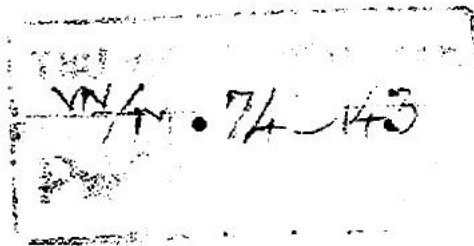


A.J THOMSON - A.V MARTINET

VŨ MẠNH TƯỜNG
(Biên soạn và Giới thiệu)

NGỮ PHÁP TIẾNG ANH THỰC HÀNH

A Practical English Grammar



NHÀ XUẤT BẢN THANH NIÊN

BỒI DƯỠNG TOÁN - LÝ - HÓA CẤP 2+3 1000B TRẦN HƯNG ĐẠO TP. QUY NHƠN

LỜI GIỚI THIỆU

Cuốn "Ngữ pháp tiếng Anh thực hành" được biên soạn dựa theo cuốn "A practical English Grammar" của hai tác giả người Anh. A.J Thomsom và A.V. Martinet.

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Đây là cuốn sách rất cần thiết cho những ai đang học và sử dụng tiếng Anh nhất là học sinh, sinh viên. Nó sẽ giúp các bạn củng cố và hiểu sâu hơn các cấu trúc ngôn ngữ tiếng Anh. Hy vọng, cuốn sách sẽ bổ ích cho các bạn.

Chúc các bạn học thành công !

VŨ MẠNH TƯỜNG

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1: MẠO TỪ (Articles)

vowel - nguyên âm

1. Mạo từ không xác định : a/an (The indefinite article : a/an)

The form a is used before a word beginning with a consonant, or a vowel with a consonant sound:

a man a hat a university a European
a one-way street

The form an is used before words beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or words beginning with a mute h:

an apple an island an uncle
an egg an onion an hour

or individual letters spoken with a vowel sound:

an L-plate an MP an SOS an 'x'

a/an is the same for all genders: (a/an có hình-thức giống nhau tất cả các giới)

a man a woman an actor an actress a table

2. Cách dùng mạo từ không xác định.

(Use of a/an)

a/an is used: (a/an được dùng)

- A Before a singular noun which is countable (i.e. of which there is more than one) when it is mentioned for the first time and represents no particular person or thing:
I need a visa. They live in a flat. He bought an ice-cream.
- B Before a singular countable noun which is used as an example of a class of things:
A car must be insured = All cars/Any car must be insured. A child needs love = All children need/Any child needs love.
- C With a noun complement. This includes names of professions:
It was an earthquake. She'll be a dancer. He is an actor.
- D In certain expressions of quantity:
a lot of a couple
a great many a dozen (but one dozen is also possible)
a great deal of
- E With certain numbers:
a hundred a thousand

Before half when half follows a whole number:

$1\frac{1}{2}$ kilos = *one and a half kilos or a kilo and an half*

But $\frac{1}{2}$ kg = *half a kilo* (no a before half), though a + half +

noun is sometimes possible:

a half-holiday a half-portion a half-share

With $\frac{1}{3}$; $\frac{1}{4}$; $\frac{1}{5}$ etc. a is usual: *a third, a quarter* etc., but one is also possible.

F In expressions of price, speed, ratio etc.:

*5p a kilo £1 a metre sixty
kilometres an hour*

10p a dozen four times a day

(Here a/an = per.)

G In exclamations before singular,
countable nouns:

*Such a long queue! What a pretty girl! But
Such long queues! What pretty girls!*

(Plural nouns, so no article.)

H a can be placed before Mr/Mrs/Miss + surname:

a Mr Smith a Mrs Smith a Miss Smith

a Mr Smith means 'a man called Smith' and implies that he is a stranger to the speaker. *Mr Smith*, without a, implies that the speaker knows Mr Smith or knows of his existence.

(For the difference between a/an and one. For a few and a little.)

3. Lược bỏ Mạo từ không xác định.

(Omission of a/an)

a/an is omitted: (*a/an được lược bỏ*)

A Before plural nouns.

(*Đứng trước danh từ số nhiều*)

a/an has no plural form. So the plural of *a dog* is *dogs*, and of *an egg* is *eggs*.

B Before uncountable nouns (*Đứng trước danh từ không đếm được*)

C Before names of meals, except when these are preceded by an adjective: (*Đứng trước tên gọi các bữa ăn, trừ trường hợp có tính từ đứng trước các tên gọi*).

We have breakfast at eight.

He gave us a good breakfast.

The article is also used when it is a special meal given to celebrate something or in someone's honour:

I was invited to dinner (at their house, in the ordinary way) but

I was invited to a dinner given to welcome the new ambassador.

4. Mạo từ không xác định a/an và Đại từ One

(a/an and one)

A **a/an** and **one** (adjective) (*a/an và one*)

1 When counting or measuring time, distance, weight etc. can use either **a/an** or **one** for the singular:

£1 = a/one pound

£1,000,000 = a/one million pounds

But note that in *The rent is £100 a week* the **a** before **w** is not replaceable by **one**.

In other types of statement **a/an** and **one** are not interchangeable, because **one** + noun normally means 'only/not more than one' and **a/an** does not mean this:

A shotgun is no good.

(It is the wrong sort of thing.)

One shotgun is no good.

(I need two or three.)

2 Special uses of **one**

(a) **one** (adjective/pronoun) used with **another/others**:

One (boy) wanted to read, another/others wanted to watch TV.

One day he wanted his lunch early, another day he wanted it late.

- (b) **one** can be used before *day/week/month/year/summer/winter* etc.-or before the name of the day or month to denote a particular time when something happened:

One night there was a terrible storm.

One winter the snow fell early.

One day a telegram arrived.

- (c) **one day** can also be used to mean 'at some future date':

One day you'll be sorry you treated him so badly.

(Some day would also be possible.)

(For one and you.)

- B **a/an and one** (pronoun) (*a/an và one*)

one is the pronoun equivalent of **a/an**:

Did you get a ticket? - Yes, I managed to get one.

The plural of **one** used in this way is **some**:

Did you get tickets? - Yes, I managed to get some.

5 **A little/ A few (một ít, một vài) và little/few (ít/vài).**

(a little/a few and little/few)

(Tính từ đứng trước danh từ không đếm được)

- A **a little/little** (adjectives) are used before uncountable nouns:

a little salt/little salt

a few/few (adjectives) are used before plural nouns:

a few people/few people

All four forms can also be used as pronouns, either alone or with of:

Sugar? - A little, please.

Only a few of these are any good.

B a little, a few (adjectives and pronouns) (tính từ và đại từ)
a little is a small amount, or what the speaker considers a small amount. **a few** is a small number, or what the speaker considers a small number.

only placed before **a little/a few** emphasizes that the number or amount really is small in the speaker's opinion:

Only a few of our customers have accounts.

But **quite** placed before **a few** increases the number considerably:

I have quite a few books on art. (quite a lot of books)

C little and few (adjectives and pronouns) (tính từ và đại từ)
little and **few** denote scarcity or lack and have almost the force of a negative:

There was little time for consultation.

Little is known about the side-effects of this drug.

Few towns have such splendid trees.

This use of **little** and **few** is mainly confined to written English (probably because in conversation **little** and **few** might easily be mistaken for **a little/a few**). In conversation, therefore, **little** and **few** are normally replaced by **hardly any**. A negative verb + **much/many** is also possible:

We saw little = We saw hardly anything/We didn't see much.

Tourists come here but few stay overnight =

Tourists come here but hardly any stay overnight.

But **little** and **few** can be used more freely when they are qualified by *so, very, too, extremely, comparatively, relatively* etc....

fewer (comparative) can also be used more freely.

I'm unwilling to try a drug I know so little about.

They have too many technicians, we have too few.

There are fewer butterflies every year.

D **a little/little** (adverbs) (Trạng từ)

1 **a little** can be used: (có thể được dùng)

(a) with verbs: *It rained a little during the night.*

They grumbled a little about having to wait.

(b) with 'unfavourable' adjectives and adverbs:

a little anxious *a little unwillingly*

a little annoyed *a little impatiently*

(c) with comparative adjectives or adverbs:

The paper should be a little thicker.

Can't you walk a little faster?

rather could replace **a little** in (b) and can also be used before comparatives, though **a little** is more usual.

In colloquial English **a bit** could be used instead of **a little** in all the above examples.

2 **little** is used chiefly with **better** or **more** in fairly formal style:

(Dùng chủ yếu với **better** hay **more** trong kiểu câu chính thức trang trọng)

His second suggestion was little (= not much) better than his first.

He was little (= not much) more than a child when his father died.

It can also, in formal English, be placed before certain verbs, for example. *expect, know, suspect, think*:

He little expected to find himself in prison.

He little thought that one day...

Note also the adjectives *little-known* and *little-used*:

a little-known painter

a little-used footpath

6. Mạo từ xác định : The (the definite article): The

A Hình thức (form)

the is the same for singular and plural and for all genders:

the boy the girl the day
the boys the girls the days

B Cách dùng mạo từ xác định:

(The definite article is used:)

- 1 When the object or group of objects is unique or considered to be unique:

the earth the sea the sky the equator
the stars

- 2 Before a noun which has become definite as a result of being mentioned a second time:

His car struck a tree; you can still see the mark on the tree.

- 3 Before a noun made definite by the addition of a phrase or clause:

the girl in blue the man with the banner
the boy that I met the place where I met him

- 4 Before a noun which by reason of locality can represent only one particular thing:

Ann is in the garden. (the garden of this house)

Please pass the wine. (the wine on the table)

Similarly: *the postman* (the one who comes to us), *the car* (our car), *the newspaper* (the one we read).

- 5 Before superlatives and first, second etc. used as adjectives or pronouns, and only:

the first (week) the best day the only way

C **the** + singular noun can represent a class of animals or things:

(The + danh từ số ít tượng trưng cho một nhóm con vật, hoặc đồ vật)

The whale is in danger of becoming extinct.

The deep-freeze has made life easier for housewives.

But *man*, used to represent the human race, has no article:

If oil supplies run out, man may have to fall back on the horse.

the can be used before a member of a certain group of people:

The small shopkeeper is finding life increasingly difficult.

the + singular noun as used above takes a singular verb. The pronoun is **he**, **she** or **it**:

The first-class traveller pays more so he expects some comfort.

D **the** + adjective represents a class of persons:

(The + tính từ tượng trưng cho một lớp người)

the old = old people in general

E **the** is used before certain proper names of seas, rivers, groups of islands, chains of mountains, plural names of countries, deserts, regions:

(The đứng trước danh từ riêng nhất định chỉ biển, sông, đảo... Tên gọi số nhiều các nước)

the Atlantic

the Netherlands

the Thames

the Sahara

the Azores

the Crimea

the Alps

the Riviera

and before certain other names:

the City

the Mall

the Sudan

the Hague

the Strand

the Yemen

the is also used before names consisting of noun + of noun:

the Bay of Biscay *the Gulf of Mexico*
the Cape of Good Hope *the United States of America*

the is used before names consisting of adjective + noun (provided the adjective is not *east, west, etc.*):

the Arabian Sea *the New Forest* *the High Street*

the is used before the adjectives *east/west etc.* + noun in certain names:

the East/West End *the East/West Indies*
the North/South Pole

but is normally omitted:

South Africa *North America*
West Germany

the, however, is used before *east/west etc.* when these are nouns:

the north of Spain *the West* (geographical)
the Middle East *the West* (political)

Compare *Go north* (adverb: in a northerly direction) with *He lives in the north* (noun: an area in the north)

F **the** is used before other proper names consisting of adjective + noun or noun + of + noun:

The dùng trước những tên gọi riêng của tính từ + danh từ hoặc danh từ + of + danh từ

the National Gallery *the Tower of London*

It is also used before names of choirs, orchestras, pop groups etc.:

the Bach Choir *the Philadelphia Orchestra*
the Beatles

and before names of newspapers (*The Times*) and ships (*the Great Britain*).

G **the** with names of people has a very limited use. **the** + plural surname can be used to mean "the ... family":
 (The dùng với các tên người được dùng giới hạn)

the Smiths = Mr and Mrs Smith (and children)

the + singular name + clause/phrase can be used to distinguish one person from another of the same name:

We have two Mr Smiths. Which do you want? - I want the Mr Smith who signed this letter.

the is used before titles containing **of** (*the Duke of York*) but it is not used before titles or ranks (*Lord Olivier, Captain Cook*), though if someone is referred to by title/rank alone **the** is used:

The earl expected... The captain ordered...

Letters written to two or more unmarried sisters jointly may be addressed *The Misses* + surname: *The Misses Smith.*

7. Bỏ mạo từ xác định : **The** (*Omission of the*)

A The definite article is not used:

1 Before name of places except as shown above, or before names of people.

2 Before abstract nouns except when they are used in a particular sense:

Men fear death but

The death of the Prime Minister left his party without a leader.

3 After a noun in the possessive case, or a possessive adjective:

the boy's uncle = the uncle of the boy.

It is my (blue) book = The (blue) book is mine.

4 Before names of meals:

The Scots have porridge for breakfast but

The wedding breakfast was held in her father's house.

5 Before names of games: *He plays golf.*

6 Before parts of the body and articles of clothing, as these normally prefer a possessive adjective:

Raise your right hand.

He took off his coat.

But notice that sentences of the type:

She seized the child's collar.

I patted his shoulder.

The brick hit John's face.

could be expressed:

She seized the child by the collar.

I patted him on the shoulder.

The brick hit John in the face.

Similarly in the passive:

He was hit on the head.

He was cut in the hand.

- B Note that in some European languages the definite article is used before indefinite plural nouns but that in English it is never used in this way:

Women are expected to like babies. (i.e. women general)

Big hotels all over the world are very much the same.

If we put the *the* before *women* in the first example, it would mean that we were referring to a particular group of women.

- C *nature*, where it means the spirit creating and motivating the growth of plants and animals etc., is used without *the*:

If you interfere with nature you will suffer for it.

8. Bỏ "The" trước Home (nhà) trước church (Nhà thờ) Hospital (Bệnh viện) School (Trường học)... trước work (công việc) Sea (Biển) và Town (Thị xã).

(Omission of the before home, before church, hospital, prison, school etc, and before work, sea and town)

A home

When *home* is used alone, i.e. is not preceded or followed by a descriptive word or phrase, the is omitted:

He is at home.

home used alone can be placed directly after a verb of motion or verb of motion + object, i.e. it can be treated as an adverb:

He went home

I arrived home after dark.

I sent him home.

But when *home* is preceded or followed by a descriptive word or phrase it is treated like any other noun:

They went to their new home.

We arrived at the bride's home.

For some years this was the home of your queen.

A mud hut was the only home he had ever known.

B bed, church, court, hospital, prison, school/college/ university

the is not used before the nouns listed above when these places are visited or used for their primary purpose. We go:

to bed to sleep or as invalids

to hospital as patients

to church to pray

to court as litigants etc.

to prison as prisoners

to school/college/university to study

Similarly we can be:

in bed, sleeping or resting

in hospital as patients

at church as worshippers

at school etc. as students

in court as witnesses etc.

We can be/get back (or be/get home) *from* school/college/university.

We can *leave* school, *leave* hospital, be released *from* prison.

When these places are visited or used for other reasons this is necessary:

I went to the church to see the stained glass.

He goes to the prison sometimes to give lectures.

C sea

We go to *sea* as sailors. To be at *sea* = to be on a voyage (as passengers or crew). But to go to or be *at the sea* = to go to or be at *the seaside*. We can also live *by/near the sea*.

D work and office

work (= place of work) is used without the:

He's on his way to work. *He is at work.*

He isn't back from work yet.

Note that *at work* can also mean 'working'; *hard at work* = working hard:

He's hard at work on a new picture

office (= place of work) needs the:

He is at/in the office.

To be *in office* (without the) means to hold an official (usually political) position. To be *out of office* = to be no longer in power.

E town

the can be omitted when speaking of the subject's or speaker's own town:

We go to town sometimes to buy clothes.

We were in town last Monday.

9. This/these, that/those là các tính từ và đại từ chỉ định.

(this/these, that/those (demonstrative adjectives and pronouns))

- A Used as adjectives, they agree with their nouns in number. They are the only adjectives to do this.

(Khi dùng như tính từ chúng phải hợp theo số của danh từ. Chúng là những tính từ duy nhất phải tuân theo quy tắc này).

This beach was quite empty last year.

This exhibition will be open until the end of May.

These people come from that hotel over there.

What does that notice say?

That exhibition closed a month ago.

He was dismissed on the 13th. That night the factory went on fire.

Do you see those birds at the top of the tree?

this/these/that/those + noun + of + yours/hers etc. or Ann's etc. is sometimes, for emphasis, used instead of your/her etc.+noun:

This diet of mine/My diet isn't having much effect.

That car of Ann's/Ann's car is always breaking down.

Remarks made with these phrases are usually, though not necessarily always, unfavourable.

- B **this/these, that/those** used as pronouns:

(Khi this/these, that/those được sử dụng như đại từ)

This is my umbrella. That's yours.

These are the old classrooms. Those are the new ones.

Who's that (man over there)? - That's Tom Jones.

Handwritten signature: VN/M 74.143

After a radio programme:

That was the concerto in C minor by Vivaldi.

this is is possible in introductions:

ANN (to TOM): *This is my brother Hugh.*

ANN (to HUGH): *Hugh, this is Tom Jones.*

TELEPHONE CALLER: *Good morning. This is/I Tom Jones...*

I am is slightly more formal than *This is* and is more likely to be used when the caller is a stranger to the other person. The caller's name + *here* (*Tom here*) is more informal than *This is*.

those can be followed by a defining relative clause:

Those who couldn't walk were carried on stretchers

this/that can represent a previously mentioned noun, phrase or clause:

They're digging up my road. They do this every summer.

He said I wasn't a good wife. Wasn't that a horrible thing to say?

C this/these, that/those used with **one/ones** (This/these, that/those dùng với one/ones)

When there is some idea of comparison or selection, the pronoun **one/ones** is often placed after these demonstratives, but it is not essential except when **this** is followed by an adjective:

This chair is too low. I'll sit in that (one).

I like this (one) best.

I like this blue one/these blue ones.

2: DANH TỪ (Nouns)

10. Các loại Danh từ và chức năng của nó. (Kinds and function)

- A There are four kinds of noun in English:
 Common nouns: *dog, man, table*
 Proper nouns: *France, Madrid, Mrs Smith, Tom*
 Abstract nouns: *beauty, charity, courage, fear, joy*
 Collective nouns: *crowd, flock, group, swarm, team*
- B A noun can function as:
 The subject of a verb: *Tom arrived.*
 The complement of the verbs **be, become, seem**: *Tom is an actor.*
 The object of a verb: *I saw Tom.*
 The object of a preposition: *I spoke to Tom.*
 A noun can also be in the possessive case: *Tom's books.*

11. Giống của Danh từ. (Gender)

- A Masculine: men, boys and male animals (pronoun **he/they**).

Feminine: women, girls and female animals (pronoun **she/they**).

Neuter: inanimate things, animals whose sex we don't know and sometimes babies whose sex we don't know (pronoun **it/they**).

Exceptions: ships and sometimes cars and other vehicle when regarded with affection or respect are considered feminine. Countries when referred to by name are also normally considered feminine.

The ship struck an iceberg, which tore a huge hole in her side.

Scotland lost many of her bravest men in two great rebellions.

B Masculine/feminine nouns denoting people.

1 Different forms:

- | | | | |
|-----|---------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| (a) | <i>boy, girl</i> | <i>gentleman, lady</i> | <i>son, daughter</i> |
| | <i>bachelor, spinster</i> | <i>husband, wife</i> | <i>uncle, aunt</i> |
| | <i>bridegroom, bride</i> | <i>man, woman</i> | <i>widower, widow</i> |
| | <i>father, mother</i> | <i>nephew, niece</i> | |

Main exceptions:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>baby</i> | <i>infant</i> | <i>relative</i> |
| <i>child</i> | <i>parent</i> | <i>spouse</i> |
| <i>cousin</i> | <i>relation</i> | <i>teenager</i> |
| (b) <i>duke, duchess</i> | <i>king, queen</i> | <i>prince, princess</i> |
| <i>earl, countess</i> | <i>lord, lady</i> | |

2 The majority of nouns indicating occupation have the same form:

- | | | | |
|------------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|
| <i>artist</i> | <i>cook</i> | <i>driver</i> | <i>guide</i> |
| <i>assistant</i> | <i>dancer</i> | <i>doctor</i> | <i>etc.</i> |

Main exceptions:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| <i>actor, actress</i> | <i>host, hostess</i> |
| <i>conductor, conductress</i> | <i>manager, manageress</i> |

*heir, heiress**steward, stewardess**hero, heroine**waiter, waitress*

Also *salesman, saleswoman* etc., but sometimes *- person* is used instead of *- man, - woman; salesperson, spokesperson*.

- C Domestic animals and many of the larger wild animals have different forms:

*bull, cow duck, drake ram, ewe stallion, mare**cock, hen gander, goose stag, doe tiger, tigress**dog, bitch lion, lioness*

Others have the same form.

12. Số nhiều (Plurals)

- A The plural of a noun is usually made by adding *s* to the singular:

day, days dog, dogs house, houses

s is pronounced /s/ after a **p, k** or **f** sound. Otherwise it is pronounced /z/

When *s* is placed after **ce, ge, se** or **ze** an extra syllable (/iz/) is added to the spoken word.

Other plural forms

- B Nouns ending in **o** or **ch, sh, ss** or **x** form their plural by adding *es*:

*tomato, tomatoes brush, brushes box, boxes**church, churches kiss, kisses*

But words of foreign origin or abbreviated words ending in **o** add *s* only:

*dynamo, dynamos kimono, kimonos piano, pianos**kilo, kilos photo, photos soprano, sopranos*

When *es* is placed after **ch, sh, ss** or **x** an extra syllable (/iz/) is added to the spoken word.

- C Nouns ending in *y* following a consonant form their plural by dropping the *y* and adding *ies*:

baby, babies country, countries fly, flies lady, ladies
 Nouns ending in y following a vowel form their plural adding s:

boy, boys day, days donkey, donkeys guy, guys

- D Twelve nouns ending in f or fe drop the f or fe and add v
 These nouns are *calf, half, knife, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf*:

loaf, loaves wife, wives wolf, wolves etc.

The nouns *hoof, scarf* and *wharf* take either s or ves in plural:

*hoofs or hooves scarfs or scarves
 wharfs or wharves*

Other words ending in f or fe add s in the ordinary way:

*cliff, cliffs handkerchief, handkerchiefs
 safe, safes*

- E A few nouns form their plural by a vowel change:

*foot, feet louse, lice
 mouse, mice woman, women
 goose, geese man, men
 tooth, teeth*

The plurals of *child* and *ox* are *children, oxen*.

- F Names of certain creatures do not change in the plural.
fish is normally unchanged. *fishes* exists but is uncommon.
 Some types of fish do not normally change in the plural:

*carp pike salmon trout
 cod plaice squid turbot
 mackerel*

but if used in a plural sense they would take a plural verb.

Others add s:

crabs herrings sardines

eels lobsters sharks

deer and sheep do not change: one sheep, two sheep.

