on pp. xxxi-xxxii. Where variants are in one syllable only, they are shown thus: threnody ['θri:nadi, 'θren-]. This indicates that the two pronunciations ['θri:nedi] and ['θrenedi] are used. If usage in the U.S.A. differs considerably from British usage, the two pronunciations are given (as for advertisement [ad've:tisment, (U.S.A.) 'gd:taizment], fertile ['fe:tail, (U.S.A.) 'fe:til].

For foreign words and phrases two pronunciations are, in many cases, given. The first is an anglicized pronunciation and the second the pronunciation likely to be heard from careful British speakers who know how the words are pronounced by native speakers of the language. If no anglicized pronunciation is given, this means that there is no accepted anglicized pronunciation for the word or phrase. The symbols used for non-English sounds are printed with the key on p. xxxii.

Stress marks and notes on their use will also be found in this key.

TERMINOLOGY

Anomalous Verbs

Some of the verb entries in this Dictionary are followed by anom. fin., short for anomalous finite. The anomalous verbs and their finites are set out in the table below.

	Non-finite forms			Finite	forms
	Infinitive	Present Participle	$Past \ Participle$	Present Tense	Past Tense
1	be	being	been	am, is, are	was, were
2	have	having	had	have, has	had
3	do	doing	done	do, does	did
4			-	shall	should
5				will	would
6	_		_	can	could
7	_			may	might
8			_	must	_
9		_	_	ought	
10	_			need	
11			-	dare	
12		-		l —	used

The 24 finite forms on the right-hand side of this table are important in English syntax. The grammar mechanisms of Affirmation, Negation, and Interrogation cannot clearly be explained without reference to them.

Negative

The negative sentence is made by placing the adverb not after the anomalous finite.

Thus, I am $\to I$ am not; you can \to you cannot; they ought \to they ought not. If an affirmative sentence contains no anomalous finite, the non-anomalous finite must first be replaced by using the corresponding expanded tense, thus introducing do, does, or did (anomalous finites).

Thus, $I go \rightarrow I do go \rightarrow I do not go$; he went \rightarrow he did $go \rightarrow$ he did not go.

Interrogative

The chief mechanism for expressing the formal interrogative in modern English (and in many European languages) is inversion of subject and finite.

Thus, I am \rightarrow am I? you ought \rightarrow ought you? they must \rightarrow must they?

In modern English only the anomalous finites are normally inverted with the subject to form the interrogative. (Went you is archaic or biblical, and such constructions as 'Yes', said he are exceptional.) If an affirmative sentence contains no anomalous finite, the procedure described above for the negative is followed.

Thus, he comes \rightarrow he does come \rightarrow does he come? they came \rightarrow they did come \rightarrow did they come?

Other examples of subject and finite inversion (always with one of the 24 anomalous finites) may be seen in sentences which contain a front-shifted adverbial.

E.g. Not only did they expect us but . . .

In no other way can the matter be explained. Never before have I heard such fine singing. The 24 anomalous finites are used to avoid repetition. This is seen clearly in answers to questions requiring a yes or no in the answer, and answers in which the subject is the essential part.

E.g. Have you read that book? Yes, I have. (Instead of have read that book.) Shall you be seeing him soon? Yes, I shall. (Instead of shall be seeing him soon.)

Who discovered America? Columbus did. (Instead of discovered America.)

The 24 anomalous finites are used in other ways, e.g.

(a) In Disjunctive Questions:

You can't come, can you? You can come, can't you? He arrived late, didn't he?

(b) In constructions expressing also and also not: I can go there and so can you.

I went there and so did you.

I can't go; nor can you.

I didn't go; nor did you.

(c) In comments which confirm or contradict: You told us that yesterday. Oh, yes, so I did! Why didn't you tell us that yesterday? But I did!

For a further description of the functions of these finites, the reader may consult A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English, pp. 1-15.

Adverbial Particles

The term adverbial particle is used to designate an adverb of a particular class differing in many ways from other adverbs. In most cases these adverbs (e.g. about, by, down, in, off, on, over, round, through, up) are also used as prepositions.