Sportsmen who shoot *duck, partridge, pheasant* etc. use the same form for singular and plural. But other people normally add *s* for the plural: *ducks, partridges, pheasants*.

The word *game*, used by sportsmen to mean an animal/animals hunted, is always in the singular and takes a singular verb.

G A few other words don't change:

aircraft, craft (boat/boats) quid (slang for £1)

counsel (barristers working in court)

Some measurements and numbers do not change.

For uncountable nouns.

H Collective nouns, *crew, family, team* etc., can take a singular or plural verb: singular if we consider the word to mean a single group or unit:

Our team is the best

or plural if we take it to mean a number of individuals:

Our team are wearing their new jerseys.

When a possessive adjective is necessary, a plural verb with *there* is more usual than a singular verb with *its*, though sometimes both are possible;

The jury is considering its verdict.

The jury are considering their verdict.

Certain words are always plural and take a plural verb:

clothes police

garments consisting of two parts:

breeches pants pyjamas trousers etc.

and tools and instruments consisting of two parts:

binoculars pliers scissors spectacles

glasses scales shears etc.

Also certain other words including:

<i>arms</i> (weapons)	<i>particulars</i>
<i>damages</i> (compensation)	<i>premises/quarters</i>
<i>earnings</i>	<i>riches</i>
<i>goods/wares</i>	<i>savings</i>
<i>greens</i> (vegetables)	<i>spirits</i> (alcohol)
<i>grounds</i>	<i>stairs</i>
<i>outskirts</i>	<i>surroundings</i>
<i>pains</i> (trouble/effort)	<i>valuables</i>

J A number of words ending in *ics*, *acoustics*, *athletics*, *ethics*, *hysterics*, *mathematics*, *physics*, *politics* etc., which are plural in form, normally take a plural verb:

His mathematics are weak.

But names of sciences can sometimes be considered singular:

Mathematics is an exact science.

K Words plural in form but singular in meaning include *news*:

The news is good

certain diseases:

mumps *ricketts* *shingles*

and certain games:

billiards *darts* *draughts*

bowls *dominoes*

L Some words which retain their original Greek or Latin form make their plurals according to the rules of Greek and Latin:

crisis, crises /'kraisis/, /'kraisi:z/

phenomenon, phenomena

erratum, errata

radius, radii

memorandum, memoranda

terminus, termini

oasis, oases /su'eisis/, /su'eisi:z/

But some follow the English rules:

dogma, dogmas *gymnasium, gymnasiums*
formula, formulas (though *formulae* is used by scientists)

Sometimes there are two plural forms with different meanings:

appendix, appendixes or appendices
 (medical terms)

appendix, appendices (addition/s to a book)

index, indexes (in books), *indices*
 (in mathematics)

Musicians usually prefer Italian plural forms for Italian musical terms:

libretto, libretti *tempo, tempi*

But *s* is also possible: *librettos, tempos*.

M Compound nouns

1 Normally the last word is made plural:

boy-friends *break-ins* *travel agents*

But where *man* and *woman* is prefixed both parts are made plural:

men drivers *women drivers*

2 The first word is made plural with compounds formed of verb + er nouns + adverbs:

hangers-on *lookers-on* *runners-up*

and with compounds composed of noun + preposition + noun:

ladies-in-waiting *sisters-in-law*, *wards of court*

3 Initials can be made plural:

MPs (Members of Parliament)

VIPs (very important persons)

OAPs (old age pensioners)

UFOs (unidentified flying objects)

13. Danh từ không đếm được.

(Uncountable nouns)

- A 1 Names of substances considered generally (tên của những chất thông thường)

<i>bread</i>	<i>cream</i>	<i>gold</i>	<i>paper</i>	<i>tea</i>
<i>beer</i>	<i>dust</i>	<i>ice</i>	<i>sand</i>	<i>water</i>
<i>cloth</i>	<i>gin</i>	<i>jam</i>	<i>soap</i>	<i>wine</i>
<i>coffee</i>	<i>glass</i>	<i>oil</i>	<i>stone</i>	<i>wood</i>

- 2 Abstract nouns: (danh từ trừu tượng)

<i>advice</i>	<i>experience</i>	<i>horror</i>	<i>pity</i>
<i>beauty</i>	<i>fear</i>	<i>information</i>	<i>relief</i>
<i>courage</i>	<i>help</i>	<i>knowledge</i>	<i>suspicion</i>
<i>death</i>	<i>hope</i>	<i>mercy</i>	<i>work</i>

- 3 Also considered uncountable in English: (những thứ được xem như danh từ không đếm được).

<i>baggage</i>	<i>damage</i>	<i>luggage</i>	<i>shopping</i>
<i>camping</i>	<i>furniture</i>	<i>parking</i>	<i>weather</i>

These, with *hair*, *information*, *knowledge*, *news*, *rubbish* are sometimes countable in other languages.

- B Uncountable nouns are always singular and are not used with *a/an*: (những danh từ không đếm được luôn luôn là số ít và không được dùng với *a/an*)

I don't want (any) advice or help. I want (some) information.

He has had no experience in this sort of work.

These nouns are often preceded by *some*, *any*, *no*, *a little* etc, or by nouns such as *bit*, *piece*, *slice* etc. + *of*.

<i>a bit of news</i>	<i>a grain of sand</i>	<i>a pot of jam</i>
<i>a cake of soap</i>	<i>a pane of glass</i>	<i>a sheet of paper</i>
<i>a drop of oil</i>	<i>a piece of advice</i>	

- 2) Many of the nouns in the above groups can be used in a particular sense and are then countable. They can take a/an in the singular and can be used in the plural. Some examples are given below.

hair (all the hair on one's head) is considered uncountable, but if we consider each hair separately we say *one hair, two hairs* etc.:

Her hair is black, Whenever she finds a grey hair she pulls it out.

We drink *beer, coffee, gin*, but we can ask for *a (cup of) coffee, a gin, two gins* etc. We drink *wine*, but *enjoy a good wine*. We drink it from *a glass* or from *glasses*. We can walk in *a wood/woods*. *experience* meaning 'something which happened to someone' is countable:

He had an exciting experience/some exciting experiences (= adventure/s) last week.

work meaning 'occupation/employment/a job/jobs' is uncountable:

He is looking for work/for a job.

works (plural only) can mean 'factory' or 'moving parts of a machine'.

works (usually plural) can be used of literary or musical compositions:

Shakespeare's complete works.

- 3) Some abstract nouns can be used in a particular sense with **a/an**:

a help:

My children are a great help to me. A good map would be a help.

a relief:

It was a relief to sit down.

a knowledge + of:

He had a good knowledge of mathematics:

a dislike/dread/hatred/horror/love + of is also possible:

a love of music a hatred of violence

a mercy/pity/shame/wonder can be used with **that-clause** introduced by it:

It's a pity you weren't here.

It's a shame he wasn't paid.

it + be + a pity/shame + infinitive is also possible:

It would be a pity to cut down these trees.

E a fear/fears, a hope/hopes, a suspicion/suspensions

These can be used with **that - clauses** introduced by **there**

There is a fear/There are fears that he has been murdered.

We can also have *a suspicion that...*

Something can arouse *a fear/fears, a hope/hopes, a suspicion/suspensions.*

14. Hình thức của sở hữu cách.

(The form of the possessive/genitive case)

A 's is used with singular nouns and plural nouns not ending in s:

a man's job

the people's choice

men's work

the crew's quarters

a woman's institution

the horse's mouth

the butcher's (shop)

the bull's horns

a child's voice

women's clothes

the children's room

Russia's exports

B A simple apostrophe (') is used with plural nouns ending in s:

a girls' school

the students' hostel

the eagles' nest

the Smiths' car

C Classical ending in s-usually add only the apostrophe:

Pythagoras' Theorem

Archimedes' Law

Sophocles' plays

- D Other names ending in s can take 's or the apostrophe alone:

Mr Jones's (or Mr Jones' house)

Yeats's (or Yeats') poems

- E With compounds, the last word takes the 's:

my brother-in-law's guitar

Names consisting of several words are treated similarly:

Henry the Eighth's wives

the Prince of Wales's helicopter

's can also be used after initials:

the PM's secretary

the MP's briefcase

the VIP's escort

Note that when the possessive case is used, the article before the person or thing 'possessed' disappears:

the daughter of the politician = the politician's daughter

the intervention of America = America's intervention

the plays of shakespeare = Shakespeare's plays

15. Cách dùng sở hữu cách.

(Use of the possessive/genitive case and of + noun)

- A The possessive case is chiefly used of people, countries or animals as shown above. It can also be used:

1 Of ships and boats: *the ship's bell, the yacht's mast*

2 Of planes, trains, cars and other vehicles, though here the of construction is safer:

a glider's wings or the wings of a glider

the train's heating system or the heating system train

3 In time expressions:

a week's holiday

today's paper

tomorrow's weather

in two years' time

ten minutes' break

two hours' delay

a ten-minute break, a two-hour delay are also possible

We have ten minutes' break/a ten - minute break.

4 In expressions of money + **worth**:

£1's worth of stamps

ten dollars' worth of ice-cream

5 **With for + noun + sake:** *for heaven's sake, for goodness' sake*

6 In a few expressions such as:

a stone's throw

journey's end

the water's edge

7 We can say either *a winter's day* or *a winter day*, *summer's day* or *a summer day*, but we cannot make or autumn possessive, except when they are person. *Autumn's return.*

8 Sometimes certain nouns can be used in the possessive without the second noun. *a/the baker's/butcher's/chemist's/florist's* etc. can mean 'a/the baker's/butcher's shop'

Similarly, *a/the house agent's/travel agent's* etc. (and *the dentist's/doctor's/vet's* (surgery):

You can buy it at the chemist's.

He's going to the dentist's.

Names of the owners of some businesses can be similarly:

Sotheby's, Claridge's

Some very well-known shops etc. call themselves by the possessive form and some drop the apostrophe: *Foyles, Harrods.*

Names of people can sometimes be used similarly to mean '...s house':

We had lunch at Bill's.

We met at Ann's.

B of + noun is used of possession:

1 When the possessor noun is followed by a phrase or clause:

The boys ran about, obeying the directions of a man with a whistle.

I took the advice of a couple I met on the train and hired a car.

2. With inanimate 'possessors', except those listed in A above:

the walls of the town the roof of the church the keys of the car

However, it is often possible to replace noun X + of + noun Y by noun Y + noun X in that order:

the town walls the church roof the car keys

The first noun becomes a sort of adjective and is not made plural:

the roofs of the churches = the church roofs

Unfortunately noun + of + noun combinations cannot always be replaced in this way and the student is advised to use of when in doubt.

16. Danh từ kép.

(Compound nouns)

A Examples of these: (Những thí dụ của danh từ kép)

1 Noun + noun: (danh từ + danh từ).

'London'Transport

'Fleet'Street

'Tower'Bridge

'hall'door 'traffic warden 'petrol tank
 'hitch-hiker 'sky-jacker 'river bank
 'kitchen'table 'winter'clothes

2 Noun + gerund: (danh từ + danh động từ).

'fruit picking 'lorry driving 'coal-mining
 'weight-lifting 'bird-watching 'surf-riding

3 Gerund + noun: (danh động từ + danh từ).

'waiting list 'diving-board 'driving licence
 'landing card 'dining-room 'swimming pool

B Some ways in which these combinations can be used:

1 When the second noun belongs to or is part of the first:

'shop>window 'picture frame 'college'library
 'church bell 'garden'gate 'gear lever

But words denoting quantity: *lump, part, piece, slice* et cannot be used in this way:

a piece of cake *a slice of bread*

2 The first noun can indicate the place of the second:

'city'street 'corner'shop
 'country'lane 'street market

3 The first noun can indicate the time of the second:

'summer'holiday 'Sunday'paper 'November'fogs
 'spring'flowers 'dawn'chorus

4 The first noun can state the material of which the second made:

'steel'door 'rope'ladder 'gold'medal
 'stone'wall 'silk'shirt

wool and *wood* are not used here as they have adjective forms: *woollen* and *wooden*. *gold* has an adjective form *golden*, but this is used only figuratively:

a golden handshake

a golden opportunity

golden hair

The first noun can also state the **power/fuel** used to operate the second:

'gas'fire

'petrol engine

'oil'stove

5 The first word can indicate the purpose of the second:

'coffee cup.

'escape hatch

'chess board

'reading lamp

'skating rink

'tin opener

'golf club

'notice board

'football ground

6 Work areas, such as *factory, farm, mine* etc., can be preceded by the name of the article produced:

'fish-farm

'gold-mine

'oil-rig

or the type work done:

'inspection pit

'assembly plant

'decompression chamber

7 These combinations are often used of occupations, sports, hobbies and the people who practise them:

'sheep farming

'sheep farmer

'pop singer

'wind surfing

'water skier

'disc jockey

and for competitions:

'football match

'beauty contest

8 The first noun can show what the second is about or concerned with.

A work of fiction may be a *'detective/murder/mystery/ghost/horror/spy story*. We buy *'bus/train/plane tickets*. We pay *'fuel/laundry/ milk/telephone bills, 'entry fees, 'income tax, 'car insurance, 'water rates 'parking fines*.

Similarly with committees, departments, talks, conferences etc:

'housing committee,

'education department,

'peace talks

9. These categories all overlap to some extent. They are meant to be mutually exclusive, but aim to give the student some general idea of the uses of these combinations help with the stress.

C As will be seen from the stress-marks above:

1. The first word is stressed in noun + gerund and gerund + noun combinations, when there is an idea of purpose as in the examples above, and in combinations of type B7 and B8 above.
2. Both words are usually stressed in combinations of type A1, B1-3 above, but inevitably there are exceptions.
3. In place-name combinations both words usually have equal stress:

'King's Road

'Waterloo 'Bridge

'Leicester'Square

But there is one important exception. In combinations where the last word is *Street*, the word *Street* is unstressed:

'Bond Street

'Oxford Street

3. TÍNH TỪ (Adjectives)

17. Các loại tính từ.

(Kinds of adjectives)

A The main kinds are: (các loại chính là)

(a) Demonstrative: *this, that, these, those*

(b) Distributive: *each, every; either, neither*

(c) Quantitative: *some, any, no; little/few, many, much, one, twenty*

(d) Interrogative: *which, what, whose*

(e) Possessive: *my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their*

(f) Of quality: *clever, dry, fat, golden, good, heavy, square*

B Participles used as adjectives : (Phần từ dùng như tính từ)

Both present participles (**ing**) and past participles (**ed**) can be used as adjectives. Care must be taken not to confuse them. Present participle adjectives, *amusing, boring, tiring* etc., are active and mean 'having this effect'. Past participle adjectives, *amused, horrified, tired* etc., are passive and mean 'affected in this way'

The pay was boring. (The audience was bored.)

The work was tiring

(The workers were soon tired.)

The scene was horrifying.

(The spectators were horrified.)

an infuriating woman (She made us furious.)

an infuriated woman

(Something had made her furious.)

C Agreement (Sự hợp giống hợp số).

Adjectives in English have the same form for singular plural, masculine and feminine nouns:

a good boy, good boys a good girl, good girls

The only exceptions are the demonstrative adjectives and **that**, which change to **these** and **those** before plural nouns:

this cat, these cats

that man, those men

D Many adjectives/participles can be followed by prepositions
good at, tired of.

18. Vị trí của tính từ dùng như Thuộc ngữ và Vị ngữ.

(Position of adjectives: attributive and predicative use)

A Adjectives in groups (a) - (e) above come before their nouns:

this book

which boy

my dog

Adjectives in this position are called attributive adjective

B Adjectives of quality, however, can come either before their nouns:

a rich man

a happy girl

or after a verb such as (a) *be, become, seem:*

Tom became rich. Ann seems happy.

or (b) *appear, feel, get/grow (= become), keep, look (= appear), make, smell, sound, taste, turn:*

Tom felt cold. He got/grew impatient.

He made her happy.

The idea sounds interesting.

Adjectives in this position are called predicative adjectives. Verbs used in this way are called link verbs or copulas.

C Note on link verbs

A problem with verbs in B (b) above is that when they are not used as link verbs they can be modified by adverbs in the usual way. This confuses the student, who often tries to use adverbs instead of adjectives after link verbs. Some examples with adjectives and adverbs may help to show the different uses:

He looked calm (adjective) = He had a calm expression.

He looked calmly (adverb) at the angry crowd. (looked here is a deliberate action.)

She turned pale (adjective) = She became pale.

He turned angrily (adverb) to the man behind him. (turned here is a deliberate action.)

The soup tasted horrible (adjective). (It had a horrible taste.)

He tasted the soup suspiciously (adverb). (tasted here is a deliberate action.)

D Some adjectives can be used only attributively or only predicatively, and some change their meaning when moved from one position to the other.

bad/good, big! small, heavy/light and old, used in expressions as *bad sailor, good swimmer, big eater, small farmer, heavy drinker, light sleeper, old boyfriend/sister* etc.. cannot be used predicatively without changing meaning: *a small farmer* is a man who has a small farm. *The farmer is small* means that he is a small man physically. Used otherwise, the above adjectives can be in either position.

chief, main, principal, sheer, utter come before nouns. **frightened** may be in either position, but **afraid** and **upset** must follow the verb and so must **adrift, afraid, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep**.

The meaning of **early** and **late** may depend on their position: *an early/a late train* means a train scheduled to run early or late in the day. *The train is early/late* means that it is before/after its proper time. **poor** meaning 'with not enough money' can precede the noun or follow the verb. **poor** meaning 'unfortunate' must precede the noun.

poor meaning 'weak/inadequate' precedes nouns such as *student, worker* etc. but when used with inanimate noun can be in either position:

He has poor sight.

His sight is poor.

E Use of **and**

With attributive adjectives **and** is used chiefly when there are two or more adjectives of colour. It is then placed before the last of these:

a greets and brown carpet

a red, white and blue flag

With predicative adjectives **and** is placed between the last two:

The day was cold wet and windy.

19. Trật tự của tính từ chỉ phẩm chất.

(Order of adjectives of quality)

- A Several variations are possible but a fairly usual order is:
adjectives of
- (a) size (except **little**; but see C below)
 - (b) general description (excluding adjectives of personality, emotion etc.)
 - (c) age, and the adjective **little** (see B)
 - (d) shape (e) colour
 - (f) material
 - (g) origin
 - (h) purpose (these are really gerunds used to form compound nouns: *walking stick, riding boots*).

a long sharp knife

a small round bath

new hexagonal coins

blue velvet curtains

an old plastic bucket

an elegant French clock

Adjectives of personality/emotion come after adjectives of physical description, including **dark, fair, pale**, but before colours:

a small suspicious official

a long patient queue

a pale anxious girl

a kindly black doctor

an inquisitive brown dog

- B **little, old and young** are often used, not to give information, but as part of an adjective-noun combination. They are then placed next to their nouns:

Your nephew is a nice little boy.

That young man drives too fast.

little + old + noun is possible: *a little old lady*. But **little + young** is not. When used to give information, **old and**

young occupy position (c) above:

a young coloured man *an old Welsh harp*

Adjectives of personality/emotion can precede or follow **young/old**:

a young ambitious man

an ambitious young man

young in the first example carries a stronger stress than **young** in the second, so the first order is better if we wish to emphasize the age. **little** can be used similarly in position (c):

a handy little calculator *an expensive little hotel*

a little sandy beach *a little grey foal*

But **small** is usually better than **little** if we want to emphasize the size.

C **fine, lovely, nice,** and sometimes **beautiful,** adjectives of size (except **little**), shape and temperature usually express approval of the size etc. If we say *a beautiful big room, a lovely warm house, nice/fine thick steaks* we imply that we like big rooms, warm houses and thick steaks.

fine, lovely and **nice** can be used similarly with a number of other adjectives: *fine strong coffee a lovely quiet beach a nice dry day.*

When used predicatively, such pairs are separated by **and**:

The coffee was fine and strong.

The my was nice and dry.

beautiful is not much used in this sense as a predicative adjective.

D **pretty** followed by another adjective with no comma between them is an adverb of degree meaning **very/quite**: *She is pretty tall girl* means

20. So sánh tính từ.

A There are three degrees of comparison: (Có 3 cấp độ so sánh)

Positive (cấp nguyên)	Comparative (so sánh hơn)	Superlative (cực cấp)
<i>dark</i> (tối)	<i>darker</i> (tối hơn)	<i>darkest</i> (tối nhất)
<i>tall</i> (cao)	<i>taller</i> (cao hơn)	<i>tallest</i> (cao nhất)
<i>useful</i> (có ích)	<i>more useful</i> (có ích hơn)	<i>most useful</i> (có ích nhất)

B One-syllable adjectives form their comparative and superlative by adding **er** and **est** to the positive form:

bright (sáng) *brighter* (sáng hơn)
brightest (sáng nhất)

Adjectives ending in **e** add **r** and **st**:

brave (dũng cảm) *braver* (dũng cảm hơn)
bravest (dũng cảm nhất)

C Adjectives of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative by putting **more** and **most** before the positive:

interested *more interested* *most interested*
frightening *more frightening* *most frightening*

D Adjectives of two syllables follow one or other of the above rules. Those ending in **ful** or **re** usually take **more** and **most**:

doubtful *more doubtful* *most doubtful*
obscure *more obscure* *most obscure*

Those ending in **er**, **y** or **ly** usually add **er**, **est**:

clever *cleverer* *cleverest*
pretty *prettier* *prettiest*

(note, that the **y** becomes **i**)

silly *sillier* *silliest*

E Irregular comparisons:

<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
<i>far</i>	<i>farther</i>	<i>farthest</i> (of distance only)
	<i>further</i>	<i>furthest</i> (used more widely; see 1)
<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
<i>little</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>least</i>
<i>many/much</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
<i>old</i>	<i>elder</i>	<i>eldest</i> (of people only)
	<i>older</i>	<i>oldest</i> (of people and things)

F **farther/farthest and further/furthest**

Both forms can be used of distances:

York is farther/further than Lincoln or Selby.

York is the farthest/furthest town or

York is the farthest/furthest of the three.

(In the last sentence **farthest/furthest** are pronouns.

further can also be used, mainly with abstract nouns, to mean 'additional/extra':

Further supplies will soon be available.

Further discussion/debate would be pointless.

Similarly: *further enquiries/delays/demands/information/instructions* etc. **furthest** can be used similarly with abstract nouns:

This was the furthest point they reached in their discussion.

This was the furthest concession he would make.

G **far** (used for distance) and **near**

In the comparative and superlative both can be used quite freely:

the farthest/furthest mountain the nearest river

But in the positive form they have a limited use.

far and **near** we used chiefly with *bank, end, side, wall* etc.:

the far bank (the bank on the other side)

the near bank (the bank on this side of the river)

near can also be used with *east*, and **far** with *north, south, east* and *west*.

With other nouns **far** is usually replaced by *distant/remote* and **near** by *nearby/neighbouring*: *a remote island, the neighbouring village*.

For **far** (adverb), for **near** (adverb or preposition),

H **elder, eldest; older, oldest**

elder, eldest imply seniority rather than age. They are chiefly used for comparisons within a family: *my elder brother, her eldest boy/girl*; but **elder** is not used with **than**, so **older** is necessary here:

He is older than I am.