They are important because they enter into combinations with verbs to form collocations such as blow up (explode), leave off (stop), go on (continue), give in (yield), give up (abandon), make out (understand).

Another important feature of the adverbial particles is their position in the sentence. The following points should be well known to all learners who wish to write good English.

- When there is no direct object in the sentence, the adverbial particle follows the verb immediately.
 - E.g. Come in. Do not give up, whatever happens.
- When there is a direct object which is a personal pronoun, the adverbial particle is placed after, not before, the personal pronoun.
 - E.g. I cannot make it out. Put them on. Throw him out.
- 3. When there is a direct object which is not a personal pronoun, the adverbial particle may be placed either before or after the direct object.

E.g. Put your coat on. He put on his coat.

In sentences where the direct object is long (e.g. when it is a noun clause), it is preferable to place the adverbial particle with the verb, and before the direct object.

E.g. He gave away every book that he possessed. (Cf. He gave his books away.)

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4. The adverbial particles may be placed at the beginning of exclamatory sentences.

E.g. In you go! Away they went! Off went John!

Note that in sentences of this kind subject and verb are inverted if the subject is a noun but not inverted if the subject is a personal pronoun.

5. The adverbial particles are compounded with the preposition with in verbless exclamations.

E.g. Down with the tyrant! Up with the Republic!
Off with his head! Away with him!

Nouns: Singular and Plural

There are some language problems which are adequately treated neither in dictionaries nor in the majority of textbooks on grammar. For those to whom English is a foreign language the problem of whether (and when) a noun may be used in the plural is often difficult. In some languages little or no distinction is made between singular and plural. In other languages nouns that may have plural forms (as French nouvelles) are, in English, used only in the singular (as English news).

In order to help the student of English to avoid such errors as interesting informations, useful advices, an interesting news, a valuable furniture, indications are supplied in this Dictionary with most noun entries. These show which nouns, and which semantic varieties of nouns, may be used in the plural, and which may not, except with a change or extension of meaning. If a noun entry is followed by [C], or if [C] is placed after one of the numerals marking semantic varieties, it is a noun standing for something that may be counted. It may, therefore, be used with the indefinite article, or with many, numerals, and the plural form. If [U] is used, the noun stands for something (a material, quality, abstraction, etc.) that cannot be counted, though it may be measured. Such a noun is not normally used with the indefinite article and has no plural form.

Difficulty may be taken as an example. Definition 1 is marked [U] and there are examples to illustrate its use: with difficulty; without any (much) difficulty. Definition 2 is marked [C], with examples of the plural: be in difficulties; the difficulties of Greek syntax.

Verb Patterns

The verb patterns in this Dictionary supply information concerning syntax. They enable the learner to use verbs in the ways that are in accordance with correct usage. If the learner will spend a few hours studying these verb patterns; he will be able to avoid numerous errors.

One who is learning English as a foreign language is apt to form sentences by analogy. This habit may at times lead him into error. He sees sentences of the type, 'Please tell me the meaning' or 'Please show me the way' (i.e. with an indirect object followed by a direct object). By analogy he makes the incorrect sentence 'Please explain me the meaning'. He sees the sentences 'I intend to come', 'I propose to come', and 'I want to come', and by analogy he makes the sentence 'I suggest to come' (instead of 'I suggest that I should come'). He sees such sentences as 'I asked him to come', 'I told him to come', and 'I wanted him to come' and by analogy he makes the sentences 'I proposed him to come' and 'I suggested him to come' (instead of 'I proposed (suggested) that he

should come'). He notes that 'He began to talk about the matter' means almost the same as 'He began talking about the matter' and concludes, wrongly, that 'He stopped to talk about the matter' means the same as 'He stopped talking about the matter'. Such misapprehensions are natural. The ordinary grammar book and dictionary usually fail to supply adequate information on such points. The patterns below, with the numerical indications supplied with the verb entries (thus VP 1, 10, 18, 21, 23), do give guidance.

There are variations of these patterns, These are described in detail in A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English, pp. 15-82.