(**elder** would not be possible.)

In colloquial English **eldest, oldest** and **youngest** are often used of **only two boys/girls/children** etc.:

His eldest boy 's at school;

the other is still at home.

This is particularly common when **eldest, oldest** are used as pronouns:

Tom is the eldest. (of the two)

21. Constructions with comparisons.

- A With the positive form of the adjective, we use **as... as** in the affirmative and **not as/not so... as** in the negative:

A boy of sixteen is often as tall as his father.

He was as white as a sheet.

Manslaughter is-not as/so bad as murder.

Your coffee is not as/so good as the coffee my mother makes.

- B With the comparative we use **than**:

The new tower blocks are much higher than the old buildings.

He makes fewer mistakes than you (do).

He is stronger than I expected =

I didn't expect him to be so strong.

It was more expensive than I thought =

I didn't think it would be so expensive.

When **than...** is omitted, it is very common in colloquial English to use a superlative instead of a comparative: *This is the best way* could be said when there are only two ways.

- C Comparison of three or more people/things is expressed by the superlative with **the... in/of**:

This is the oldest theatre in London.

The youngest of the family was the most successful.

A relative clause is useful especially with a perfect tense:

It/This is the best beer (that) I have ever drunk.

It/This me the worst film (that) he had ever seen.

He is the kindest man (that) I have ever met.

It was the most worrying day (that) he had ever spent.

Note that **ever** is used here, not **never**. We can, however, express the same idea with **never** and a comparative:

I have never drunk better beer.

I have never met a kinder man.

He had never spent a more worrying day.

Note that **most** + adjective, without **the**, means **very**:

You are most kind means You are very kind.

most meaning **very** is used mainly with adjectives of two or more syllables: *annoying, apologetic, disobedient, encouraging, exciting, helpful, important, misleading* etc.

- D Parallel increase is expressed by **the** + comparative... **the** + comparative:

HOUSE AGENT: *Do you want a big house?*

ANN: *Yes, the bigger the better.*

TOM: *But the smaller it is, the less it will cost us to heat.*

- E Gradual increase or decrease is expressed by two comparatives joined by **and**:

The weather is getting colder and colder.

He became less and less interested.

- F Comparison of actions with gerunds or infinitives:

Riding a horse is not as easy as riding a motor cycle.

It is nicer/more fun to go with someone than to go alone.

- G Comparisons with **like** (preposition) and **alike**:

Tom is very like Bill. Bill and Tom are very alike.

He keeps the central heating full on. It's like living in

the tropics.

H Comparisons with **like** and **as** (both adverb and adjective expressions are shown here)

In theory **like** (preposition) is used only with noun, pronoun or gerund:

He swims like a fish. You look like a ghost.

Be like Peter/him: go jogging

The windows were all barred.

It was like being in prison.

and **as** (conjunction) is used when there is a finite verb:

Do as Peter does: go jogging.

Why don't you cycle to work as we do?

But in colloquial English **like** is often used here instead of **as**:

Cycle to work like we do.

I **like** + noun and **as** + noun:

He worked like a slave. (very hard indeed)

He worked as a slave. (He was a slave.)

She used her umbrella as a weapon.

(She struck him with it.)

4: TRẠNG TỪ (Adverbs)

22. Các loại trạng từ.

(Kinds of adverbs)

Manner: *bravely, fast, happily, hard, quickly, well*

Place: *by, down, here, near, there, up*

Time: *now, soon, still, then, today, yet*

Frequency: *always, never, occasionally, often, twice*

Sentence: *certainly, definitely, luckily, surely*

Degree: *fairly, hardly, rather, quite, too, very*

Interrogative: *when? where? why?*

Relative: *when, where, why*

Hình thức và cách sử dụng

(Form and use)

23. Thành lập trạng từ bằng cách thêm đuôi ly.

(The formation of adverbs with ly)

A Many adverbs of manner and some adverbs of degree are formed by adding **ly** to the corresponding adjectives:

grave, gravely *immediate, immediately*
slow, slowly

Spelling notes

(a) A final **y** changes to **i**: *happy, happily*.

(b) A final **e** is retained: *extreme, extremely*.

Exceptions: *true, due, whole* become *truly, duly, wholly*

(c) Adjectives ending in a consonant + **e** drop the final **e** and add **y**:

capable, capably *sensible, sensibly*
gentle, gently

(d) Adjectives ending in a **vowel** + **l** follow the usual rule:

beautiful, beautifully *final, finally*

B Exceptions

The adverb of **good** is **well**.

kindly can be adjective or adverb, but other adjectives ending in **ly**, e.g. **friendly, likely, lonely** etc., cannot be used as adverbs and have no adverb form. To supply this deficiency we use a similar adverb or adverb phrase:

likely (adjective) *friendly* (adjective)
probably (adverb) *in a friendly way*
(adverb phrase)

C Some adverbs have a narrower meaning than their corresponding adjectives or differ from them.

coldly, coolly, hotly, warmly are used mainly of feelings:

We received them coldly. (in an unfriendly way)

They denied the accusation hotly. (indignantly)

She welcomed us warmly. (in a friendly way)

But **warmly dressed** = wearing warm clothes.

coolly = **calmly/courageously** or **calmly/impudently**:

He behaved very coolly in this dangerous situation.
 presently = soon: *He'll be here presently.*

24. Trạng từ và tính từ những hình thức giống nhau.

(Adverbs and adjectives with the same form)

A	<i>back</i>	<i>hard*</i>	<i>little</i>	<i>right*</i>
	<i>deep*</i>	<i>high*</i>	<i>long</i>	<i>short*</i>
	<i>direct*</i>	<i>ill</i>	<i>low</i>	<i>still</i>
	<i>early</i>	<i>just*</i>	<i>much/more/most*</i>	<i>straight</i>
	<i>enough</i>	<i>kindly</i>	<i>near*</i>	<i>well</i>
	<i>far</i>	<i>late*</i>	<i>pretty*</i>	<i>wrong*</i>
	<i>fast</i>	<i>left</i>		

* See B below

Used as adverbs:

Come back soon

Yow can dial Rome direct.

The train went fast.

They worked hard.

(energetically)

an ill-made road

Turn right here.

She went straight home

He led us wrong.

Used as adjectives:

the back door

the most direct route

a fast train

The work is hard

You look ill/well

the right answer

a straight line

This is the wrong way.

B Starred words above also have **ly** forms. Note the meanings.
deeply is used chiefly of feelings:

He was deeply offended.

directly can be used of time of connection:

He'll be here directly. (very soon)

The new regulations will affect us directly/indirectly.
highly is used only in an abstract sense:

He was a highly paid official

They spoke very highly of him.

justly corresponds to the adjective **just** (fair, right, law) but **just** can also be an adverb of degree.

lately = **recently**: *Have you seen him lately?*

mostly = **chiefly**

nearly = **almost**: *I'm nearly ready.*

prettily corresponds to the adjective **pretty** (attractive)

Her little girls are always prettily dressed.

But **pretty** can also be an adverb of degree meaning **very**

The exam was pretty difficult.

rightly can be used with a past participle to mean **just correctly**:

He was rightly/justly punished.

I was rightly/correctly informed.

But in each case the second adverb would be more usual

shortly = **soon**, briefly or curtly,

wrongly can be used with a past participle:

You were wrongly (incorrectly) informed.

But *He acted wrongly* could mean that his action was **incorrect** or **morally wrong**.

C **long** and **near** (adverbs) have a restricted use.

1 **long**

longer, **longest** can be used without restriction:

It took longer than I expected.

But **long** is used mainly in the negative or interrogative

How long will it take to get there?

It won't take long.

In the affirmative **too/so + long** or **long - enough** is possible.

Alternatively a **long time** can be used:

*It would take too long,
It would take a long time.*

In conversation (for) a **long time** is often replaced by (for) **ages**:

*I waited for ages.
It took us ages to get there.*

2 **near**

nearer, nearest can be used without restriction:

Don't come any nearer.

But **near** in the positive form is usually qualified by **very/quite/so/too** or **enough**:

*They live quite near. Don't come too near.
You're near enough.*

The preposition **near** with noun, pronoun or adverb is more generally useful:

*Don't go near the edge.
The ship sank near here.*

D **far** and **much** also have a restricted use.

See 32 and 33.

25. Hình thức so sánh của trạng từ ở mức hơn, nhất.

A With adverbs of two or more syllables we form the comparative and superlative putting **more** and **most** before the positive form:

Positive (cấp nguyên)	Comparative (so sánh hơn)	Superlative (cực cấp)
<i>quickly</i>	<i>more quickly</i>	<i>most quickly</i>
<i>fortunately</i>	<i>more fortunately</i>	<i>most fortunately</i>

Single - syllable adverbs, however, and **early**, add **er, est**:

hard harder hardest

early earlier earliest

(note the y becomes i)

B Irregular comparisons: (Những động từ bất quy tắc)

well better best

badly worse worst

little less least

much more most

far farther farthest (of distance only)

further furthest

26. far, farther/farthest and further/furthest.

A further, furthest (*xa hơn, xa nhất*)

These, like **farther/farthest**, can be used as adverbs of place/distance:

It isn't safe to go any further/farther in this fog

But they can also be used in an abstract sense:

Mr A said that these toy pistols should not be on sale.

Mr B went further and said that no toy pistols should be sold.

Mr C went furthest of all and said that no guns of any kind should be sold.

B far: restrictions on use (*Những hạn chế và cách dùng*)

far in the comparative and superlative can be used quite freely:

He travelled further than we expected.

far in the positive form is used chiefly in the negative and interrogative:

How far can you see? – I can't see far.

In the affirmative a **long way** is more usual than **far**, and a

long way away is more usual than **far away**:

They sailed a long way.

He lives a long way away.

But **very far away** is possible, and so is **so/quite/too + far** and **far - enough**:

They walked so far that... They walked too far.

We've gone far enough.

far can be used with an abstract meaning:

The new law doesn't go far enough.

You've gone too far! (You've been too insulting/overbearing/ insolent etc.)

far, adverb of degree, is used with comparatives or with **too/so + positive forms**:

She swims far better than I do.

He drinks far too much

27. Much, more, most.

A **more** and **most** can be used fairly freely:

(Có thể dùng khá rộng rãi)

You should ride more.

I use this room most

But **much**, in the positive form, has a restricted use.

B **much** meaning a lot can modify negative verbs:

(Much có nghĩa là nhiều và có thể bỏ nghĩa cho những động từ phủ định)

He doesn't ride much nowadays

In the interrogative **much** is chiefly used with **how**. In questions without **how much** is possible but **a lot** is more usual:

How much has he ridden?

Has he ridden a lot/much?

In the affirmative **as/so/too + much** is possible. Otherwise a

lot/ a good deal/a great deal is preferable:

He shouts so much that... I talk too much.

But He rides a lot/a great deal.

- C **very much** meaning **greatly** can be used more widely in affirmative (**very much** có nghĩa là rất nhiều, có thể có rộng rãi trong câu khẳng định).

We can use it with *blame, praise, thank* and with a number of verbs concerned with feelings: *admire, amuse, appreciate, dislike, distress, enjoy, impress, like, object, shock, surprise* etc.:

Thank you very much.

They admired him very much.

She objects very much to the noise they make.

much (= **greatly**), with or without **very**, can be used with the participles *admired, amused, disliked, distressed, impressed, liked, shocked, struck, upset*:

He was (very) much admired.

She was (very) much impressed by their good manners.

- D **much** meaning **a lot** can modify comparative or superlative adjectives and adverbs:

(có thể bỏ nghĩa cho tính từ, trạng từ khi so sánh hơn hạ cực cấp)

much better much the best much more quickly

much too can be used with positive forms:

He spoke much too fast.

- E **most** placed before an adjective or adverb can mean **very** (Đặt trước tính từ, trạng từ có nghĩa là "rất")

It is mainly used here with adjectives/adverbs of two or more syllables:

He was most apologetic.

She behaved most generously.

28. Cấu trúc dùng trong so sánh.

(Constructions with comparisons)

When the same verb is required in both clauses we normally use an auxiliary for the second verb.

- A With the positive form we use **as... as** with an affirmative verb, and **as/so ... as** with a negative verb:

He worked as slowly as he dared.

He doesn't snore as/so loudly as you do.

It didn't take as/so long as I expected.

- B With the comparative form we use **than**:

He eats more quickly than I do/than me.

He played better than he had ever played.

They arrived earlier than I expected.

the + comparative... the + comparative is also possible:

The earlier you start the sooner you'll be back.

- C With the superlative it is possible to use **of + noun**:

He went (the) furthest of the explorers.

But this construction is not very common and such a sentence would normally be expressed by a comparative, as shown above.

A superlative (without **the**) + **of all** is quite common. but **all here** often refers to other actions by the same subject:

He likes swimming best of all. (better than he likes anything else) of all can then be omitted.

Vị trí (Position)

29. Trạng từ chỉ cách thức.

(Adverbs of manner)

- A Adverbs of manner come after the verb:

She danced beautifully

or after the object when there is one:

He gave her the money reluctantly.

They speak English well.

Do not put an adverb between verb and object.

- B When we have verb + preposition + object, the adverb can be either before the preposition or after the object:

He looked at me suspiciously or He looked suspiciously at me.

But if the object contains a number of words we put the adverb before the preposition:

He looked suspiciously at everyone who got off the plane.

- C Similarly with verb + object sentences the length of the object affects the position of the adverb. If the object is short, we have verb + object + adverb, as shown in B above. But if the object is long we usually put the adverb before the verb:

She carefully picked up all the bits of broken glass.

He angrily denied that he had stolen the documents.

They secretly decided to leave the town.

- D Note that if an adverb is placed after a phrase, it is normally considered to modify the verb in that's clause/phrase. If, therefore, we move *secretly* to the end of the last example above, we change the meaning:

They secretly decided ...

(The decision was secret.)

They decided to leave the town secretly.

(The departure was to be secret.)

- E Adverbs concerned with character and intelligence, **foolishly, generously, kindly, stupidly** etc., when placed

before a verb, indicate that the action was foolish/kind/generous etc.:

I foolishly forgot my passport.

He generously paid for us all.

He kindly waited for me.

Would you kindly wait?

Note that we could also express such ideas by:

It was foolish of me to forget.

It was kind of him to wait.

Would you be kind enough to wait?

The adverb can come after the verb or after verb + object, but the meaning then changes:

He spoke kindly = His voice and words were kind
is not the same as *It was kind of him to speak to us.*

He paid us generously = He paid more than the usual rate
is not the same as *It was generous of him to pay us.*

Note the difference between:

He answered the questions foolishly (His answers were foolish) and

He foolishly answered the questions. (Answering was foolish./It was foolish of him to answer at all.)

badly and **well** can be used as adverbs of manner or degree. As adverbs of manner they come after an active verb, after the object or before the past participle in a passive verb: .

He behaved badly. *He read well.*

He paid her badly. *She speaks French well.*

She was badly paid.

The trip was well organized.

badly as an adverb of degree usually comes after the object or before the verb or past participle:

The door needs a coat of paint badly

The door badly needs a coat of paint.

He was badly injured in the last match.

well (degree) and **well** (manner) have the same position rules:

I'd like the steak well done.

He knows the town well.

Shake the bottle well.

The children were well wrapped up.

The meaning of **well** may **depend** on its position. Note difference between:

You know well that I can 't drive (There can be no doubt in your mind about this) *and*.

You know that I can 't drive well. (I'm not a good driver.)

well can be placed after **may/might** and **could** to emphasize the probability of an action:

He may well refuse =

It is quite likely that he will refuse.

(For **may/might** as well)

G **somehow, anyhow**

somehow (= in some way or other) can be placed in the front position or after a verb without object or after the object:

Somehow they managed.

They managed somehow.

They raised the money somehow.

anyhow as an adverb of manner is not common. But it is often used to mean "in any case/anyway"

30. Trạng từ chỉ nơi chốn.

(Adverbs of place)

away, everywhere, here, nowhere, somewhere, there etc.

- A If there is no object, these adverbs are usually placed after the verb:

She went away. He lives abroad.

Bill is upstairs.

But they come after verb + object or verb + preposition + object:

She sent him away. I looked for it everywhere.

(But see chapter 38 for verb + adverb combinations such as *pick up, put down* etc.)

Adverb phrases, formed of preposition + noun/pronoun/adverb, follow the above position rules:

The parrot sat on a perch.

He stood in the doorway.

He lives near me.

But see also E below.

- B **somewhere, anywhere** follow the same basic rules as **some** and **any**:

I've seen that man somewhere.

Can you see my key anywhere?

No, I can't see it anywhere

Are you going anywhere? (ordinary question) but

Are you going anywhere? (I assume that you are.)

nowhere, however, is not normally used in this position except in the expression **to get nowhere** (= to achieve nothing/to make no progress):

Threatening people will get you nowhere. (You'll gain no advantage by threatening people.)

But it can be used in short answers:

Where are you going? – Nowhere.

(I'm not going anywhere.)

It can also, in formal English, be placed at the beginning of a sentence and is then followed by an inverted verb:

Nowhere will you find better roses than these.

C here, there can be followed by **be/come/go + noun subject**:

Here 's Tom. There 's Ann.

Here comes the train. There goes our bus.

here and **there** used as above carry more stress than **here/there** placed after the verb. There is also usually a difference in meaning.

Tom is here means he is in this room/building/town etc. But *Here's Tom* implies that he has just appeared or that we have just found him. *Tom comes here* means that it is his habit to come to this place, but *Here comes Tom* implies that he is just arriving/has just arrived. If the subject is a personal pronoun, it precedes the verb in the usual way:

There he is. Here I am. Here it comes.

But **someone** and **something** follow the verb:

There's someone who can help you.

Note that the same sentence, spoken without stress on *There*, would mean that a potential helper exists.

D Someone phoning a friend may introduce himself/herself by **name + here**:

ANN (on phone): *Is that you, Tom? Ann here or This is Ann.*

She must not say *Ann is here or Here is Ann.*

E The adverbs away (=off), down, in, off, out, over, round, up etc can be followed by a verb of motion + a noun subject:

Away when the runners.

Down fell a dozen apples.

Out sprang the cuckoo.

Round and round flew the plane.

But if the subject is a pronoun it is placed before the verb:

Away they went. Round and round it flew.

There is more drama in this order than in subject + verb + adverb but no difference in meaning,

In written English adverb phrases introduced by prepositions (*down, from, in, on, over, out of, round, up* etc.) can be followed by verbs indicating position (*crouch, hang, lie, sit, stand* etc.), by verbs of motion, *by be born, die, live* and sometimes other verbs:

From the rafters hung strings of onions.

In the doorway stood a man with a gun.

On a perch beside him sat a blue parrot.

Over the wall came a shower of stones.

The first three of these examples could also be expressed by a participle and the verb *be*:

Hanging from the rafters were strings of onions.

Standing in the doorway was a man with a gun.

Sitting on a perch beside him was a blue parrot.

But a participle could not be used with the last example unless the shower of stones lasted for some time.

. Trạng từ chỉ thời gian.

(Adverbs of time)

afterwards, eventually, lately, now, recently, soon, then, today, tomorrow etc. and adverb phrases of time: **at once, since then, till.**

These are usually placed at the very beginning or at the very end of the clause. i.e. in front position or end position.

End position is usual with imperatives and phrases with

Eventually he came/He came eventually

Then we went home/We went home then.

Write today. I'll wait till tomorrow.

With compound tenses. **afterwards, eventually, later, now, recently, soon** can come after the auxiliary:

We'll soon be there.

B before, early, immediately and **late** come at the end of clause:

He came late. I'll go immediately.

But **before** and **immediately**, used as conjunctions, are placed at the beginning of the clause:

Immediately the rain stops we'll set out.

C since and **ever since** are used with perfect tenses.

since can come after the auxiliary or in end position: negative or interrogative verb; **ever since** (adverb) in position.

Phrases and clauses with **since** and **ever since** are used in end position, though front position is possible:

He's been in bed since his accident/since he broke his leg.

D yet and **still** (adverbs of time)

yet is normally placed after verb or after verb + object

He hasn't finished (his breakfast) yet.

But if the object consists of a large number of words, it can be placed before or after the verb:

He hasn't yet applied/applied yet for the job we talked to him about.

still is placed after the verb **be** but before other verbs:

She is still in bed.

yet means 'up to the time of speaking'. It is chiefly used with the negative or interrogative.

still emphasizes that the action continues. It is chiefly used with the affirmative or interrogative, but can be used with the negative to emphasize the continuance of a negative action:

He still doesn't understand. (The negative action of 'not understanding' continues.)

He doesn't understand yet. (The positive action of 'understanding' hasn't yet started.)

When stressed, still and yet express surprise, irritation or impatience.

Both words can also be conjunctions

E **just**, as an adverb of time, is used with compound tenses:

I'm just coming.

32. Trạng từ chỉ thường xuyên.

(Adverbs of frequency)

(a) **always, continually, frequently, occasionally, often, once, twice, periodically, repeatedly, sometimes, usually** etc.

(b) **ever, hardly ever, never, rarely, scarcely ever, seldom**

A Adverbs in both the above groups are normally placed:

1 After the simple tenses of to be:

He is always in time for meals.

2 Before the simple tenses of all verbs:

They sometimes stay up all night.

3 With compound tenses, they are placed after the first auxiliary, or, with interrogative verbs, after auxiliary + subject:

He can never understand.

*You have often been told not to do that.
Have you ever ridden a camel?*

Exceptions

(a) **used to** and **have to prefer** the adverb in front of them:

You hardly ever have to remind him; he always remembers.

(b) Frequency adverbs are often placed before auxiliaries when these are used alone, in additions to remarks or in answers to questions:

Can you park your car near the shops?

Yes. I usually can.

I know I should take exercise, but I never do.

and when, in a compound verb, the auxiliary is stressed:

I never can remember

She hardly ever has met him.

Similarly when **do** is added for emphasis:

I always 'do arrive in time!

But emphasis can also be given by stressing the frequency adverb and leaving it in its usual position after the auxiliary:

You should always check your oil before starting.

B Adverbs in group (a) above can also be put at the beginning or end of a sentence or clause.

Exceptions

always is rarely found at the beginning of a sentence/clause except with imperatives.

often, if put at the end, normally requires **very** or **quite**:

Often he walked.

He walked quite often.

C Adverbs in group (b) above, **hardly ever**, **never**, **rarely** etc. (but not **ever** alone), can also be put at the beginning of a sentence, but inversion of the following main verb then becomes necessary:

Hardly/Scarcely ever did they manage to meet unobserved.

hardly/scarcely ever, never, rarely and seldom are not used with negative verbs.

2) **never, ever**

never is chiefly used with an affirmative verb, never with a negative. It normally means 'at no time':

He never saw her again. I've never eaten snails.

They never eat meat. (habit)

I've never had a better flight.

never + affirmative can sometimes replace an ordinary negative:

I waited but he never turned up.

(He didn't turn up.)

never + interrogative can be used to express the speaker's surprise at the non-performance of an action:

Has he never been to Japan?

I'm surprised, because his wife is Japanese.

ever means at any time and is chiefly used in the interrogative:

Has he ever marched in a demonstration?

No, he never has.

ever can be used with a negative verb and, especially with compound tenses, can often replace **never + affirmative**.

I haven't ever eaten snails.

This use of **ever** is less common with simple tenses.

ever + affirmative is possible in comparisons and with suppositions and expressions of doubt:

I don't suppose he ever writes to his mother.

33. Thứ tự của các trạng từ và cụm tr từ chỉ cách thức, nơi chốn, thời gi khi chúng ở cùng một câu.

(Order of adverbs and adverb phrases of manner, place and time when they occur the same sentence)

Expressions of manner usually precede expressions of place:

He climbed awkwardly out of the window.

He'd study happily anywhere.

But away, back, down, forward, home, in, off, on, round and up usually precede adverbs of manner:

He walked away sadly.

She looked back anxiously.

They went home quietly.

They rode on confidently.

here and there do the same except with the adverbs here well, badly: *He stood there silently but They work here here.*

Time expressions can follow expressions of manner a place:

They worked hard in the garden today.

He lived there happily for a year.

But they can also be in front position:

Every day he queued patiently at the bus stop.

34. Trạng từ bổ nghĩa cho cả câu.

(Sentence adverbs)

These modify the whole , sentence/clause and normal express the speaker's/narrator's opinion.

A Adverbs expressing degrees of certainty: (Trạng từ diễn tả ở mức độ chắc chắn)

(a) **actually** (= in fact/really), **apparently**, **certainly**, **clearly**, **evidently**, **obviously**, **presumably**, **probably**, **undoubtedly**.

(b) **definitely**

(c) **perhaps**, **possibly**, **surely**

Adverbs in group (a) above can be placed after be:

He is obviously intelligent.

before simple tenses of other verbs:

They certainly work hard.

He actually lives next door.

after the first auxiliary in a compound verb:

They have presumably sold their house.

at the beginning or at the end of a sentence or clause:

Apparently he knew the town well.

He knew the town well apparently.

definitely can be used in the above positions but is less usual at the beginning of a sentence.

perhaps and **possibly** are chiefly used in front position, though the end position is possible.

surely is normally placed at the beginning or end, though it can also be next to the verb. It is used chiefly in questions:

Surely you could pay £1 ?

You could pay £1, surely?

Note that though the adjectives **sure** and **certain** mean more or less the same, the adverbs differ in meaning.

certainly = **definitely**:

He was certainly there; there is no doubt about it.

But **surely** indicates that the speaker is not quite sure that the statement which follows is true. He thinks it is, but

wants reassurance.

Surely he was there?

(I feel almost sure that he was.)

- B Other sentence adverbs (Các trạng từ chỉ ý phản bác) **admittedly, (un) fortunately, frankly, honestly, (un)luckily, naturally, officially** etc. are usually in the front position though the end position is possible. They are normally separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. Starred adverbs can also be adverbs of manner.

Honestly, Tom didn't get the money. (Sentence adverb. *honestly* here means 'truthfully'. The speaker is assuring us that Tom didn't get the money.)

Tom didn't get the money honestly (adverb of manner)
= *Tom got the money dishonestly.*

35. Trạng từ chỉ cấp độ.

(Adverbs of degree)

absolutely, almost, barely, completely, enough, entirely, extremely, fairly, far, hardly, just, much, nearly, only, quite, rather, really, scarcely, so, too, very etc.

- A An adverb of degree modifies an adjective or another adverb. It is placed before the adjective or adverb:

You are absolutely right. I'm almost ready.

But **enough** follows its adjective or adverb:

The box isn't big enough.

He didn't work quickly enough.

- B **far** requires a comparative, or **too + positive**:

It is far better to say nothing.

He drives far too fast.

much could replace **far** here. It can also be used with a superlative:

This solution is much the best.

- C The following adverbs of degree can also modify verbs: **almost, barely, enough, hardly, just, (a) little, much, nearly, quite, rather, really and scarcely.** All except **much** are then placed before the main verb, like adverbs of frequency.

He almost/nearly fell. I am just going.

Tom didn't like it much but I really enjoyed it.

- D **only** can also modify verbs. In theory it is placed next to the word to which it applies, preceding verbs, adjectives and adverbs and preceding or following nouns and pronouns:

(a) *He had only six apples.* (not more than six)

(b) *He only lent the car.* (He didn't give it.)

(c) *He lent the car to me only.* (not to anyone else)

(d) *I believe only half of what he said.*

But in spoken English people usually put it before the verb, obtaining the required meaning by stressing the word to which the only applies:

He only had 'six apples is the same as (a) above.

He only lent the car to me is the same as (c) above.

I only believe half etc. is the same as (d) above.

- E **just**, like **only**, should precede the word it qualifies:

I'll buy just one. I had just enough money.

It can also be placed immediately before the verb:

I'll just buy one. I just had enough money.

But sometimes this change of order would change the meaning:

Just sign here means *This is all you have to do.*

Sign just here means *Sign in this particular spot.*

fairly, rather, quite, hardly et

36. fairly and rather.

(Hai từ này có nghĩa là khá)

- A Both can mean 'moderately', but **fairly** is chiefly used with 'favourable' adjectives and adverbs (*bravely, good, well* etc.), while **rather** is chiefly used in this sense with 'unfavourable' adjectives and adverbs (*bad, stupidly* etc.):

Tom is fairly clever, but Peter is rather stupid.

I walk fairly fast but Ann walks rather slowly.

Both can be used similarly with participles:

He was fairly relaxed; she was rather tense.

a fairly interesting film a rather boring book .

The indefinite article, if required, precedes **fairly** but comes before or after **rather**:

a fairly light box

a rather heavy box/rather a heavy box

With adjectives/adverbs such as *fast, slow, thin, thick, cold* etc.,

Which are not in themselves either 'favourable' or 'unfavourable', the speaker can express approval by using **fairly** and disapproval by using **rather**: *This soup is fairly hot* implies that the speaker likes hot soup, while *This is rather hot* implies that it is a little too hot for him.

- B **rather** can be used before *alike, like, similar, different* and before comparatives. It then means 'a little' or 'slightly':

Siamese cats are rather like dogs in some ways.

The weather was rather worse than I had expected.

rather a is possible with certain nouns: *disappointment, disadvantage, nuisance, pity, shame* and sometimes *joke*:

It's rather a nuisance (= a little inconvenient) that we can't park here.

It's rather a shame (= a little unfair) that he has to work on Sundays.

fairly cannot be used in these ways.

- C **rather** can be used before certain 'favourable' adjectives/adverbs such as *amusing, clever, good, pretty, well* but its meaning then changes; it becomes nearly equivalent to *very*, and the idea of disapproval vanishes: *She is rather clever* is nearly the same as *She is very clever*. **rather** used in this way is obviously much more complimentary than **fairly**. For example the expression *It is a fairly good play* would, if anything, discourage others from going to see it. But *It is rather a good play* is definitely a recommendation. Occasionally **rather** used in this way conveys the idea of surprise:

I suppose the house was filthy.

No, as a matter of fact it was rather clean.

- D **rather** can also be used before *enjoy, like* and sometimes before *dislike, object* and some similar verbs:

I rather like the smell of petrol.

He rather enjoys queueing.

rather can be used in short answers to questions with the above verbs:

Do you like him? – Yes I do, rather.

rather + *like/enjoy* is often used to express a liking which is a surprise to strengthen the verb: *I rather like Tom* implies more interest than *I like Tom*.

37. Quite.

(*Có hai nghĩa: Hoàn toàn và khá tốt*)

This is a confusing word because it has two meanings.

- A It means 'completely' when it is used with a word or phrase which can express the idea of completeness (*all right, certain, determined, empty, finished, full, ready, right, sure, wrong* etc.) and when it is used with a very strong adjective/adverb such as *amazing, extraordinary, horrible, perfect*:

The bottle was quite empty. You're quite wrong.

It's quite extraordinary;

I can't understand it at all.

- B When used with other adjectives/adverbs, **quite** has a slightly weakening effect, so that **quite good** is normally less complimentary than **good**, **quite** used in this way has approximately the same meaning as *fairly* but its strength can vary very much according to the way it is stressed:
quite good (weak *quite*, strong *good*) is very little less than 'good'.
quite good (equal stress) means 'moderately good'.
quite good (strong *quite*, weak *good*) is much less than 'good'.

The less **quite** is stressed the stronger the following adjective/adverb becomes. The more **quite** is stressed the weaker its adjective/adverb becomes.

Note the position of a/an:

quite along walk

quite an old castle.

38. Hardly, scarcely, barely.

(*Cả ba gần như mang nghĩa phủ định*)

hardly, scarcely and barely are almost negative in meaning.

hardly is chiefly used with **any, ever, at all** or the verb

can:

He has hardly any money. (very little money)

I hardly ever go out. (I very seldom go out.)

It hardly rained at all last summer.

Her case is so heavy that she can hardly lift it.

But it can also be used with other verbs:

I hardly know him.

(I know him only very slightly.)

Be careful not to confuse the adverbs **hard** and **hardly**:

He looked hard at it. (He stared at it.)

He hardly looked at it. (He gave it only a brief glance.)

scarcely can mean 'almost not' and could replace **hardly** as used above: *scarcely any/scarcely ever* etc.

But **scarcely** is chiefly used to mean 'not quite':

There were scarcely twenty people there. (probably fewer)

barely means 'not more than/only just':

There were barely twenty people there. (only just twenty)

I can barely see it. (I can only just see it.)

Sự đảo ngược của động từ.

(*Inversion of the verb*)

39. Inversion of the verb after certain adverbs.

Certain adverbs and adverb phrases, mostly with a restrictive or negative sense, can for emphasis be placed first in a sentence or clause and are then followed by the inverted (i.e. interrogative) form of the verb. The most important of these are shown below. The numbers indicate paragraphs where an example will be found.

<i>hardly ever</i>	<i>on no account</i>
<i>hardly... when</i>	<i>only by</i>
<i>in no circumstances</i>	<i>only in this way</i>
<i>neither/nor</i>	<i>only then/when</i>
<i>never</i>	<i>scarcely ever</i>
<i>no sooner ... than</i>	<i>scarcely ... when</i>
<i>not only</i>	<i>seldom</i>
<i>not till</i>	<i>so</i>
<i>nowhere</i>	

I haven't got a ticket. - Neither/Nor have I.

I had never before been asked to accept a bribe.

Never before had I been asked to accept a bribe.

They not only rob you, they smash everything too.

Not only do they rob you, they smash everything too.

He didn't realize that he had lost it till he got home.

Not till he got home did he realize that he had lost it.

This switch must not be touched on any account.

On no account must this switch be touched.

He was able to make himself heard only by shouting.

Only by shouting was he able to make himself heard.

He became so suspicious that...

So suspicious did he become that ...

Note also that a second negative verb in a sentence can sometimes be expressed by **nor** with inversion:

He had no money and didn't know anyone he could borrow form.

He had no money, nor did he know anyone he could borrow form.

(neither would be less usual here.)

(For adverbs and adverb phrases followed by inversion verb and noun subject, e.g. *Up went the rocket; By the door stood an armed guard.*)

5: CÁCH DÙNG ALL, EACH, EVERY, BOTH, NEITHER, EITHER, SOME, ANY, NO, NONE

40. All, each, every, everyone, everybody, everything.

(for all and each)

A all compared to every (All so sánh với Every)

Technically, all means a number of people or things considered as a group while every means a number of people or things considered individually. But in practice very and its compounds are often used when we are thinking of a group.

B Each (Tính từ và đại từ) và Every (Tính từ)

each (adjective and pronoun) and every (adjective) each means a number of persons or things considered individually.

every can have this meaning but with every there is less

emphasis on the individual.

Every man had a weapon means "All the men had weapons", and implies that the speaker counted the men and the weapons and found that he had the same number of each. *Each man had a weapon* implies that the speaker went to each man in turn and checked that he had a weapon.

each is a pronoun and adjective : *Each (man) knows what to do.*

every is an adjective only: *Every man knows...*

each can be used of two or more persons or things, and is normally used of small numbers. **every** is not normally used of very small numbers.

Both take a singular verb. The possessive adjective is **his/her/its**.

(For the reciprocal pronoun **each other**)

C everyone/everybody and everything (pronouns)

everyone/everybody + singular verb is normally preferred to **all (the) people** + plural verb, i.e. we say *Everyone is ready* instead of *All the people are ready*. There is no difference between **everyone** and **everybody**.

everything is similarly preferred to **all (the) things**.
i.e. we say;

Everything has been wasted instead of *All the things have been wasted*.

The expressions **all (the) people**, **all (the) things** are possible when followed by a phrase or clause:

All the people in the room clapped.

I got all the things you asked for.

Otherwise they are rarely used.

(For pronouns and possessive adjectives with **everyone/everybody**).

41. Cả hai (dùng với động từ số nhiều)

(Both)

both means 'one and the other'. It takes a plural verb.

both can be used alone or followed by a noun:

Both (doors) were open

or by (of) + **the/these/those** or possessives:

both (of) the wheels both (of) your wheels

or by **of** + **us/you/them**:

Both of us knew him.

A personal pronoun + **both** is also possible:

We both knew him. (See 48)

both ... and ... can be used to emphasize a combination of two adjectives, nouns, verbs etc:

It was both cold and wet.

He is both an actor and a director.

He both acts and directs.

42. All/both/each + of and alternative constructions.

A **all** (pronoun) can be followed by **of** + **the/this/these/that/those/possessives** and proper nouns.

both (pronoun) + **of** can be used similarly but with plural forms only.

The **of** here is often omitted especially with **all** + a singular noun/pronoun.

all the town

all (of) Tom's boys

all his life

both (of) the towns

all (of) these both (of) his parents

- B** With **all/both** + **of** + personal pronoun the **of** cannot be omitted:

all of it

both of them

But there is an alternative construction, personal pronoun **all/both**:

all of it is replaceable by *it all*.

all of us = *we all* (subject), *us all* (object).

all of you is replaceable by *you all*.

all of them = *they all* (subject), *them all* (object).

Similarly:

both of us = *we both* or *us both*

both of you = *you both*

both of them = *they both* or *them both*

All of them were broken = *They were all broken*.

All/Both of us went = *We all/both went*.

We ate all/both the cakes.

We ate all/both of them.

We ate them all/both.

- C** When one of these pronoun + **all/both** combinations is the subject of a compound tense the auxiliary verb usually precedes **all/both**:

We are all waiting. *You must both help me*.

be is also placed before **all/both** except when it is used in short answers etc.:

We are all/both ready but

Who is ready? - *We all are/We both are*.

Other auxiliaries used alone and simple tenses of ordinary verbs follow **all/both**.

You all have maps - *They both knew where to go*.

D **each**, like **both**, can be followed by **of + these/ those** etc. (Plural forms only). The **of** here cannot be omitted:

each of the boys *each of these*

each of us/you/them can, however, be replaced by pronoun + **each**:

each of you = you each

each of us = we each (subject), *us each* (indirect object)

each of them = they each (subject), *them each* (indirect object)

We each sent in a report.

They gave us each a form to fill in.

Note that **each of us/you/them** is singular;

Each of us has a map.

But **we/you/they each** is plural:

We each have a map.

Verbs used with **we/you/they each** follow the patterns given in C above for **all** and **both**:

They have each been questioned.

43. **Neither, either** : có nghĩa "không này không kia" "cả cái này cả cái kia"

A 1 **neither** means 'not one and not the other'. It takes an affirmative singular verb. It can be used by itself or followed by a noun or by **of + the/these/those/ possessives** or personal pronouns:

(a) *I tried both keys but neither (of them) worked.*

(b) *Neither of them knew the way/Neither boy knew...*

(c) *I've read neither of these (books).*

2 **either** means 'any one of two'. It takes a singular verb and,

like **neither**, can be used by itself or followed by a noun/pronoun or by **of + the/these/those** etc.

- 3 **either** + negative verb can replace **neither** + affirmative except when **neither** is the subject of a verb. So **either** could not be used in (a) or (b) above but could in (c):

I haven't read either of these (books).

Though **either** cannot be the subject of a negative verb, it can be subject or object of an affirmative or interrogative verb:

Either (of these) would do.

Would you like either of these?

- 4 Pronouns and possessive adjectives with **neither/either** used of people should technically be **he/him, she/her** and **his/her**, but in colloquial English the plural forms are generally used:

Neither of them knows the way, do they?

Neither of them had brought their passports.

- B **neither ... nor; either ... or**

neither ... nor + affirmative verb is an emphatic way of combining two negatives:

(a) *Neither threats nor arguments had any effect on him.*

(b) *They said the room was large and bright but it was neither large nor bright.*

(c) *He neither wrote nor phoned.*

either ... or + negative verb can replace **neither... nor** except when **neither... nor** is the subject of a verb, as in (a) above. So:

(b) *... but it wasn't either large or bright and*

(c) *he didn't either write or phone.*

can be the subject or object of affirmative or interrogative verbs and is used in this way to express alternatives emphatically:

You can have either soup or fruit juice. (not both)

You must either go at once or wait till tomorrow.

It's urgent, so could you either phone or telex?

44. Some, any, no and none.

(Tính từ và Đại từ)

A1 **some** and **any** mean 'a certain number or amount'. They are used with or instead of plural or uncountable nouns. (For **some/any** with singular nouns, see C below.)

some is a possible plural form of **a/an** and **one**: (Some là hình thức số nhiều của a/an và one)

Have a biscuit/some biscuits.

I ate a date/some dates.

some, any and **none** can be used with **of + the/this/these/those/possessives/personal pronouns**:

Some of the staff can speak Japanese.

Did any of your photos come out well?

2 **some** is used:

With affirmative verbs:

They bought some honey.

In questions where the answer 'yes' is expected:

Did some of you sleep on the floor? (I expect so.)

In offers and requests:

Would you like some wine?

Could you do some typing for me?

(See also C.)

3 **any** is used:

With negative verbs:

I haven't any matches.

With **hardly**, **barely**, **scarcely** (which are almost negatives):

I have hardly any spare time.

With **without** when **without any...** = **with no...**

He crossed the frontier without any difficulty/with difficulty.

With questions except the types noted above:

Have you got any money?

Did he catch any fish?

After **if/whether** and in expressions of doubt:

If you need any more money, please let me know.

I don't think there is any petrol in the tank.

(See also C.)

B **no** (Tính từ) and **none** (Đại từ)

no and **none** can be used with affirmative verbs to express a negative:

I have no apples. I had some last year but I have none this year.

no + noun can be the subject of a sentence:

No work was done.

No letter (s) arrived.

none as the subject is possible but not very usual:

We expected letters, but none came.

none + **of**, however, is quite usual as subject:

None of the tourists wanted to climb the mountain.

C **some** or **any** used with singular, countable nouns (Some

any dùng với danh từ đếm được số ít)

some here usually means 'an unspecified or unknown':

Some idiot parked his car outside my garage.

or other can be added to emphasize that the speaker isn't very interested.

He doesn't believe in conventional medicine; he has some remedy or other of his own.

any can mean 'practically every', 'no particular (one)':

Any book about riding will tell you how to saddle a horse.

Any dictionary will give you the meaning of these words.

45. Someone, somebody, something, anyone, anybody, anything, no one, nobody, nothing.

A Compounds with **some**, **any** and **no** follow the above rules:
(Những từ ghép với **some**, **any** và **no** theo quy luật trên)

Someone wants to speak to you on the phone.

Someone/Somebody gave me a ticket for the pop concert.

No one/Nobody has ever given me a free ticket for anything.

Do you want anything from the chemist?

Would anyone/anybody like a drink?

Note also:

I drink anything = I don't mind what I drink.

Anyone will tell you where the house is.

- B** someone, somebody, anyone, anybody, no one, nobody can be possessive:

Someone's passport has been stolen.

Is this somebody's/anybody's seat?

I don't want to waste anyone's time.

- C** Các đại từ sở hữu và tính từ sở hữu đi đôi với **someone, somebody, anyone, anybody, no one, nobody, everyone everybody**

These expressions have a singular meaning and take a singular verb so personal pronouns and possessive adjectives should logically be **he/she, him/her, his/ her**. However in colloquial English plural forms are more common:

Has anyone left their luggage on the train?

No one saw Tom go out, did they?

But with **something, anything, nothing** we still use it:

Something went wrong, didn't it?

46. Else placed after someone/anybody/ nothing etc.

- A** someone/somebody/something, anyone/anybody/ anything, no one/nobody/nothing, everyone/ everybody/everything and the adverbs somewhere, anywhere, nowhere, everywhere can be followed by else

someone else/somebody else = some other person

anyone else/anybody else = any other person

no one else/nobody else = no other person

everyone else/everybody else =

every other person

something else = some other thing

I'm afraid I can't help you.
You'll have to ask someone else.
There isn't anyone else!
There's no one else to ask.

else used with adverbs:

somewhere else = in/at/to some other place
anywhere else = in/at/to any other place
nowhere else = in/at/to no other place
Are you going anywhere else?

B someone/somebody, anyone/anybody, no one/ nobody + else can be possessive:

I took someone else's coat.
Was anyone else's luggage opened?
No one else's luggage was opened.

47. Another, other, others with one and some.

A another, other, others

	Adjective (Tính từ)	Pronoun (Đại từ)
Singular (Số nhiều)	<i>another</i>	<i>another</i>
Plural	<i>other</i>	<i>others</i>

Have you met Bill's sisters? - I've met one. I didn't know he had another (sister). - Oh, he has two others/two other sisters.

B one ... another/other (s), some... other (s)

One student suggested a play, another (student)/ot students/others wanted a concert.

Some tourists/Some of the tourists went on the beach others explored the town.

C one another and each other (lẫn nhau)

Tom and Ann looked at each other =

Tom looked at Ann and Ann looked at Tom.

Both **one another** and **each other** can be used of two or more, but **each other** is frequently preferred when there are more than two.

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6: CÁCH DÙNG CÂU HỎI Wh-? và How?

48. Tính từ và Đại từ nghi vấn.

(Interrogative adjectives and pronouns)

For persons:	subject	<i>who</i> (pronoun)
	object	<i>whom, who</i> (pronoun)
	possessive	<i>whose</i> (pronoun and adjective)
For things:	subject/object	<i>what</i> (pronoun and adjective)
	For persons or things when the choice is restricted: subject/object <i>which</i> (pronoun and adjective)	

The same form is used for singular and plural

What can also be used for persons.

49. Động từ xác định sau Who, Whose dùng như chủ từ ngữ.

(Affirmative verb after who, whose etc. used as subjects)

who, whose, which, what when used as subjects are normally followed by an affirmative, not an interrogative, verb:

Who pays the bills? (affirmative verb)

Whose/Which horse won? (affirmative verb)

What happened? What went wrong? (affirmative verb)

possible answers: We missed the train/had an accident.)

But with **who, whose** etc, + **be** + noun or personal/distributive pronoun, an interrogative verb is used

Who are you?

Whose is this?

What is that noise?

With **who, whose** etc, used as objects of a verb or preposition an interrogative verb is, of course, necessary.