Summary of Verb Patterns

Patterns 1 to 19 indicate what are usually called transitive uses of verbs. Patterns 20 to 25 indicate what are usually called intransitive uses.

The term conjunctive is used in this list for the interrogative adverbs and pronouns (how, what, when, where, who, whom, whose, why) and the conjunctions whether and if (when this is used for whether) when they introduce dependent clauses or infinitive phrases.

VP 1 . . . Vb × Direct Object

VP 2 . . . Vb \times (not) to \times Infinitive, etc.

VP 3... Vb \times Noun or Pronoun \times (not) to \times Infinitive, etc.

 $VP = 4 \dots Vb \times Noun \text{ or Pronoun} \times (to be) \times Complement$ VP 5... Vb × Noun or Pronoun × Infinitive, etc.

VP 6... Vb × Noun or Pronoun × Present Participle

VP 7 . . . Vb × Object × Adjective

VP 8 . . . Vb × Object × Noun VP 9 . . . Vb × Object × Past Participle

VP 10 . . . Vb × Object × Adverb or Adverbial Phrase, etc.

VP 11 . . . Vb × that-clause

VP 12 . . . Vb × Noun or Pronoun × that-clause

VP 13 . . . Vb × Conjunctive × to × Infinitive, etc.

VP 14 . . . Vb × Noun or Pronoun × Conjunctive × to × Infinitive, etc.

VP 15 . . . Vb × Conjunctive × Clause

 $VP 16 \dots Vb \times Noun or Pronoun \times Conjunctive \times Clause$

VP 17 . . . Vb × Gerund, etc.

VP 18 . . . Vb × Direct Object × Preposition × Prepositional Object

VP 19 . . . Vb × Indirect Object × Direct Object

VP 20 . . . Vb × (for) × Complement of Distance, Time, Price, etc.

VP 21 . . . Vb alone VP 22 . . . Vb×Predicative

VP 23 . . . Vb × Adverbial Adjunct

VP 24 . . . Vb × Preposition × Prepositional Object

VP 25 . . . $Vb \times to \times Infinitive$

Verb Pattern 1

Verbs marked VP 1 may be used with a simple direct object which is a noun or pronoun (cf. VP 17 for the use of gerunds).

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Direct Object
1	He cut	his finger.
2	We have already had	breakfast.
3	He does not like	cold weather.
4	We always do	that.
5	I want	six.
6	We lit	a fire.
7	They were throwing	stones.
8	A baby cannot dress	itself.
9	He laughed	a merry laugh.
10	She smiled	her thanks.
11	I dug	a hole.

Verb Pattern 2

Verbs marked VP 2 may be followed by (not) to and an Infinitive. The $to \times$ Infinitive is usually regarded as the object of the verb. For examples of intransitive verbs (e.g. be, happen, come) followed by $to \times$ Infinitive see VP 25. Cf. VP 17B.

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	$(not) \times to \times Infinitive, etc.$
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	He wants I have promised They decided Did you remember* He agreed Have you Would you care He pretended	to go. to help them. not to go. to shut the windows? to pay for it. to go to school today? to go for a walk? not to see me.

^{*} See remember in VP 17A, Group A, example 3.

Verb Pattern 3

Verbs marked VP 3 may be followed by a noun or pronoun and by (not) to and an infinitive. (Cf. VP 10 for sentences in which the $to \times infinitive$ is short for in order $to \times infinitive$.)

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Noun or Pronoun	(not) to × Infinitive
1 2 3 4 5	He wants I asked I told Please help* He likes	me him the servant me his wife	to be early. not to do it. to open the window. to carry this box. to dress well.
6 7 8 9	Your teacher expects I warned He allowed They have never known*	you him the soldiers him	to work hard. not to be late. to take him prisoner. to behave so badly.

^{*} Cf. examples 6 and 4 in VP 5.

Note the passive construction:

- 3. The servant was told to open the window.
- 7. He was warned not to be late.

Verb Pattern 4

Verbs marked VP 4 may be followed by a noun or pronoun, to be (often omitted), and a complement. Sentences in VP 4 may also be constructed in VP 11.