50. Những ví dụ dùng Who, Whom, Whose, Which và What.

(Examples of the use who, whom, whose, which and what)

A **who, whom, whose**

who as subject:

Who keeps the keys? (affirmative verb)

Who took my gun? (affirmative verb)

Who are these boys? (interrogative verb)

who, whom as objects of a verb:

Normal English: *Who did you see?*

Very formal English: *Whom did the committee appoint?*

whose as subject:

Whose car broke down? (affirmative verb)

Whose (books) are these? (interrogative verb)

whose as object of a verb:

Whose umbrella did you borrow?

B **which**

which as subject:

Which pigeon arrived first? (affirmative verb)

Which of them is the eldest? (affirmative verb)

which as object of a verb:

Which hand do you use?

Which of these dates would you prefer?

C **what**

what as subject:

What caused the explosion? (affirmative verb)

What kind of tree is that? (interrogative verb)

what as object of a verb:

What paper do you read? What did they eat?

51. Những túc từ của giới từ là who, whom, which và what.

(who, whom, which and what as objects of prepositions)

A **who, whom**

In formal English we use preposition + whom:

With whom did you go?

To whom were you speaking?

But in ordinary English we usually move the preposition to the end of the sentence. The **whom** then normally changes to **who**:

Who did you go with ?

Who were you speaking to?

B which, what

In formal English we use preposition + **which/what**:

To which address did you send it?

On what do you base your theory?

In informal English we move the preposition to the end of the sentence:

Which address did you send it to?

What do you base your theory on?

52. Cách sử dụng của What.

(Uses of what)

A what is a general interrogative used for things:

What bird is that? What makes that noise?

What country do you come from?

What did he say?

B what...for? means 'why?':

What did you do that for? = Why did you do that?

C what + be ... like? is a request for a description and can be used for things or people:

What was the exam like? - It was very difficult.

What was the weather like? - It was very windy.

What's the food like in your hostel? -

It's quite good.

Used of people it may concern either appearance or character:

He's short and fat and wears glasses.

He's a very talkative, friendly man.

what does he/she/it look like? concerns appearance and can also mean 'What does he/she/it resemble?':

What does she look like? -

She is tall and glamorous. She looks like a film star.

What does it look like? -

It's black and shiny. It looks like coal.

D **what is he?** means 'What is his profession?'

What is his father? ~ He is a tailor.

what (adjective) used for persons is not common: *What students are you talking about?* is possible, but *Which students...?* would be much more usual.

E **what and how** in questions about measurements

We can use **what + age/depth/height/length/width** but in conversation it would be more usual to say **how old/deep/high/tall/long/wide?**

what size/weight? is usual when an exact answer is required, **though how big/heave?** is also possible.

What age are you?/What is your age?/

How old are you?

What height is he? What is his height?/

How tall is he?

What is the weight of the parcel?/

How heavy is it?

What size do you take in shoes?

53. Which so sánh với Who và What.

(which compared with who and what)

A examples of **which** and **what** used for things:

What will you have to drink?

There's gin, whisky and sherry: which will you have?

What does it cost to get to Scotland? - It depends on how you go

Which (way) is the cheapest or Which is the cheapest (way)?

I've seen the play and the film. - What did you think of them?

Which (of them) did you like best?

- B Examples of **which** and **who** used for people:

Who do you want to speak to? - I want to speak to Mr Smith

We have two Smiths here. Which (of them) do you want?

which (pronoun) of people is not used alone as subject of verb:

Which of you knows the formula? ('of you' is essential.)

Who knows the formula? would also be possible.

- C **which** (adjective) can be used of people when there is only a very slight idea of restriction:

Which poet (of all the poets) do you like best?

what would be possible here and would be more logical, but **what** (adjective) for people is normally avoided.

54. Những trạng từ ghi vấn: Why, When, Where, how.

(Interrogative adverbs: why, when, where, how)

- A **why?** means 'for what reason?':

Why was he late? - He missed the bus.

- B **when?** means 'at what time?':

When do you get up? - 7 a.m.

- C **where?** means 'in what place?':

Where do you live? - In London.

- D **how?** means 'in what way?':

How did you come? - I came by plane.

How do you start the engine? -

You press this button.

how can also be used:

1 With adjectives:

How strong are you?

How important is this letter?

2 With **much** and **many**:

How much (money) do you want?

How many (pictures) did you buy?

3 With adverbs:

How fast does he drive?

How often do you go abroad?

How badly was he hurt?

How soon can you come?

Note that *How is she?* is an enquiry about her health, but *What is she like?* is a request for a description. (See 58 C.)

Do not confuse *How are you?* with *How do you do?* When two people are introduced each says *How do you do?* This is a greeting rather than a question.

55. Đặt Ever sau who, what, where, why, when, how.

(ever placed after who, what, where, why, when, how)

Where ever have you been? I've been looking for you everywhere!

Who ever told you I'd lend you the money? I've no money at all!

ever here is not necessary in the sentence but is added to

emphasize the speaker's surprise/astonishment/anger/irritation/dismay. It has the same meaning as *on earth/in the world*.

Such sentences are always spoken emphatically and the intonation will convey the speaker's emotion:

Why ever did you wash it in boiling water? (dismay)
Who ever are you?

(The other person is presumably an intruder.)

Who ever left the door open?

(What stupid person left it open?)

Where ever have you put my briefcase?

(I can't find it anywhere.)

What ever are you doing in my car?

(astonishment/annoyance)

When ever did you leave home?

(You must have left very early.)

How ever did he escape unhurt?

(The car was a complete wreck.)

Note also **why ever not?** and **what ever for?:**

You mustn't wear anything green. - Why ever not.

(I can't understand the reason for this prohibition.)

Bring of knife to class tomorrow. - What ever for?

(I can't understand what I need a knife for.)

(For **whoever**, **whatever** etc. written as one word).

7: ĐẠI TỪ SỞ HỮU, NHÂN XUNG VÀ PHẢN THÂN (My, mine, I, myself)

56. Tính từ sở hữu và đại từ sở hữu. (Possessive adjectives and pronouns)

Possessive adjectives	Possessive Pronouns
<i>my</i>	<i>mine</i>
<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>
<i>his/her/its</i>	<i>his/hers</i>
<i>our</i>	<i>ours</i>
<i>your</i>	<i>yours</i>
<i>their</i>	<i>theirs</i>

Note that no apostrophes are used here. Students should guard against the common mistake of writing the possessive *its* with an apostrophe. *it's* (with an apostrophe) means *it is*.

The old form of the second person singular can be found in some bibles and pre-twentieth century poetry:

thy *thine*

one's is the possessive adjective of the pronoun **one**.

57. Sự phối hợp và cách dùng tính từ sở hữu.

(Agreement and use of possessive adjectives)

- A. possessive adjectives in English refer to the possessor and not to the everything that a woman or girl possesses is **her** thing:

Tom's father is his father but

Mary's father is her father.

Everything that an animal or thing possesses is **its** thing:

A tree drops its leaves in autumn.

A happy dog wags its tail.

But if the sex of the animal is known, **his/her** would often be used.

If there is more than one possessor, there is used:

The girls are with their brother.

Trees drop their leaves in autumn.

Note that the **possessive** adjective remains the same whether the thing possessed is singular or plural:

my glove, my gloves

his foot, his feet

- B. Possessive adjectives are used with clothes and parts of the body:

She changed her shoes. He injured his back.

- C. To add emphasis, **own** can be placed after **my, your, his** etc. and after **one's**:

my own room

her own idea

own can be an adjective, as above, or a pronoun:

a room of one's own

Note the expression:

I'm on my own = I'm alone.

58. Đại từ sở hữu thay thế cho tính từ sở hữu + Danh từ.

(Possessive pronouns replacing possessive adjectives + nouns)

- A *This is our room or This (room) is ours.
This is their car. That car is theirs too.
You've got my pen.
You're using mine. Where's yours?*
- B The expression of mine etc. means 'one of my' etc.:
*a friend of mine = one of my friends
a sister of hers = one of her sisters*

59. Đại từ nhân xưng.

(Personal pronouns)

A Form (hình thức)

		Subject (chủ ngữ)	Object (tân ngữ)
Singular: (Số ít)	first person	<i>I</i>	<i>me</i>
	second person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
	third person	<i>he/she/it</i>	<i>him/her/it</i>
Plural: (Số nhiều)	first person	<i>we</i>	<i>us</i>
	second person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
	third person	<i>they</i>	<i>them</i>

The old form of the second person singular is:

thou (subject) *thee* (object)

B Use of subject and object forms : Cách dùng hình thức chủ ngữ và tân ngữ

1 **you** and it present no difficulty as they have the same form for subject and object:

Did you see snake? - Yes, I saw it and it saw me. - Is it frighten you?

2 first and third person forms (other than it)

(a) **I, he, she, we, they** can be subjects of a verb:

I see it. He knows you. They live here.

or complements of the verb to be: *It is I.*

Normally, however, we use the object forms here:

Who is it? - It's me

Where's Tom? - That's him over there.

But if the pronoun is followed by a clause, we use the subject forms:

Blame Bill! It was he who chose this colour.

(b) **me, him, her, us, them** can be direct objects of a verb:

I saw her Tom likes them.

or indirect objects:

Bill found me a job. Ann gave him a book.

or objects of a preposition:

with him for her without them to us

60. Vị trí của đại từ làm tân ngữ.

(The position of pronoun objects)

A An indirect object comes before a direct object: (tân ngữ gián tiếp đứng trước tân ngữ trực tiếp)

I made Ann/her a cake. I sent Bill the photos.

However, if the direct object is a personal pronoun it is

more usual to place it directly after the verb and use to or for: (Tuy nhiên, nếu tân ngữ trực tiếp là một đại từ nhân xưng thì nó thường đứng ngay sau động từ và dùng "to" hoặc "for" để nối với tân ngữ gián tiếp).

I made it for her. I sent them to him.

The position rule does not apply to **one, some, any, none** etc.:

He bought one for Ann or He bought Ann one.

He gave something to Jack or He gave Jack something.

- B Pronoun objects of phrasal verbs (đại từ làm tân ngữ của những cụm động từ)

With many phrasal verbs a noun object can be either in the middle or at the end:

Hand your papers in/Hand in your papers.

Hang your coat up/Hang up your coat.

Take your shoes off/Take off your shoes.

A pronoun object, however, **must** be placed in the middle:

hand them in hang it up take them off

61. Các cách dùng của It .

(Uses of it)

- A It is normally used of a thing or an animal whose sex we don't know and sometimes of a baby or small child:

Where's my map? I left it on the table.

Look at that bird. It always comes to my window.

Her new baby is tiny. It only weighs 2 kilos.

- B it can be used of people in sentences such as: (It được dùng cho người ở những câu như là)

ANN (on phone): *Who is that/Who is it?*

BILL: *It's me.*

Is that Tom over there? - No, it's Peter

- C It is used in expressions of time, distance, weather, temperature, tide: (It dùng trong các thành ngữ chỉ thời gian, khoảng cách, thời tiết, nhiệt độ, thủy triều)

What time is it? - It is six.

What's the date? - It's the third of March.

How far is it to York? - It is 400 kilometres.

How long does it take to get there? - It depends on how you go.

It is raining/snowing/freezing. It's frosty.

It's a fine night.

It's full moon tonight.

In winter it's/it is dark at six o'clock.

It is hot/cold/quiet/noisy in this room.

It's high tide/low tide.

Note also:

It's/It is three years since I saw him =

I haven't seen him for three years.

(For it is time + subject + past tense.)

- D Introductory it: Dùng để mở đầu

- 1 It can introduce sentences of the following type ('cleft sentences):

It was Peter who lent us the money. (not Paul)

It's today that he's going. (not tomorrow)

it is used even with a plural noun:

It's pilots that we need, not ground staff.

- 2 When an infinitive is subject of a sentence, we usually begin the sentence with is and put the infinitive later; i.e. we say:

It is easy to criticize instead of

To criticize is easy.

It is better to be early instead of

To be early is better.

*It seems a pity to give up now instead of
To give up now seems a pity.*

If **it + be** is preceded by **find/think (that)**, the **be** and the **that** can often be omitted:

He thought (that) it (would be) better to say nothing.

We found it impossible to get visas.

3 It can be used similarly when the subject of a sentence is a clause. It would be possible to say:

That he hasn't phoned is odd.

That prices will go up is certain.

But it would be much more usual to say:

It's odd that he hasn't phoned.

It's certain that prices will go up.

Other examples:

It never occurred to me that perhaps he was lying.

It struck me that everyone was unusually silent.

E **it/this** can represent a previously mentioned phrase, clause or verb:

He smokes in bed, though I don't like it. (it = his smoking in bed)

He suggested flying, but I thought it would cost too much.

(it = flying)

F **it** also acts as a subject for impersonal verbs:

it seems it appears it looks it happens

62. You, one và they được dùng như những đại từ không xác định.

(you, one and they as indefinite pronouns)

A you and one

As subjects, either can be used:

Can you/one camp in the forest?

As objects, **you** is the normal pronoun:

They fine you for parking offences.

you is **more** common in ordinary conversation. It is a more 'friendly' pronoun and implies that the speaker can imagine himself in such a position.

one is **more** impersonal and less often used, though the possessive **one's** is quite common:

It's easy to lose one's/your way in Venice.

The correct possessive form must be used:

One has to show one's pass at the door.

You have to show your pass at the door.

If instead of **one** or **you** we use a singular noun, the possessive adjective will obviously be **his** or **her**:

One must do one's best.

A traveller has to guard his possessions.

B **they**

they is used as subject only they can mean 'people'

they say = people say, it is said

They say it is going to be a cold winter.

they can also mean 'the authority concerned', i. e. the government/ the local council/one's employers/the police etc...

They want to make this a one - way street.

63. Cách dùng của **they/them/their** with **neither/either, someone/everyone/no one** etc.

These expressions are singular and take singular verb. The personal pronouns therefore should be **he/she** and the possessive adjectives should be **his/her** (he/his for males and mixed sexes, **she/her** for females). But many native speakers find this troublesome and often use **they/their**, even when only one sex is involved:

*Neither of them remembered their instructions.
 Would someone lend me their binoculars?
 Everyone has read the notice, haven't they?
 No one objected, did they?*

64. Đại từ phản thân.

(Reflexive pronouns)

- A These are: **myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves**. Note the difference between the second person singular **yourself**, and the second person plural **yourselves**. The indefinite reflexive/emphasizing pronoun is **oneself**.
- B **myself, yourself** etc. are used as objects of a verb when the action of the verb returns to the doer, i.e. when subject and object are the same person:

*I cut myself. He can't shave himself.
 It is not always easy to amuse oneself on holiday.
 Tom and Ann blamed themselves for the accident.
 This refrigerator defrosts itself.*

Note the change of meaning if we replace the reflexive pronoun by the reciprocal pronoun **each other**:

Tom and Ann blamed each other. (Tom blamed Ann and Ann blamed Tom)

- C **myself, yourself** etc. are used similarly after a verb + preposition:

*He spoke to himself Did she pay for herself?
 Look after yourself Take care of yourselves.
 I'm annoyed with myself.
 He sat by himself (alone)
 She addressed the envelope to herself.*

But if the preposition indicates locality, we use the ordinary, not the reflexive, pronouns:

*Did you take your dog with you?
They put the child between them.
Had he/Did he have any money on him?*

65. Myself, himself, herself ... Dùng như Đại từ nhấn mạnh.

myself etc. can also be used to emphasize a noun or pronoun:

The King himself gave her the medal.

self is then stressed in speech.

When used in this way the pronoun is never essential and can be omitted without changing the sense. It usually emphasizes the subject of the sentence and is placed after it:

Ann herself opened the door. Tom himself went.

Alternatively it can be placed after the object if there is one:

Ann opened the door herself

or after an intransitive verb:

Tom went himself.

If the intransitive verb is followed by a preposition + noun, the emphasizing pronoun can be placed after this noun:

Tom went to London himself or Tom himself went to London.

When it emphasizes another noun it is placed immediately after it:

I saw Tom himself.

I spoke to the President himself.

She liked the diamond itself but not the setting.

Note the difference between:

I did it myself (It was done by me and not by someone else) and

I did it by myself (I did it without help).

8: ĐẠI TỪ QUAN HỆ VÀ MỆNH ĐỀ QUAN HỆ

Relative pronouns and clauses

Có 3 loại mệnh đề quan hệ: Xác định và liên hợp

66. Mệnh đề quan hệ xác định.

(Defining relative clauses)

These describe the preceding noun in such a way as to distinguish it from other nouns of the same class. A clause of this kind is essential to the clear understanding of the noun. In the sentence:

The man who told me this refused to give me his name
'who told me this' is the relative clause. If we omit this, it is not clear what man we are talking about. Notice that there is no comma between a noun and a defining relative clause. Defining relative clauses usually follow the + noun, but they can also be used with a/an + noun, plural nouns without **the** and the pronouns **all, none, anybody, somebody** etc. and **those**.

Clauses following a/an + noun, plural nouns without the and **somebody/someone/something** sometimes define the noun/pronoun only indirectly. The noun/ pronoun in these cases is usually the object of a verb or preposition:

I met someone who said he knew you.

The book is about a girl who falls in love with...

Sometimes these clauses are separated from their noun/pronoun by a word or phrase:

There's a man here who wants...

I saw something in the paper which would interest you.

But normally relative clauses should be placed directly aft their noun or pronoun:

The noise that he made woke everybody up.

She was annoyed by something that I had said.

67. Đại từ quan hệ dùng trong mệnh đề quan hệ.

(Relative pronouns used in defining relative clauses)

The forms are as follows:

	Subject	Object	Possessive
For persons	<i>who</i> <i>that</i>	<i>whom/who</i> <i>that</i>	<i>whose</i>
For things	<i>which</i> <i>that</i>	<i>which</i> <i>that</i>	<i>whose/of which</i>

68. Mệnh đề quan hệ dùng cho người.

(Defining relative clauses: Persons)

- A Subject : **Who** or **that** (chủ từ : who hoặc that)
who is normally used:

The man who robbed you has been arrested.

The girls who serve in the shop are the owner's daughters.

Only those who had booked in advance were allowed in.

Would anyone who saw the accident please get in touch with the police?

But **that** is a possible alternative after **all, everyone, everybody, no one, nobody** and **those**:

Everyone who/that know him liked him.

Nobody who/that watched the match will ever forget it.

- B Object of a verb: **whom** or **who** or **that** (Tân ngữ của động từ: whom, who, that)

The object form is **whom**, but this is considered very formal. In spoken

English we normally use **who** or **that** (**that** being more usual than **who**), and it is still more common to omit the object pronoun altogether:

The man whom I saw told me to come back to day or

The man who I saw ... or The man that I saw ... or

The man I saw ... (relative pronoun omitted)

The girls whom he employs are always complaining about their pay or

The girls who he employ ... or the girls that he employs ... or

The girls he employs...

- C With a preposition: **whom** or **that** (với giới từ: **whom** hay **that**)

In formal English the preposition is placed before the relative pronoun, which must then be put into the form **whom**:

the man to whom I spoke.

In informal speech, however, it is more usual to move the preposition to the end of the clause. **whom** then is often replaced by **that**, but it is still more common to omit the relative altogether:

the man who/whom I spoke to or

the man that I spoke to or the man I spoke to

Similarly:

The man from whom I bought it told me to oil it or

The man who/that I bought it from... or

The man I bought it from...

The friend with whom I was travelling spoke French or

the friend who/that I was travelling with ... or

The friend I was travelling with...

- D Possessive (Sở hữu)

whose is the only possible form:

People whose rents have been raised can appeal.

The film is about a spy whose wife betrays him.

69. Mệnh đề quan hệ xác định cho vật.

(Defining relative clauses: things)

- A Subject (chủ ngữ)

Either **which** or **that**, **which** is the more formal:

This is the picture which/that caused such a sensation.

The stairs which/that lead to the cellar are rather slippery.

- B Object of a verb (Tân ngữ cho một động từ)
which or **that**, or no relative at all:

The car which/that I hired broke down or The car I hired...

which is hardly ever used after **all**, **everything**, **little**, **much**, **none**, **no** and compounds of **no**, after superlatives. Instead we use **that**, or omit the relative altogether, if it is the object of a verb:

All the apples that fall are eaten by the pigs.

This is the best hotel (that) I know.

- C Object of a preposition (Tân ngữ cho một giới từ)

The formal construction is preposition + **which**, but it is more usual to move the preposition to the end of the clause, using **which** or **that** or omitting the relative altogether:

The ladder on which I was standing began to slip or

The ladder which/that I was standing on began to slip or

The ladder I was standing on began to slip.

- D Possessive (sở hữu)

whose + a clause is possible but **with** + a phrase is more usual:

a house whose walls were made of glass

a house with glass walls

- E Relative adverbs: **when**, **where**, **why** (trạng từ quan hệ: **when**, **where**, **why**)

Note that **when** can replace **in/on which** (used of time):

the year when (= in which) he was born

the day when (= on which) they arrived

where can replace in/at which (used of place):

the hotel where (= in/at which) they were staying

why can replace for which:

The reason why he refused is...

when, where and why used in this way are called relative adverbs.

70. Tách câu : it + Be + Danh từ/Đại từ Mệnh đề quan hệ xác định.

(Cleft sentences: it + be + noun/pronoun + defining relative clause)

It was Tom who helped us. (not Bill or Jack)

It was Ann that I saw. (not Mary)

When the object is a proper noun, as above, **that** is more usual than **who**. With all other objects, **that** is the correct form:

It's the manager that we want to see.

It was wine that we ordered. (not beer)

that is usual for non-personal subjects:

It's speed that causes accidents, not bad roads.

71. Mệnh đề quan hệ thay thế bởi động từ nguyên mẫu hoặc phân từ.

(A relative clause replaced by an infinitive or a participle)

A Infinitives can be used:

(Các nguyên mẫu có thể được dùng là)

1 After the **first/second** etc. and after **the last/only** and

sometimes after superlatives:

the last man to leave the ship =

the last man who left/leaves the ship

the only one to understand =

the only one who understood/understands

Notice that the infinitive here replaces a subject pronoun + verb. It could not be used to replace an object pronoun + verb. For example the clause in *the first man that we saw* could not be replaced by an infinitive, for the first man to see would have a completely different meaning. If, however, that is the subject of a passive verb, e.g. *the first man that was seen*, we can replace the clause by a passive infinitive: *the first man to be seen*.

- 2) When there is an idea of purpose or permission: (khi có một ý tưởng của mục đích hay sự cho phép)

He has a lot of books to read. (books that he can/must read)

She had something to do. (something that she could do/had to do)

They need a garden to play in. (a garden they can play in)

Note that here the infinitive replaces a verb + relative pronoun as object.

It might be thought that these two uses of the infinitive would lead to confusion but in practice this is very rare as the meaning of the infinitive is made clear by the rest of the sentence.

By itself the phrase *the first man to see* could mean either *the first man that we must see* (*man* is the object) or *the first man who saw* (*man* is the subject) but when it is part of a sentence we can at once which meaning is intended:

The first man to see is Tom =

The first man that we must see is Tom, while

The first man to see me was Tom =

The first man who saw me was Tom.

B Present participles can be used: (phân từ hiện tại có thể được dùng)

1 When the verb in the clause is in the continuous tense:

People who are/were waiting for the bus often shelter/sheltered in my doorway =

People waiting for the bus often shelter/sheltered...

2 When the verb in the clause expresses a habitual or continuous action:

Passengers who travel/travelled on this bus buy/bought their tickets in books = Passengers travelling...

Boys who attend/attended this school have/had to wear uniform =

Boys attending...

a law which forbids/forbade the import = a law forbidding the import

a notice which warns/warned people = a notice warning people

an advertisement which urges/urged = an advertisement urging

similarly:

a petition asking a letter ordering/demanding/telling

a placard protesting placards protesting

3 When a verb in the clause expresses a wish, i.e. when the verb in the clause is wish, desire, want, hope (but not like):

people who wish/wished to go on the tour =

people wishing to go on the tour

fans who hope/hoped for a glimpse of the star = fans hoping for a glimpse of the star

- 4 A non-defining clause (see 72 below) containing one of the above verbs, or any verb of knowing or thinking, e.g. *know*, *think*, *believe*, *expect*, can be similarly replaced by a present participle:

Peter, who thought the journey would take two days, said ... =

Peter, thinking the journey would take two days, said ...

Tom, who expected to be paid the following week, offered ... =

Bill, who wanted to make an impression on Ann, took her to ... =

Bill, wanting to make an impression on Ann, took her to ...

72. Mệnh đề quan hệ không xác định.

(*Non - defining relative clauses*)

- A Non-defining relative clauses are placed after nouns which are definite already. They do not therefore define the noun, but merely add something to it by giving some more information about it. Unlike defining relative clauses, they are not essential in the sentence and can they are separated from their noun by commas. The pronoun can never be omitted in a non-defining relative clause. The construction is fairly formal and more common in written than in spoken English.
- B Relative pronouns used in non-defining relative clauses:

	Subject (Chủ ngữ)	Object (Tân ngữ)	Possessive (Sở hữu)
For persons	<i>who</i>	<i>whom/who</i>	<i>whose</i>
For things	<i>which</i>	<i>which</i>	<i>whose/of which</i>

73: Mệnh đề không xác định dùng cho người.

(Non-defining relative clauses : persons)

A. Subject : **who** (Chủ ngữ : who)

No other pronoun is possible. Note the commas:

My neighbor, who is very pessimistic, says there will be no apples this year.

Peter, who had been driving all day, suggested stopping at the next town.

Clauses such as these, which come immediately after the subject of the main verb, are found mainly in written English. In spoken English we would be more likely to say

My neighbour is very pessimistic and says...

Peter had been driving all day, so and he suggested.

But clauses placed later in the sentence, i.e. clauses coming after the object of the main verb, are quite common in conversation:

I've invited Ann, who lives in the next flat.

Clauses following a preposition + noun are also common:

I passed the letter to Peter, who was sitting beside me.

B. Object : **whom, who** (Tân ngữ: whom, who)

The pronoun cannot be omitted. **whom** is the correct form though **who** is sometimes used in conversation:

Peter, whom everyone suspected, turned out to be innocent.

As noted above, a non-defining clause in this position is unusual in spoken English. We would be more likely to say:

Everyone suspected Peter, but he turned out to be innocent.

But non-defining clauses coming later in the sentence, i.e. after the object of the main verb or after a preposition + noun, are common in conversation:

She wanted Tom, whom she liked, as a partner; but she got Jack, whom she didn't like.

She introduced me to her husband, whom I hadn't met before.

- 2 Object of a preposition: **whom** (Tân ngữ của một giới từ: whom)

The pronoun cannot be omitted. The preposition is normally placed before **whom**:

Mr Jones, for whom I was working, was very generous about overtime payments.

It is however possible to move the preposition to the end of the clause.

This is commonly done in conversation, and **who** then usually takes the place of **whom**:

Mr Jones, who I was working for...

If the clause contains an expression of time or place, this will remain at the end:

Peter, which whom I played tennis on Sundays, was fitter than me could become.

Peter, who/whom I played tennis with on Sundays, was fitter than me.

- 3 Possessive **whose** (Sở hữu: whose)

Ann, whose children are at school all day, is trying to get a job.

This is George, whose class you will be taking.

In conversation we would probably say:

Ann's children are at school all day, so she...

This is George. You will be taking his class.

74. All, both, few, most, several, some etc. + of + whom/which.

This form can be used for both people and things. See examples below.

For each a more informal equivalent is given in brackets:

Her sons, both of whom work abroad, ring her up every week.

(Both her sons work abroad, but they ring her up every week.)

He went with a group of people, few of whom were correctly equipped for such a climb.

(He went with a group of people: few of them...)

The buses, most of which were already full, were surrounded by an angry crowd.

(Most of the buses were full, and/but they were surrounded by an angry crowd.)

I met the fruit-pickers, several of whom were university students.

(I met the fruit-pickers; several of them were...)

I picked up the apples, some of which were badly bruised.

(I picked up the apples; some of them...)

The house was full of boys, ten of whom were his own grandchildren.

(The house was full of boys; ten of them...)

75. Mệnh đề quan hệ không xác định dành cho vật.

(Non-defining relative clauses: things)

A Subject: which (chủ ngữ : which)

that is not used here:

That block, which cost £5 million to build, has been empty for years.

The 8.15 train, which is usually very punctual, was late today.

In speech we would be more likely to say:

That block cost £5 million to build and has been empty for years.

The 8.15 train is usually punctual; but it was late today.

B Object: **which** (Tân ngữ: which)

that is not used here, and the **which** can never be omitted:

She gave me this jumper, which she had knitted herself or

She gave me this jumper; she had knitted it herself.

These books, which you can get at any bookshop, will give you all the information you need or.

These books will give you all the information you need. You can get them at any bookshop.

C Object of a preposition (Tân ngữ của một giới từ)

The preposition comes before **which**, or (more informally) at the end of the clause:

Ashdown Forest, through which we'll be driving, isn't a forest any longer or

Ashdown Forest, which we'll be driving through, isn't a forest any longer.

His house, for which he paid £10,000 is now worth £50,000 or

His house, which he paid £10,000 for is now...

D **which** with phrasal verbs (Which với cụm động từ)

Combinations such as *look after*, *look forward to*, *put up with* should be treated as a unit, i.e. the preposition/adverb should not be separated from the verb:

This machine, which I have looked after for twenty years, is still working perfectly.

Your inefficiency, which we have put up with for so long, is beginning to annoy our customers.

- E Possessive: **whose** or **of which** (sở hữu: whose hay of which)

whose is generally used both for animals and things. **of which** is possible for things, but is unusual except in very formal English.

His house, whose windows were all broken, was a depressing sight.

The car, whose handbrake wasn't very reliable, began to slide backwards.

76. Mệnh đề quan hệ nối tiếp.

(Connective relative clauses)

The pronouns are **who, whom, whose, which**. Commas are used as with non-defining clauses. Connective clauses do not describe their nouns but continue the story. They are usually placed after the object of the main verb:

I told Peter, who said it wasn't his business
or after the preposition + noun:

I threw the ball to Tom, who threw it to Ann.

They can be replaced by **and/but + he/she etc..**

I threw the ball to Tom and he threw it...

I told Peter, but he said...

Sometimes it may be difficult to say whether a clause in this position is non-defining or connective, but there is no need for students to make this distinction, as the two forms are the same.

More examples of connective clauses:

He drank beer, which made him fat =

He drank beer and it made him fat.

We went with Peter, whose car broke down before we were halfway there =

We went with Peter but his car broke down before we were halfway there.

We can use **one/two etc., few/several/some etc. + of + whom/which** as shown in 74.

I bought a dozen eggs, six of which broke when I dropped the box.

He introduced me to his boys, one of whom offered to go with me.

The lorry crashed into a queue of people, several of whom had to have hospital treatment.

which can also stand for a whole clause:

The clock struck thirteen, which made everyone laugh.

He refused to do his share of the chores, which annoyed the others.

(His refusal annoyed them.)

The rain rattled on the roof all night, which kept us awake.

She was much kinder to her youngest child than she was to the others, which made the others jealous.

77. what (đại từ quan hệ) và which (quan hệ liên hợp).

what = the thing that/the things that:

What we saw astonished us =

The things that we saw astonished us.

When she sees what you have done she will be furious =

When she sees the damage that you have done she will be furious.

Be careful not to confuse the relative **what** with the connective relative **which**. Remember that **which** must

refer to a word or group of words in the preceding sentence while **what** does not refer back to anything.

The relative **what** is also usually the object of a verb, while the connective **which** is usually the subject:

He said he had no money, which was not true.

Some of the roads were flooded, which made our journey more difficult.

78. Sự quan trọng của dấu phẩy (,) trong mệnh đề quan hệ.

(The importance of commas in relative clauses)

Remember that a defining relative clause is written without commas. Note how the meaning changes when commas are inserted:

(a) The travellers who knew about the floods took another road.

(b) The travellers, who knew about the floods, took another road.

In (a) we have a defining relative clause, which defines and limits the noun *travellers*. This sentence therefore tells that only the travellers who knew about the floods took the other road, and implies that there were other travellers who did not know and who took the flooded road. In (b) we have a non-defining clause, which does not define or limit the noun it follows. This sentence therefore implies that all travellers knew about the floods and took the other road.

(c) The boys who wanted to play football were disappointed when it rained.

(d) The boys, who wanted to play football, were disappointed...

Sentence (c) implies that only some of the boys wanted to play football. There were presumably others who did

mind whether it rained or not. Sentence (d) implies that all the boys wanted to play and all were disappointed.

(e) *The wine which was in the cellar was ruined.*

(f) *The wine, which was in the cellar, was ruined.*

Sentence (e) implies that only some of the wine was ruined. Presumably some was kept elsewhere and escaped damage. Sentence (f) states that all the wine was in the cellar and ruined.

79. **Whoever, whichever, what ever, whenever, wherever, however**

These have a variety of meanings and can introduce relative and other clauses. The other clauses do not technically belong to this chapter but it seems best to group these -ever forms together.

- A **whoever** (pronoun) and **whichever** (pronoun and adjective) can mean 'the one who', 'he who', 'she who'

Whoever gains the most points wins the competition.

Whichever of them gains the most points wins.

Whichever team gains the most points wins.

Whoever gets home first starts cooking the supper.

Whichever of us gets home first starts cooking the supper.

Whichever of us gets home first starts cooking.

Whoever cleans your windows doesn't make a good job of it.

- B **whatever** (pronoun and adjective), **whenever**, **wherever**:

You can eat what/whatever you like. (anything you like)

When you are older you can watch whatever programme you like.

My roof leaks when/whenever it rains. (every time it

rains)

You will see this product advertised everywhere/wherever you go.

Go anywhere/wherever you like.

- C whoever, whichever, whatever, whenever, wherever, however** can mean 'no matter who' etc.;

If I say 'heads, I win; tails you lose', I will win whatever happens or whichever way the coin falls.

Whatever happens don't forget to write.

I'll find him, wherever he has gone. (no matter where he has gone)

whatever you do is often placed before or after a request/command to emphasize its importance:

Whatever you do, don't mention my name.

however is an adverb of degree and is used with an adjective or another adverb:

I'd rather have a room of my own, however small (it is), than share a room.

However hard I worked, she was never satisfied.

- D whatever, wherever** can indicate the speaker's ignorance/indifference:

He lives in Wick, wherever that is. (I don't know where it is, and I'm not very interested.)

He says he's a phrenologist, whatever that is. (I don't know what it is and I'm not very interested.)

who ever? when ever? what ever? etc. may be written separate words, but the meaning then changes.

I lost seven kilos in a month. - How ever did you lose so much in such a short time?

BILL (suspiciously): *I know all about you.*

TOM (indignantly): *What ever do you mean?*

Where ever did you buy your wonderful carpets?

9: GIỚI TỪ

Prepositions

80. Giới thiệu.

(Introduction)

Prepositions are words normally placed before nouns or pronouns (but see 81 about possible alternative positions). Prepositions can also be followed by verbs but, except after **but** and **except**, the verb must be in the gerund form:

He is talking of emigrating.

They succeeded in escaping.

The student has two main problems with prepositions. He has to know (a) whether in any construction a preposition is required or not, and (b) which preposition to use when one is required.

The first problem can be especially troublesome to a European student, who may find that a certain construction in his own language requires a preposition, whereas a similar one in English does not, and vice versa: e.g. in most European languages purpose is expressed by a preposition + infinitive; in English it is expressed by the infinitive only:

I came here to study.

The student should note also that many words used mainly

as prepositions can also be used as conjunctions and adverbs. Where this is the case it will be pointed out in the following paragraphs.

81. Vị trí của giới từ.

(Alternative position of prepositions)

A prepositions normally precede nouns or pronouns. In two constructions, however, it is possible in informal English to move the preposition to the end of the sentence:

- 1 In questions beginning with a preposition + **whom/which/what/whose/where**:

To whom were you talking? (formal)

Who were you talking to? (informal)

In which drawer does he keep it? (formal)

Which drawer does he keep it in? (informal)

It used to be thought ungrammatical to end a sentence with a preposition, but it is now accepted as a colloquial form.

- 2 Similarly in relative clauses, a preposition placed before **whom/which** can be moved to the end of the clause. The relative pronoun is then often omitted:

the people with whom I was travelling (formal)

the people I was travelling with (informal)

the company from which I hire my TV set (formal)

the company I hire my TV set from (informal)

- B But in phrasal verbs the preposition/adverb remains after its verb, so the formal type of construction is not possible, *the children I was looking after* could not be rewritten with **after + whom** and *Which bridge did they blow up?* could not be rewritten with **up + which**.

82. Lược bỏ To và For trước tân ngữ gián tiếp.

(Omission of to and for before indirect objects)

- A 1 A sentence such as *I gave the book to Tom* could also be expressed *I gave Tom the book*, i.e. the indirect object can be placed first and the preposition to omitted.

We can use this construction with the following verbs: *bring, give, hand, leave (in a will), lend, offer, pass (= hand), pay, play (an instrument/piece of music), promise, sell, send, show, sing, take, tell (= narrate, inform):*

I showed the map to Bill = I showed Bill the map.

They sent £5 to Mr Smith = They sent Mr Smith £5

- 2 Similarly *I'll find a job for Ann* could be expressed *I'll find Ann a job* (putting the indirect object first and omitting for). This construction is possible after *book, build, buy, cook, (bake, boil, fry etc.), fetch, find, get, keep, knit, leave, make, order, reserve:*

I'll get a drink for you = I'll get you a drink.

I bought a book for James = I bought James a book.

- B Normally either construction can be used. But:

- 1 The construction without preposition is preferred when the direct object is a phrase or a clause:

Tell her the whole story.

Show me what you've got in your hand.

- 2 The construction with preposition is preferred:

(a) When the indirect object is a phrase or a clause:

We kept seats for everyone on our list/for everyone who had paid.

I had to show my pass to the man at the door.

(b) When the direct object is **it** or **them**. Sentences such as *They kept it for Mary, She made them for Bill, We sent it to George* cannot be expressed by a verb + noun + pronoun construction.

If the indirect object is also a pronoun (*I sent it to him*) it is sometimes possible to reverse the pronouns and omit *to* (*sent him it*), but this cannot be done with *for* construction and is better avoided.

This restriction does not apply to other pronoun objects:

He gave Bill some. He didn't give me any.

He bought Mary one. I'll show you something.

C *promise, show, tell* can be used with indirect objects only without *to*:

promise us show him tell him

read, write can be used similarly, but require *to*:

read to me write to them

play, sing can be used with *to* or *for*:

play to us play for us

sing to us sing for us

83. Dùng và bỏ To với các động từ chỉ s truyền đạt .

(Use and omission of *to* with verb of communication)

A Verbs of command, request, invitation and advice, *advise, ask, beg, command, encourage, implore, invite, order, recommend, remind, request, tell, urge, warn*, can be followed directly by the person addressed (without *to* infinitive):

They advised him to wait.

I urged her to try again

The person addressed (without to) can be used after *advise*, *remind*, *tell*, *warn* with other constructions also:

He reminded them that there were no trains after midnight.

They warned him that the ice was thin/warned him about the ice.

But note that *recommend* (= *advise*) when used with other constructions needs to before the person addressed:

He recommended me to buy it but

He recommended it to me.

He recommended me (for the past) would mean 'He said I was suitable'.

When *ask* is used with other constructions the person addressed is often optional. The preposition *to* is never used here:

He asked (me) a question.

He asked (we) if I wanted to apply.

She asked (her employer) for a day off.

call (= *shout*), *complain*, *describe*, *explain*, *grumble*, *murmur*, *mutter*, *say*, *shout*, *speak*, *suggest*, *talk*, *whisper* need to before the person addressed, though it is not essential to mention this person:

Peter complained (to her) about the food.

She said nothing (to her parents).

He spoke English (to them).

shout at can be used when the subject is angry with the other person:

He shouted at me to get out of his way.

Compare with *He shouted to me* which means he raised his voice because I was at a distance.

84. Thời gian và ngày: At, on, by, before, in.

(Time and date: at, on, by, before in)

A at, on

at a time:

at dawn at six at midnight at 4.30

at an age:

at sixteen/at the age of sixteen

She got married at seventeen.

on a day/date:

on Monday on 4 June on Christmas Day

Exceptions

at night

at Christmas, at Easter (the period, not the day only)

on the morning/afternoon/evening/night of a certain date:

We arrived on the morning of the sixth.

It is also, of course, possible to say:

this/next Monday etc., any Monday, one Monday

B by, before

by a time/date/period = at that time or before/not later than that date. It often implies 'before that time/date':

The train starts at 6.10, so you had better be at the station by 6.00. by + a time 'expression is often used with a perfect tense, particularly the future perfect:

By the end of July I'll have read all those books.

before can be preposition, conjunction or adverb:

Before signing this... (preposition)

Before you sign this... (conjunction)

I've seen him somewhere before. (adverb)

C on time, in time, in good time

on time = at the time arranged, not before, not after:

The 8.15 train started on time. (It started at 8.15.)

in time/in time for + noun = not late; in good time (for) = with a comfortable margin:

Passengers should be in time for their train.

I arrived at the concert hall in good time (for the concert). (Perhaps the concert began at 7.30 and I arrived at 7.15.)

on arrival, on arriving, on reaching, on getting to

on arrival/on arriving, he... = when he arrives/arrived, he...

on can also be used similarly with the gerund of certain other verbs (chiefly verbs of information):

On checking, she found that some of the party didn't know the way.

On hearing/Hearing that the plane had been diverted, they left the airport,

The **on** in the last sentence could be omitted.

at the beginning/end, in the beginning/end, at first/at last, at the beginning (of)/at the end (of) = literally at the beginning/end:

At the beginning of a book there is often a table of contents.

At the end there may be an index.

in the beginning/at first = in the early stages. It implies that later on there was a change:

In the beginning/At first we used hand tools. Later we had machines.

in the end/at last = eventually/after some time:

At first he opposed the marriage, but in the end he gave his consent.

85. Thời gian: from, since, for, during

(Time: from, since, for, during)

A from, since and for

1 from is normally used with to or till/until:

Most people work from nine to five.

from can also be used of place:

Where do you come from?

2 since is used for time, never for place, and means 'from that time to the time referred to'. It is often used with a present perfect or past perfect tense.

He has been here since Monday. (from Monday till now)

He wondered where Ann was. He had not seen her since their quarrel.

since can also be an adverb:

He left school in 1983. I haven't seen him since.

since can also be a conjunction of time:

He has worked for us ever since he left school.

It is two years since I last saw Tom =

I last saw Tom two years ago / I haven't seen Tom for two years.

3 for is used of a period of time: for six years, for months, for ever:

Bake it for two hours.

He traveled in the desert for six months.

for + a period of time can be used with a present perfect tense or past perfect tense for an action which extends the time of speaking:

He has worked here for a year.

(He began working here a year ago and still works here.)

for used in this way is replaceable by **since** with the point in time when the action began:

He has worked here since this time last year.

B **during** and **for**

during is used with known periods of time, i.e. periods known by name, such as Christmas, Easter or periods which have been already defined:

during the Middle Ages *during 1941*

during the summer (of that year)

during his childhood

during my holidays

The action can either last the whole period or occur at some time within the period:

It rained all Monday but stopped raining during the night. (at some point of time)

He was ill for a week, and during that week he ate nothing.

for (indicating purpose) may be used before known periods:

I went there/for I hired a car/for I rented a house for my holidays/for the summer.

for has various other uses:

He asked for \$5. I paid £1 for it.

I bought one for Tom.

for can also be a conjunction and introduce a clause.

86. Thời gian : to, till, until, afterwards (trạng từ).

(Time: till/until, after, afterwards (adverb))

A **to** and **till/until**

to can be used of time and place; **till/until** of time only.

We can use **from ... to** or **from... till/until**:

They worked from five to ten/from five till ten. (at five to ten would mean 'at 9.55'.)

But if we have no **from** we use **till/until**, not **to**:

Let's start now and work till dark. (to would not be possible here.)

till/until is often used with a negative verb to emphasize lateness:

We didn't get home till 2 a.m.

He usually pays me on Friday but last week he didn't pay me till the following Monday.

till/until is very often used as a conjunction of time:

We'll stay here till it stops raining.

Go on till you come to the level crossing.

But note that if 'you come to' is omitted, the **till** must be replaced by **to**:

Go on to the level crossing.

B after and afterwards (adverb)

after (preposition) must be followed by a noun, pronoun or gerund:

Don't bathe immediately after a meal/after eating.

Don't have a meal and bathe immediately after it.

If we do not wish to use a noun/pronoun or gerund, we cannot use **after**, but must use **afterwards** (= **after that**) or **then**:

Don't have a meal and bathe immediately afterwards.

They bathed and afterwards played games/played games afterwards or They bathed and then played games.

afterwards can be used at either end of the clause and can be modified by **soon, immediately, not long** etc.:

Soon afterwards we got a letter.

We got a letter not long afterwards.

after can also be used as a conjunction:

After he has tuned the piano it sounded quite different.

87. Đi lại và chuyển động: from, to, at, by, on, into, onto, off, out, out of.

(Travel and movement: from, to, at, in, by, on, into, onto, off, out, out of)

A We travel from our starting place to our destination:

They flew/drove/cycled/walked from Paris to Rome.

When are you coming back to England

We also send/post letters etc. to people and places. (But see note on **home** below.)

B **arrive at/in, get to, reach** (without preposition)

We **arrive in** a town or country, **at** or **in** a village, **at** any other destination:

They arrived in Spain/in Madrid.

I arrived at the hotel/at the airport/at the bridge/at the crossroads.

get to can be used with any destination, and so can **reach**:

He got to the station just in time for his train.

I want to get to Berlin before train.

They reached the top of the mountain before sunrise.

get in (**in** = adverb) can mean 'arrive at a destination'. It is chiefly used trains:

What time does the train get in? (reach the terminus/our station)

Note also **get there/back** (**there, back** are adverbs).

C home

We can use a verb of motion etc. + **home** without a preposition:

It took us an hour to get home.

They went home by bus.

But if **home** is immediately preceded by a word or phrase a preposition is necessary:

She returned to her parents home.