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Noun or Pronoun	(to be)	Complement
$\frac{1}{2}$	They believed Do you consider	him her	(to be)	innocent. honest?
3	I consider	it	(to be)	a shame.
4	Tom's teacher thinks	him	(to be)	the cleverest boy in the
5	We proved	him	(to be)	wrong.

Note the passive construction:

- 1. He was believed (to be) innocent.
- 2. Is she considered (to be) honest?

Note the same sentences in VP II:

- 1. They believed (that) he was innocent.
- 2. Do you consider (that) she is honest?

Verb Pattern 5

Verbs marked VP 5 are used in a way similar to that in which verbs marked VP 3 are used but with the important difference that to is omitted before the infinitive. (Cf. Allow me to go. Let me go.) Those verbs in this pattern which are called verbs of perception (i.e. verbs of seeing, hearing, etc.) may also be used in VP 6.

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Noun or Pronoun	Infinitive, etc.
1 2	I made Let	him	do it.
3	We must not let	me	go!
4		the matter	rest here.
	They have never known*	him	behave so badly.
5	I will have	him	do the work.
6	Will you help*	me	carry this box?
7	Would you have	me	believe that?
8	I heard	him	come in.
9	We saw	them	go out.
10	They felt	the house	shake.
11	Watch	me	do it.
12	Did anyone notice	the thief	leave the house?

* Cf. examples 9 and 4 in VP 3.

Note the passive construction:

- 1. He was made to do it.
- 4. He has never been known to behave so badly.

9. They were seen to go out.

In examples 8 to 12, VP 6 might also be used. 'I saw him go out' means 'He went out and I saw him' and 'I saw him going out' means 'He was going out when I saw him'

Verb Pattern 6

Verbs marked VP 6 may be followed by a noun or a pronoun and a present participle. In the case of verbs of perception VP 5 may also be used. (See the note on examples 8 to 12 above.)

	Subject imes Verb	Noun or Pronoun	Present Participle
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	He kept I found They left I heard We watched Do you feel Can you smell I saw	me him me him the train the house something him	waiting. working at his desk. standing outside. giving orders. leaving the station. shaking? burning? running off.

Note the passive construction:

- 1. I was kept waiting.
- 4. He was heard giving orders.

Verb Pattern 7

Verbs marked VP 7 may be followed by an object and an object complement which is an adjective.

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Object	Adjective
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	Don't get The sun keeps Get Don't make I found We painted They set Can you push The cold weather turned He wished	your clothes us yourself yourself the box the door the prisoners the door the leaves himself	dirty. warm. ready. uneasy. empty. green. free. open? red. dead.

Note the passive construction:

- 5. The box was found empty.
- 6. The door was painted green.
- 7. The prisoners were set free.

Verb Pattern 8

Verbs marked VP 8 may be followed by an object and an object complement which is a noun.

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Object	Noun
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	They elected The people crowned They chose We call They named They made They called	him Richard Mr Smith the dog their son Newton them	king. king. chairman. 'Spot'. Henry. President of the Royal Society. cowards.

Note the passive construction:

- 1. He was elected king.
- Newton was made President of the Royal Society.

Verb Pattern 9

Verbs marked VP 9 may be followed by an object and a past participle. Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Object	Past Participle
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	You must get Where did you have She had Have you ever heard His actions made King Charles I had The soldier had	your hair them a new dress Italian him his head two horses	cut. printed? made. spoken? respected. cut off. shot under him.

Note that in this pattern, the action or state named by the past participle may or may not be in accordance with the will of the subject.

Verb Pattern 10

Verbs marked VP 10 may be followed by an object and an adverb or an adverbial phrase (including adverbial infinitives meaning in order to...). See also the notes on the adverbial particles (pp. xiii-xiv) for the alternative position of the particle (preceding the object).

Examples:

	Subject imes Verb	Object	Adverb, Adverb Phrase, etc.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Put He took He has given Mr Smith showed We employed They troat He brought He took They led I don't know	it his hat it me her their sister his brother the medicine me	here. off. away. to the door. as a cook. as if she were only a servant. to see me. in order to get well. to believe that there was no danger. to speak to.