We can **be/live/stay/work** etc. **at home, at +... + home in +... + home**. But **in** cannot be followed directly by **home**:

You can do this sort of work at home or at/in your own home:

D Transport: by, on, get in/into/on/onto/off/out of

We can travel **by** car (but in the/my/Tom's car), **by** bus/train/ plane/helicopter/hovercraft etc. and **by** sea/air. We can also travel **by** a certain route, or **by** a certain place (though **via** is more usual):

We went by the M4. We went via Reading.

We can walk or go **on** foot. We can cycle or go **on** a bicycle or **by** bicycle. We can ride or go **on** horseback.

We **get into** a public or private vehicle, or **get in** (adverb).

We **get on/onto** a public vehicle, or **get on** (adverb).

But we go **on board** a boat (= embark).

We **get on/onto** a horse/camel/bicycle.

We **get out of** a public or private vehicle, or **get out** (adverb).

We **get off** a public vehicle, a horse, bicycle, etc., or **get** (adverb).

E get in/into/out/out of can also be used of buildings,

institutions and countries instead of **go/come/return** etc. when there is some difficulty in entering or leaving. **in** and **out** here are used as adverbs.

I've lost my keys! How are we going to get into the flat/ to get in? (adverb)

The house is on fire! We had better get out! (adverb)

It's difficult to get into a university nowadays,

F Giving directions: **at, into, to** etc.(prepositions) **along, on** (prepositions and adverbs) and **till** (conjunction):

Go along the Strand till you see the Savoy on your right.

The bus stop is just round the corner

Turn right/left at the Post Office/at the second traffic lights.

Go on (adverb) past the post office.

Turn right/left into Fleet Street.

Take the first/second etc. turning on/to the right or on/to your right.

Go on (adverb) to the end of the road. (till could not be used here.)

You will find the bank on your left halfway down the street.

When you come out of the station you will find the bank opposite you/in front of you.

Get out (of the bus) at the tube station and walk on (adverb) till you come to a pub.

Get off (the bus) and walk back (adverb) till you come to some traffic lights.

Be careful not to confuse **to** and **till**.

88. At, in; in, into; on, onto .

A **at** and **in**

(For **arrive at/in**, see 87 B.)

at

We can be **at** home, **at** work, **at** the office, **at** school, **at** university, **at** an address. **at** a certain point e.g. **at** the bridge, **at** the crossroads, **at** the bus-stop.

in

We can be **in** a country, a town, a village, a square, a street, a room, a forest, a wood, a field, a desert or any place which has boundaries or is enclosed.

But a such area such as a square, a street, a room, a field might be used with **at** when we mean 'at this point' rather than 'inside'.

We can be **in** or **at** a building. **in** means inside only; **at** could mean inside or in the grounds or just outside. If someone is 'at the station' he could be in the street outside, or in the ticket office/waiting room/ restaurant or on the platform.

We can be **in** or **at** the sea, a river, lake, swimming pool etc. **in** here means actually **in** the water:

The children are swimming in the river.

at the sea/river/lake etc. means 'near/beside the sea'. But **at sea** means 'on a ship'.

B in and into

in as shown above normally indicates position.

into indicates movement, entrance:

They climbed into the lorry.

I poured the beer into a tankard.

Thieves broke into my house/My house was broken into.

With the verb **put**, however, either **in** or **into** can be used:

He put his hands in/into his pockets.

in can also be an adverb:

Come in = Enter. Get in (into the car).

on and onto

on can be used for both position and movement:

He was sitting on his case.

Snow fell on the hills.

His name is on the door.

He went on board ship.

onto can be used (chiefly of people and animals) when there is movement involving a change of level:

People climbed onto their roofs.

We lifted him onto the table.

The cat jumped onto the mantelpiece.

on can also be an adverb:

Go on. Come on.

. Above, over, under, below, beneath etc.

above and over

above (preposition and adverb) and **over** (preposition) can both mean 'higher than' and sometimes either can be used:

The helicopter hovered above/over us.

Flags waved above/over our heads.

But **over** can also mean 'covering', 'on the other side of', 'across' and 'from one side to the other'.

We put a rug over him.

He lives over the mountains.

There is a bridge over the river.

all over + noun/pronoun can mean 'in every part of':

He has friends all over the world.

above can have none of these meanings.

over can mean 'more than' or 'higher than'.

above can mean 'higher than' only.

Both can mean 'higher in rank'. But *He is over me* would normally mean 'He is my immediate superior', 'He supervises my work'. **above** would not necessarily have meaning.

If we have a bridge over a river, *above the bridge* means 'upstream'. **over** can be used with meals/food/drink:

They had a chat over a cup of tea.

(while drinking tea)

In the combination **take** + a time expression + **over** + noun/pronoun, **over** can mean 'to do/finish' etc.:

He doesn't take long over lunch/to eat his lunch.

He took ages over the job.

(He took ages to finish it.)

above can also be an adjective or adverb meaning 'earlier' (in a book, article etc.):

the above address

(the previously mentioned address)

see B above (the previously mentioned section B)

B **below** and **under**

below (preposition and adverb) and **under** (preposition) can both mean 'lower than' and sometimes either can be used. But **under** can indicate contact:

She put the letter under her pillow

The ice crackled under his feet.

With **below** there is usually a space between the surfaces:

They live below us. (We live on the fourth floor and they live on the third.)

Similarly: *We live above them.* (See A above.)

below and **under** can mean 'junior in rank'. But *He is i*

me implies that I am his immediate superior. below does not: necessarily have this meaning.

(Both over and under can be used as adverbs, but with a change of meaning.)

beneath can sometimes be used instead of under, but it is safer to keep it for abstract meanings:

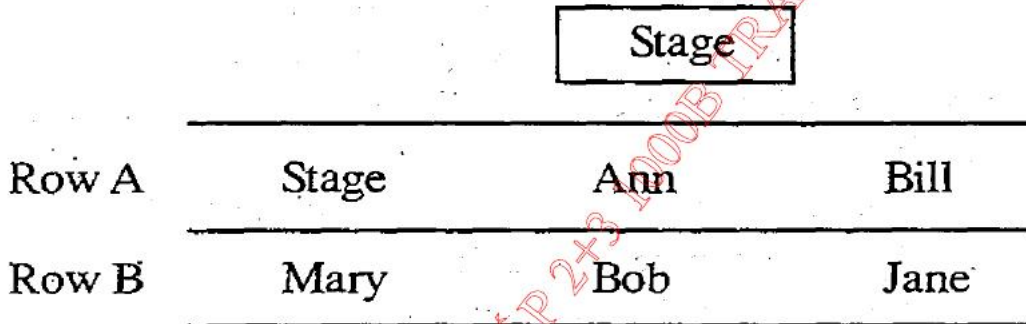
He would think it beneath him to tell a lie.

(unworthy of him)

She married beneath her. (into a lower social class)

beside, between, behind, in front of, opposite

Imagine a theatre with rows of seats: A, B, C etc., Row A being nearest the stage.



This means that:

Tom is beside Ann; Mary is beside Bob etc.

Ann is between Tom and Bill; Bob is between Mary and Jane.

Mary is behind Tom: Tom is in front of Mary.

But if Tom and Mary are having a meal and Tom is sitting at one side of the table and Mary at the other, we do not use in front of, but say:

Tom is sitting opposite Mary or Tom is facing Mary.

But He stood in front of me could mean either 'He stood with his back to me' or 'He faced me'.

People living on one side of a street will talk of the houses on the other side as *the houses opposite (us)* rather than *the houses in front of us*.

With other things, however, these restrictions do not apply:

She put the plate on the table in front of him.

She sat with a book in front of her.

Where's the bank? – There it is, just in front of you!

There's a car-park in front of/at the back of the hotel.

E Don't confuse *beside* with *besides*.

beside = at the side of:

We camped beside a lake.

besides (preposition) = in addition to/as well as:

I do all the cooking and besides that I help Tom.

Besides doing the cooking I help Tom.

besides (adverb) means (a) 'in addition to that/as well as that':

I do the cooking and help Tom besides

and (b) 'in any case/anyway':

We can't afford oysters. Besides Tom doesn't like them.

F *between* and *among*

between normally relates a person/thing to two other people/things.

but it can be used of more when we have a definite number in mind:

Luxembourg lies between Belgium, Germany and France.

among relates a person/thing to more than two others; normally we have no definite number in mind:

*He was happy to be among friends again.
a village among the hills*

with could also be used instead of **among** in the last sentence above.

Also, of course, with a singular object:

He was with a friend.

Examples of other uses:

He cut it with a knife.

Don't touch it with bare hands.

The mountains were covered with snow.

I have no money with me on me.

He fought/quarreled with everyone

In descriptions:

the girl with red hair

the boy with his hands in his pockets

the man with his back to the camera/with his feet on his desk

but and **except** (prepositions)

These have the same meaning and are interchangeable.

but is more usual when the preposition + object is placed immediately

after *nobody/none/nothing/nowhere* etc:

Nobody but Tom knew the way.

Nothing but the best is sold in our shops,

except is more usual when the preposition phrase comes later in the sentence:

Nobody knew the way except Tom

and after *all/everybody/everyone/everything/ everywhere* etc.

but is more emphatic than **except** after *anybody/anything/ anywhere* etc.:

You can park anywhere but/except here.

(You can't park here.)

but and **except** take the bare infinitive.

90. Các giới từ dùng với tính từ và phân từ.

(Prepositions used with adjectives and participles)

Certain adjectives and past participles used as adjectives can be followed by a preposition + noun/gerund. (For verbs + prepositions, see 91.)

Usually particular adjectives and participles require particular prepositions. Some of these are given below: others can be found by consulting a good dictionary, which after any adjective will give the prepositions that can be found by consulting a good dictionary, which after any adjective will give the prepositions that can be used with **about, at, for, in, of, on, to, with** used with certain adjectives and participles:

absorbed in
according to
accustomed to
afraid of
anxious for/about
ashamed of
aware of
bad at/for
capable of
confident of
due to/for
exposed to
fit for
fond of

involved in
keen on
liable for/to
nervous of
owing to
pleased with
prepared for
proud of
ready for
responsible for/to
scared of
sorry for/about
successful in
suspicious of

<i>frightened of/at</i>	<i>terrified of</i>
<i>good at/for</i>	<i>tired of</i>
<i>interested in</i>	<i>used to</i>

He was absorbed in his book.

She is afraid/frightened/scared of the dark.

According to Tom it's 2.30. (Tom says it's 2.30.)

He is bad/good at chess. (a bad/good player)

Running is bad/good for you. (unhealthy/healthy)

They are very keen on golf.

Drivers exceeding the speed limit are liable to a fine.

The management is not responsible for articles left in customers' cars.

I'm sorry for your husband. (I pity him.)

I'm sorry for forgetting the tickets.

I'm sorry about the tickets.

. Động từ và Giới từ.

(Verbs and prepositions)

There are a great many verbs which can be followed by prepositions and some of these are listed below. More can be found in any good dictionary.

<i>accuse sb of</i>	<i>insist on</i>
<i>apologize (to sb) for</i>	<i>live on (food/money)</i>
<i>apply to sb/for sth</i>	<i>long for</i>
<i>ask for/about</i>	<i>object to</i>
<i>attend to</i>	<i>occur to</i>
<i>beg for</i>	<i>persist in</i>
<i>believe in</i>	<i>prefer sb/sth to sb/sth</i>
<i>beware of</i>	<i>prepare for</i>

blame sb for
 charge sb with (an offence)
 compare sth with
 comply with
 conform to
 consist of
 deal in
 depend on
 dream of
 fight with sb for
 fine sb for
 hope for

punish sb for
 quarrel with sb about
 refer to
 rely on
 remind sb of
 resort to
 succeed in
 suspect sb of
 think of/about
 wait for
 warn sb of/about
 wish for

Do you believe in ghosts?

They were charged with receiving stolen goods.

You haven't complied with the regulations.

For a week she lived on bananas and milk.

It never occurred to me to insure the house.

They persisted in defying the law.

When arguments failed he resorted to threats.

Notice also **feel like** + noun/pronoun + feel inclined to ha something:

Do you feel like a drink/a meal/a rest?

feel like + gerund + feel inclined to do something:

I don't feel like walking there.

(For **like** used in comparisons, see 21 G-I)

Passive verbs can of course be followed by **by** + agent; b they can also be followed by other prepositions:

The referee was booed by the crowd.

The referee was booed for his decision/for awarding penalty.

92: Danh động từ sau giới từ.

(Gerunds after preposition)

A It has already been stated in 80 that verbs placed immediately after prepositions must be in the gerund form:

He left without paying his bill.

I apologize for not writing before.

She insisted on paying for herself.

Before signing the contract, read the small print.

A few noun + preposition + gerund combinations may also be noted:

There's no point in taking your car if you can't park.

What's the point of taking your car if you can't park?

Is there any chance/likelihood of his changing his mind?

Have you any objection to changing your working hours?

I am in favour of giving everyone a day off.

B The only exceptions to the gerund rule are **except** and **but** (preposition), which take the bare infinitive:

I could do nothing except agree.

He did nothing but complain.

However, if **but** is used as a conjunction, it can be followed directly by either full infinitive or gerund:

Being idle sometimes is agreeable, but being idle all the time might become monotonous.

To be idle sometimes is agreeable but to be idle all the time etc.

93. Giới từ/Trạng từ.

(Prepositions/adverbs)

Many words can be used as either prepositions or adverbs

He got off the bus at the corner. (preposition)

He got off at the corner. (adverb)

The most important of these are **above, about, across, along, before, behind, below, besides, by, down, near, off, on, over, past, round, since, through, up:**

They were here before six. (preposition)

He has done this sort of work before. (adverb)

Peter is behind us. (preposition)

He's a long way behind. (adverb)

She climbed over the wall. (preposition)

You'll have to climb over too (adverb)

When the meeting was over the delegates went home
(adverb: here *over* = finished)

The shop is just round the corner. (preposition)

Come round (to my house) any evening. (adverb)

He ran up the stairs. (preposition)

He went up in the lift. (adverb)

Many of these words are used to form phrasal verbs.

The plane took off. (left the ground)

He came round. (recovered consciousness)

10. GIỚI THIỆU VỀ CÁC ĐỘNG TỪ (Introduction to verbs)

94. Các loại động từ.

(Classes of verbs)

A There are two classes of verbs in English:

1 The auxiliary verbs (auxiliaries): *to be, to have, to do; can, could, may, might, must, ought, shall, should, will; to need, to dare and used.*

2. All other verbs, which we may call ordinary verbs:

to work to sing to pray

B *be, have, do, need and dare* have infinitives and participles like ordinary verbs, but *can, could, may, might, must, ought, shall, should, will and would* have neither infinitives nor participles and therefore have only a restricted number of forms. (For *used*, see 156 A.)

Before studying auxiliaries it may be helpful to consider ordinary verbs, most of whose tenses are formed with auxiliaries.

Động từ thường

(*Ordinary verbs*)

95. Các phần chính của động từ ở chủ động.

(*Principal parts of the active verb*)

	Affirmative	Negative
Present infinitive	<i>to work</i>	<i>not to work</i>
Present continuous infinitive	<i>to be working</i>	<i>not to be working</i>
Perfect infinitive	<i>to have worked</i>	<i>not to have worked</i>
Perfect continuous infinitive	<i>to have been working</i>	<i>not to have been working</i>
Present participle and gerund	<i>working</i>	<i>not working</i>
Perfect participle and gerund	<i>having worked</i>	<i>not having worked</i>
Past participle	<i>worked</i>	

In regular verbs the simple past and the past participle are both formed by adding **d** or **ed** to the infinitive. Sometimes the final consonant of the infinitive has to be doubled e.g. *slip, slipped*.

The present participle and gerund are always regular and are formed by adding **ing** to the infinitive. The rule concerning the doubling of the final consonant of the infinitive before adding **ing** applies here also.

96. Các thì ở thể chủ động.

(Active tenses)

A Form (Hình thức)

Present	simple	<i>he works</i> (see 166)
	continuous	<i>he is working</i> (158)
	perfect	<i>he has worked</i> (176)
	perfect continuous	<i>he has been working</i> (184)
Past	simple	<i>he worked</i> (169)
	continuous	<i>He was working</i> (172)
	perfect	<i>he had worked</i> (188)
	perfect continuous	<i>he had been working</i> (191)
Future	simple	<i>he will work</i> (201)
	continuous	<i>he will be working</i> (205)
	perfect	<i>he will have worked</i> (210)
	perfect continuous	<i>he will have been working</i> (210)
Present	conditional	<i>he would work</i> (213)
	conditional continuous	<i>he would be working</i> (213)
Perfect	conditional	<i>he would have worked</i> (214)
	conditional continuous	<i>he would have been working</i>

B Affirmative contractions (phép tỉnh lược xác định)

The auxiliaries **be, have, will, would** are contracted as follows:

<i>'am 'm</i>	<i>have 've</i>	<i>will 'll</i>
<i>is 's</i>	<i>has 's</i>	<i>would 'd</i>
<i>are 're</i>	<i>had 'd</i>	

Note that *'s* can be *is* or *has* and *'d* can be *had* or *would*:

He's going = *He is going.*

He's gone = *He has gone.*

He'd paid = *He had paid.*

He'd like a drink = He would like a drink.

These contractions are used after pronouns, **here, there, some** question words (see 98), and short nouns:

Here's your pen. The twins've arrived.

The car'd broken down.

Affirmative contractions are not used at the end of sentences:

You aren't in a hurry but I am.

(I'm would not be possible here.)

Shall/should, was and were are not written in a contracted form but are often contracted in speech to.

C Stress (Trọng âm)

Auxiliaries used to form tenses are normally unstressed. The stress falls on the main verb.

97. Phủ định của các thì.

(Negatives of tenses)

A The simple present tense: third person singular *does not/doesn't* + infinitive; other persons *do not/don't* + infinitive.

The simple past tense negative for all persons is *did not/didn't* + infinitive.

Contractions are usual in speech:

He does not/doesn't answer letters.

They do not/don't live here.

I did not/didn't phone her.

She did not/didn't wait for me.

The negative of all other tenses is formed by putting **not** after the auxiliary.

Contractions are usual in speech:

He has not/hasn't finished.

He would not/wouldn't come.

B Negative contractions

The auxiliaries **be, have, will, would, shall, should, do** are contracted as follows:

am not 'm not

is not isn't or 's not

are not aren't or 're not

I'm not going and Tom isn't going/Tom's not going.

We aren't going/We 're not going.

have not and **has not** contract to **haven't** and **hasn't**, but in perfect tenses **'ve not** and **'s not** are also possible:

We haven't seen him/We 've not seen him.

He hasn't/He 's not come yet.

will not contracts to **won't**, though **'ll not** is also possible.

shall not contracts to **shan't**:

I won't go/I'll not go till I hear and I shan't hear till tomorrow.

Other verb forms are contracted in the usual way by adding **n't**.

Negative contractions can come at the end of a sentence:

I saw it but he didn't.

C In English a negative sentence can have only one negative expression in it. Two negative expressions give the sentence an affirmative meaning:

Nobody did nothing means that everyone did something.

So *never, no* (adjective), *none, nobody, no one, nothing, hardly, hardly ever* etc. are used with an affirmative verb.

We can say:

He didn't eat anything or

He ate nothing.

He doesn't ever complain or

He never complains.

We haven't seen anyone or

We have seen no one.

They didn't speak much or

They hardly spoke at all/They hardly ever spoke.

98. Nghi vấn dùng trong câu hỏi và yêu cầu.

(Interrogative for questions and requests)

A Simple present tense interrogative: *does he/she/it + infinitive*
do I/you/we/they + infinitive.

Simple past tense interrogative: *did + subject + infinitive.*

Does Peter enjoy parties?

Did he enjoy Ann's party?

In all other tenses the interrogative is formed by putting the subject after the auxiliary:

Have you finished? Are you coming?

B Contractions of auxiliaries used in the interrogative

1 **am, is, are, have, had, will and would**

After *how, what, who, where, why*, these can be contracted as shown in 96 B:

How will/How'll he get there?

What has/What's happened?

is and will can also be contracted after when:

When is/When's he coming?

will can also be contracted after which:

Which will/Which'll you have?

When the verb comes first as in A above, it is not contracted in writing except in negative interrogative form. But in speech it is usually contracted.

2 **shall, should, do and did** are not written in contracted form, although **do you** is sometimes written **d'you**. In speech **shall, should and do you** are often contracted to.

C The interrogative form is used for questions, but it is not used:

1 When the question is about the identity of the subject:

Who told you? What happened?

2 In indirect speech:

He said, 'Where does she live?' =

He asked where she lived.

3 If we place before the question a prefix such as *Do you know, Can you tell me, I want to know, I'd like to know, I wonder/was wondering, Have you any idea, Do you think:*

What time does it start? but Have you any idea what time it starts?

Where does Peter live? but I wonder where Peter lives.

Will I have to pay duty on this? but

Do you think I'll have? Do you know if I'll have to pay duty?

D Requests are usually expressed by the interrogative:

Can/Could you help me?

Will/Would you pay at the desk?

Would you like to come this way?

Would you mind moving your car?

But here again, if before the request we put a phrase such as *I wonder/was wondering or Do you think*, the verb in the request changes from interrogative to affirmative:

Could you give me a hand with this? but

I wonder/was wondering/wondered if you could give me a hand or

Do you think you could give me a hand?

In indirect speech the problem does not arise, as indirect requests are expressed by a verb such as **ask** with object infinitive:

He asked me to give him a hand.

E The interrogative is used in question tags after a new verb:

You didn't see him, did you.

F When, for emphasis, words/phrases such as *never, rarely, seldom, only when, only by, not only, not till* are placed in a sentence the following main verb is put into the inverted (= interrogative) form:

Only when we landed did we see how badly the plane had been damaged.

99. Nghi vấn phủ định.

(Negative interrogative)

A This is formed by putting **not** after the ordinary interrogative:

Did you not see her?

Is he not coming?

But this form is almost always contracted:

Didn't you see her?

Isn't he coming?

Note that **not** is now before the subject.

am I not? has an irregular contraction: *aren't I?*

B The negative interrogative is used when the speaker expects or hopes for an affirmative answer:

Haven't you finished yet?

Don't you like my new dress?

CHILD: *Can't I stay up till the end of the program?*

I could wait ten minutes. –

Couldn't you wait a little longer?

C The negative interrogative is also used in question tags after an affirmative sentence:

You paid him, didn't you?

She would like to come, wouldn't she?

Trợ Động từ

(Auxiliary verbs)

100. Trợ Động từ và động từ khuyết thiếu.

(Auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries)

Principal auxiliaries (Trợ động từ chính)	Modal auxiliaries (Động từ khuyết thiếu)	Semi-modals (Bán khuyết thiếu)
<i>to be</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>could</i>
<i>to have</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>might</i>
<i>to do</i>	<i>must</i>	<i>had to</i>
	<i>ought</i>	<i>used</i>
	<i>shall</i>	<i>should</i>
	<i>will</i>	<i>would</i>

Auxiliaries help to form a tense or an expression, hence the name. They combine with present or past participles or with infinitives to form the tenses of ordinary verbs:

I am coming. He has finished.

I didn't see them.

They combine with infinitives to indicate permission, possibility, obligation, deduction etc. as will be shown in the following chapters:

He can speak French. You may go.

We must hurry.

101. Trợ động từ: Hình thức và các mẫu.

(Auxiliaries: forms and patterns)

A be, have and do (the principal auxiliaries)

Infinitive	Present tense	Past tense	Past participle
<i>to be</i>	<i>am, is, are</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>been</i>
<i>to have</i>	<i>have, has</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>had</i>
<i>to do</i>	<i>do, does</i>	<i>did</i>	<i>done</i>

1 In the negative and interrogative, be and do follow the auxiliary pattern:

Negative, verb + not:

He isn't coming It did matter.

Interrogative, subject + verb:

Was he waiting? Does she see us?

2 have normally follows the auxiliary pattern:

Has he (got) to go?

but sometimes uses do/did forms:

Does he have to go?

3 be takes the full infinitive:

They are to wait for us at the station.

have takes the full infinitive except in two constructions (see 113 A, 114).

do takes the bare infinitive: *Did he write?*

4 be, have and do, when used as auxiliaries, require a participle or infinitive, though in answers, comments etc. this is often understood but not mentioned:

Have you seen it? - Yes, I have (seen it).

be (see 109), **have** and **do** can also be used as ordinary verbs with independent meanings; i.e. **have** can mean 'possess', **do** can mean 'perform/occupy oneself' etc.

be or **have** or **do** can then be the only verb in a sentence:

He is lazy. He has no job

He does nothing.

do is then conjugated with **do/did**:

What do you do in the evenings?

and **have** can be conjugated in either way:

Have you (got) time? Do you have time?

can, could, may, might, must, ought, will, would, shall and **should** (the modal auxiliaries)

Modal verbs have no final **s** in the third person singular:

I must, he must I can, he can

They always form their negative and interrogative according to the auxiliary pattern:

will not ought not...

will he...? ought he...?

They have no proper past tenses; four past forms exist, **could, might, should, would**, but they have only a restricted use.

Modal verbs have no infinitives or participles and therefore cannot be used in the continuous tenses.

All modal verbs except **ought** are followed by the bare infinitive:

You should pay but You ought to pay.

A modal verb always requires an infinitive, though sometimes this is understood but not mentioned:

Can you understand? – Yes, I can (understand).

C need, dare and used (the semi-modals)

- 1 When used as auxiliaries, **need** and **dare** can conform modal pattern. They then take the bare infinitive:

He need not wait.

But they can also use the **do/did** forms, and then take full infinitive with to:

He doesn't dare to interrupt.

They didn't need to wait

need and **dare** can also be used as ordinary verbs, and then inflected and have the usual participles:

He needs help.

They dared me to jump.

- 2 **used**, sometimes referred to as **used to**, is used only past. For its negative and interrogative it usually follows auxiliary pattern:

I used not/usedn't to go.

But though technically **used** has no infinitive, the form **didn't use to** and **did he/she etc. use to?** are quite of heard.

Cách dùng trợ động từ trong câu trả lời ngắn biểu thị sự đồng ý

(Use of auxiliaries in short answers, agreements etc.)

Auxiliaries are extremely important in conversation because in short answers, agreements, disagreements, remarks, additions to remarks etc. we use auxiliaries instead of repeating the original verb.

102. Trợ động từ trong câu trả lời ngắn.

(Auxiliaries in short answers)

Questions requiring the answer **yes** or **no**, i.e. questions such as *Do you smoke?* or *Can you ride a bicycle?*, should be answered by **yes** or **no** and the auxiliary only. The original subject, if a noun, is replaced by a pronoun. Pronoun subjects may change as shown:

Do you smoke? - *Yes, I do (not Yes, I smoke.)*

Is that Ann? - *Yes, it is/No, it isn't*

Did the twins go? - *Yes, they did/No, they didn't*

Will there be an exam? -

Yes, there will/No, there won't

If there is more than one auxiliary in the question, the first should be used in the answer:

Should he have gone? - *Yes, he should*

Question with **must** I/he etc. or **need** I/he etc. are answered *Yes, you/he etc. must* or *No, you/he etc. needn't*:

Must I/Need I take all these pills? - *Yes, you must/No, you needn't.*

An answer with **you** or **no** without the auxiliary would be less polite.

103. Sự đồng ý và không đồng ý.

(Agreements and disagreements with remarks)

A. Agreements with affirmative remarks are made with **yes/so/of course** + affirmative auxiliary. If there is an auxiliary in the first verb this is repeated. If there is no auxiliary **do**, **does** or **did** is used:

He works too hard - *Yes, he does.*

There may be a strike. - *Yes, there may.*

Living in London will be expensive. - *(Yes) of course it will.*

That's Ann! - *Oh, so it is.*

- B** Disagreements with negative remarks are made with **yes/oh yes + affirmative auxiliary**. The auxiliary is stressed here.
- I won't have to pay - Oh yes, you will!*
My alarm didn't ring? - Oh yes, it did!
There isn't any salt in this - Yes, there is.
Bread won't make me fat - Oh yes, it will!
- C** Agreements with negative remarks are made with **no + negative auxiliary**:
- It wouldn't take long to get there - No, it wouldn't.*
I haven't paid you yet - No, you haven't
They boys mustn't be late. - No, they mustn't
The door can't have been locked - No, it can't
- D** Disagreements with affirmative remarks are expressed by **no/oh no + negative auxiliary**:
- Ann'll lend it to you - Oh no, she won't*
Peter gets up too late - No, he doesn't
There is plenty of time. - No, there isn't
Prices are coming down - Oh no, they aren't
- but** can be used when disagreeing with an assumption. The assumption may be expressed by a question:
- Why did you travel first class? - But I didn't!*

104. Câu hỏi đuôi.

(Question tags)

These are short additions to sentences, asking for agreement or confirmation.

- A** After negative statements we use the ordinary interrogative:

You didn't see him, did you?

Ann can't swim, can she?

That isn't Tom, is it?

After affirmative statements we use the negative interrogative:

Peter helped you, didn't he?

Mary was there, wasn't she?

Negative verbs in the tags are usually contracted.

Irregular: *I'm late, aren't I?*

Note that **let's** has the tag **shall**: *Let's go, shall we?*

The subject of the tag is always a pronoun.

Examples of question tags after negative statements:

Peter doesn't smoke, does he?

Ann isn't studying music, is she?

Bill didn't want to go, did he?

James wasn't driving the car, was he?

You haven't ridden a horse for a long time, have you?

The twins hadn't seen a hovercraft before, had they?

They couldn't understand him, could they?

There wasn't enough time, was there?

People shouldn't drop litter on pavements, should they?

Ann hasn't got colour TV, has she?

Note that statements containing words such as *neither*, *no* (adjective), *none*, *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing*, *scarcely*, *barely*, *hardly*, *hardly ever*, *seldom* are treated as negative statements and followed by an ordinary interrogative tag:

No salt is allowed, is it?

Nothing was said, was it?

Peter hardly ever goes to parties, does he?

When the subject of the sentence is *anyone*, *anybody*, *no one*, *nobody*, *none*, *neither* we use the pronoun *they* as subject of the tag:

I don't suppose anyone will volunteer, will they?

No one would object, would they?

Neither of them complained, did they?

Question tags after affirmative statements

With the simple present tense we use **don't/doesn't** in the tag. With the simple past tense we use **didn't**?

Edward lives here, doesn't he?

You found your passport, didn't you?

After all other tenses we just put the auxiliary verb into negative interrogative:

Mary's coming tomorrow, isn't she?

Peter's heard the news, hasn't he?

Remember that 's = is or has, and 'd = had or would:

Peter 'd written before you phoned, hadn't he?

Mary'd come if you asked her would it she?

You'd better change your wet shoes hadn't you?

The boys 'd rather go by air, wouldn't they?

With *everybody, everyone, somebody, someone* we use pronoun *they*:

Everyone warned you, didn't they?

Someone had recognized him, hadn't they?

Negative interrogative tags without contractions are possible but the word order is different:

You saw him, did you not?

This is a much less usual form.

D Intonation

When question tags are used the speaker doesn't normally need information but merely expects agreement. These are therefore usually said with a falling intonation, as in statements.

Sometimes, however, the speaker does want information. He is not quite sure that the statement is true, and wants to be reassured. In this case the question tag is said with a rising intonation and the important word in the first sentence is stressed, usually with a rise of pitch.

105. Câu hỏi dẫn giải.

(Comment tags)

- A These are formed with auxiliary verbs, just like question tags, but after an affirmative statement we use an ordinary interrogative tag; after a negative statement we use a negative interrogative tag.

negative interrogative tag. A comment tag can be added to an affirmative statement. It then indicates that the speaker notes the fact.

You saw him, did you? = Oh, so you saw him.

You've found a job, have you =

Oh, so you've found a job.

Comment tags can also be spoken in answer to an affirmative or negative statement:

I'm living in London now. – Are you?

I didn't pay Paul. – Didn't you?

When used in this way the tag is roughly equivalent to *Really!* or *Indeed!*

- B The chief use of these tags is to express the speaker's reaction to a statement. By the tone of his voice he can indicate that he is interested, not interested, surprised, pleased, delighted, angry, suspicious, disbelieving etc. The speaker's feelings can be expressed more forcibly by adding an auxiliary:

I borrowed your car. – Oh, you did, did you?

I didn't think you'd need it. –

Oh, you didn't, didn't you?

i.e. before an ordinary interrogative we use an affirmative auxiliary verb, before a negative interrogative we use a negative verb.

Again, the meaning depends on the tone of voice used. The speaker may be very angry, even truculent; but the form could also express admiration or amusement.

106. Sự thêm vào các ý kiến.

(Additions to remarks)

Affirmative additions to affirmative remarks can be made by **subject + auxiliary + too/also** or by **so + auxiliary + subject**, in that order. If there is an auxiliary in the first remark, it is repeated in the addition:

Bill would enjoy a game and Tom would too/so would Tom.

If there is no auxiliary, **do/does/did** is used in the addition: i.e. instead of saying *Bill likes golf and Tom likes golf (too)* we can say *Bill likes golf and Tom does too/so does Tom.*

The additions can, of course, be spoken by another person:

The boys cheated! -

The girls did too! So did the girls!

I'm having a tooth out tomorrow - So 'm I!

When both remarks are made by the same person, both subjects are usually stressed. When they are made by different people the second subject is stressed more strongly than the first.

- B** Affirmative additions to negative remarks are made with **but subject + auxiliary**:

Bill hasn't got alliance - But Donald has

She doesn't eat meat but her husband does.

The horse wasn't hurt but the rider was.

- C** Negative additions to affirmative remarks are made with **but - subject + negative auxiliary**:

He likes pop music but I don't.

You can go but I can't

Peter passed the test but Bill didn't

- D** Negative additions to negative remarks are made with **neither nor auxiliary + subject**:

Tom never goes to concerts, neither does his wife.

Ann hasn't any spare time - Neither Nor have I

I didn't get much sleep last night - Neither/Nor did I.

These additions can also be made with **subject + negative auxiliary + either**:

He didn't like the book: I didn't either.

They don't mind the noise; we don't either.

Alternatively, we can use the whole verb + object, if there is one + **either**.

I didn't like it either.

We don't mind it either.

11: CÁCH DÙNG BE, HAVE, DO

107. Hình thức và cách sử dụng trong các thì hình thành.

(Form and use in the formation of tenses)

A Form (Hình thức)

Principal parts: *be, was, been* (các thành phần chính: *be, was, been*)

Gerund/present participle: *being* (Danh động từ phân từ hiện tại: *being*)

Present tense: (Thì hiện tại)

Affirmative (Xác định)	Negative (Phủ định)	Interrogative (Nghi vấn)
<i>I am/I'm</i>	<i>I am not/I'm not</i>	<i>am I?</i>
<i>you are/you're</i>	<i>you are not/you're not</i>	<i>are you?</i>
<i>he is/he's</i>	<i>he is not/he's not</i>	<i>is he?</i>
<i>she is/she's</i>	<i>she is not/she's not</i>	<i>is she?</i>
<i>it is/it's</i>	<i>it is not/it's not</i>	<i>is it?</i>

<i>we are/we're</i>	<i>we are not/we're not</i>	<i>are we?</i>
<i>you are/you're</i>	<i>you are not/you're not</i>	<i>are you?</i>
<i>they are/they're</i>	<i>they are not/they're not</i>	<i>are they</i>

Alternative negative contractions: *you aren't, he isn't* etc.
 Negative interrogative : *am I not/aren't I? are you not/aren't you? is he not/isn't he?* etc.

Past tense: (Thì quá khứ)

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
<i>I was</i>	<i>I was not/wasn't</i>	<i>was I?</i>
<i>you were</i>	<i>you were not/weren't</i>	<i>were you?</i>
<i>he/she/it was</i>	<i>he/she/it was not/wasn't</i>	<i>was he/she/it?</i>
<i>we were</i>	<i>we were not/weren't</i>	<i>were we?</i>
<i>you were</i>	<i>you were not/weren't</i>	<i>were you?</i>
<i>they were</i>	<i>they were not/weren't</i>	<i>were they?</i>

Negative interrogative: *was I not/wasn't I? were you not/were you? was he not/wasn't he?* etc.

The forms are the same when **be** is used as an ordinary verb.
 Other tenses follow the rules for ordinary verbs. But **be** is not normally used in the continuous form except in the passive and as shown in 109 B.

B Use to form tenses

be is used in continuous active forms: *He is working/will be working* etc., and in all passive forms: *He was followed/is being followed.*

Note that **be** can be used in the continuous forms in the passive:

Active: *They are carrying him.*

Passive: *He is being carried.*

(For **be** used in the continuous with adjectives, see 109 B.)

108. Be + Nguyên mẫu.

(Be + infinitive)

A The **be + infinitive** construction, e.g. *I am to go*, is extremely important and can be used in the following ways:

1 To convey orders or instructions: (Truyền đạt mệnh lệnh hay chỉ dẫn)

No one is to leave this building without the permission of the police.

(no one must leave)

He is to stay here till we return. (he must stay)

This is a rather impersonal way of giving instructions and is chiefly used with the third person. When used with you it often implies that the speaker is passing on instructions issued by someone else. The difference between (a) *Stay here, Tom* and (b) *You are to stay here, Tom* is that in (a) the speaker himself is ordering Tom to stay, while in (b) he may be merely conveying to Tom the wishes of another person. This distinction disappears of course in indirect speech, and the **be + infinitive** construction is an extremely useful way of expressing indirect commands, particularly when the introductory verb is in the present tense:

He says, 'Wait till I come.' =

He says that we are to wait till he comes.

or when there is a clause in front of the imperative:

He said, 'If I fall asleep at the wheel wake me up.' =

He said that if he fell asleep at the wheel she was to wake him up.

It is also used in reporting requests for instructions:

'Where shall I put it, sir?' he asked =

He asked where he was to put it.

2 To convey a plan: (Để truyền đạt một dự định)

She is to be married next month.

The expedition is to start in a week's time.

This construction is very much used in newspapers:

The Prime Minister is to make a statement tomorrow.

In headlines the verb *be* is often omitted to save space:

Prime Minister to make statement tomorrow.

Past forms:

He was to go. (present infinitive)

He was to have gone. (perfect infinitive)

The first of these doesn't tell us whether the plan was carried out or not. The second is used for an unfulfilled plan, i.e. one which was not carried out:

The Lord Mayor was to have laid the foundation stone but he was taken ill last night so the Lady Mayoress is doing it instead.

B **was/were + infinitive** can express an idea of destiny:

He received a blow on the head. (It didn't worry him at the time but it was to be very troublesome later. (turned out to be/proved troublesome)

They said goodbye, little knowing that they were never to meet again. (were destined never to meet)

C **be about + infinitive** expresses the immediate future:

They are about to start. (They are just going to start/They are on the point of starting.)

just can be added to make the future even more immediate:

They are just about to leave.

Similarly in the past:

He was just about to dive when he saw the shark.

be on the point of + gerund has the same meaning as **be about + infinitive**, but is a shade more immediate.

Động từ Be như là một động từ thường.

(be as an ordinary verb)

Form: as for be used as an auxiliary (see 107 A)

109. Động từ Be chỉ sự tồn tại.

Be + Tính từ.

(be to denote existence, be + adjective)

- A be is the verb normally used to denote the existence of, or to give information about, a person or thing:

Tom is a carpenter. The dog is in the garden.

Malta is an island.

The roads were rough and narrow.

Gold is a metal. Peter was tall and fair.

- B be is used to express physical or mental condition:

I am hot/cold. He was excited/calm.

They will be happy/unhappy.

With certain adjectives, e.g. *quiet/noisy, good/bad, wise/foolish*, it is possible to use the continuous form of be. e.g. *Tom is being foolish*, to imply that the subject is showing this quality at this time. Compare *Tom is being foolish*, which means Tom is talking or acting foolishly now, with *Tom is foolish*, which means that Tom always acts or talks foolishly. Similarly, *The children are being quiet* means they are playing quietly now, but *The children are quiet* might mean that they usually play quietly.

Other adjectives include:

annoying

generous/mean

cautious/rash

helpful/unhelpful

<i>clever/stupid</i>	<i>irritating</i>
<i>difficult</i>	<i>mysterious</i>
<i>economical/extravagant</i>	<i>optimistic/pessimistic</i>
<i>formal</i>	<i>polite</i>
<i>funny</i>	<i>selfish/unselfish</i>

With some of these, e.g. *stupid*, *difficult*, *funny*, *polite*, continuous form may imply that the subject is deliberately acting in this way:

You are being stupid may mean *You are not trying to understand.*

He is being difficult usually means *He is raising unnecessary objections.*

He is being funny usually means *He is only joking. Don't believe him.*

She is just being polite probably means *She is only pretending to admire your car/clothes/house etc.*

C be is used for age:

How old are you? – I'm ten/I am ten years old. (I'm ten years)

How old is the tower? – It is 400 years old. (year must be used when giving the age of things.)

D Size and weight are expressed by be:

How tall are you?/What is your height? – I am 16 metres.

How high are we now? – We're about 20,000 feet.

What is your weight? or What do you weigh/How much do you weigh? – I am 65 kilos or I weigh 65 kilos.

E be is used for prices:

How much is this melon? or What does this melon cost? – It's £1.

The best seats are (=cost) £25.

110. There is/are, there was/were etc.

A When a noun representing an indefinite person or thing is the subject of the verb **be** we normally use a **there + be + noun** construction. We can say *A policeman is at the door* but *There is a policeman at the door* would be more usual.

Note that, though there appears to be the subject, the real subject is the noun that follows the verb, and if this noun is plural the verb must be plural too:

There are two policemen at the door.

In the above sentences both constructions (noun + be and **there + be + noun**) are possible. But when **be** is used to mean *exist/happen/ take place* the **there** construction is necessary:

There is a mistake!

There are mistakes in this translation.

These sentences could not be rewritten *A mistake is/Mistakes are* etc.

In the following examples (R) is placed after the example when the **there** construction is replaceable by noun/ pronoun + verb:

There have been several break-ins this year.

There will be plenty of room for everyone.

There were hundreds of people on the beach. (R)

B **there** can be used similarly with *someone/anyone/no one/something* etc.:

There's someone on the phone for you. (R)

C **there + be + something/nothing/anything** + adjective is also possible:

Is there anything wrong (with your car)? (R).

No, there's nothing wrong with it. (R)

There's something odd/strange about this letter.

- D A noun or *someone/something* etc. could be followed by relative clause:

There's a film I want to see.

There's something I must say.

or by an infinitive:

There's nothing to do. (nothing that we can do/must do)

- E The **there** construction can be used with another auxiliary + **be**

There must be no doubt about this.

There may be a letter for me.

or with **seem + be, appear + be:**

There seems to be something wrong here.

- F **there** used as above is always unstressed.

Be careful not to confuse **there** used in this way with **there** stressed, used as an adverb:

There's a man I want to see.

(He is standing by the door)

Compare with:

There's a man I want to see. (This man exists.)

111. So sánh **it is** và **there is**.

(it is and there is compared)

For uses of **it is**, see 61

Some examples may help to prevent confusion between the two forms:

- 1 **it is** + adjective; **there is** a fog.

It is foggy or There is a fog.

It was very wet or There was a lot of rain.

It won't be very sunny or There won't be much sun.

- 2 **it is, there is** of distance and time:

It is a long way to York.

There is a long way still to go.

(We have many miles still to go.)

It is time to go home.

(We always start home at six and it is six now)

There is time for us to go home and come back here again before the film starts.

(That amount of time exists)

3 **it is**, used for identity, and there is + noun/pronoun:

There is someone at the door. I think it's the man to read the meters.

There's a key here. Is it the key of the safe?

4 **it is**, used in cleft sentences (see 61 D), and **there is**:

It is the grandmother who makes the decisions. (the grandmother, not any other member of the family)

... and there's the grandmother, who lives in the granny-flat. (the grandmother exists)

Động từ Have như trợ động từ (*have as an auxiliary verb*)

112. Hình thức và cách sử dụng trong việc thành lập các thì.

(*Form and use in the formation of tenses*)

A Form (Hình thức)

Principal parts: *have, had, had* (Các phần chính: have, had, had)

Gerund/present participle: *having* (Danh động từ/phân từ hiện tại: *having*)

Present tense: (Thì hiện tại)

Affirmative (Xác định)	Negative (Phủ định)	Interrogative (Nghi vấn)
<i>I have/I've</i>	<i>I have not/haven't</i>	<i>have I?</i>

<i>you have/you've</i>	<i>you have not/haven't</i>	<i>have you?</i>
<i>he has/he's</i>	<i>he has not/hasn't</i>	<i>has he?</i>
<i>she has/she's</i>	<i>she has not/hasn't</i>	<i>has she?</i>
<i>it has/it's</i>	<i>it has not/hasn't</i>	<i>has it?</i>
<i>we have/we've</i>	<i>we have not/haven't</i>	<i>have we?</i>
<i>you have/you've</i>	<i>you have not/haven't</i>	<i>have you?</i>
<i>they have/they've</i>	<i>they have not/haven't</i>	<i>have they?</i>

Alternative negative contractions (chiefly used in perfect tenses)
I've not, you've not, he's not etc.

Negative interrogative: *have I not/haven't I? have you not/have you? has he not/hasn't he?* etc.

Past tense: (thì quá khứ)

Affirmative: *had/'d* for all persons

Negative : *had not/hadn't* for all persons

Interrogative: *had I?* etc.

Negative interrogative: *had I not/hadn't I?* etc.

Other tenses follow the rules for ordinary verbs.

- B Use to form tenses (Hình thức sử dụng các thì)
have is used with the past participle to form the following tenses:

Present perfect: *I have worked.*

Past perfect: *I had worked.*

Future perfect: *I will/shall have worked.*

Perfect conditional: *I would/should have worked.*

113. Have + Tân ngữ + Quá khứ phân từ.

(have + object + past participle)

- A This construction can be used to express more new sentences of the type 'I employed someone to do something for me'; i.e. instead of saying *I employed someone to do something*

my car we can say *I had my car cleaned*, and instead of *I got a man to sweep my chimneys* ('got' here = paid/persuaded etc.), we can say *I had my chimneys swept*. Note that this order of words, i.e. **have** + object + past participle, must be observed as otherwise the meaning will be changed: *He had his hair cut* means he employed someone to do it, but *He had cut his hair* means that he cut it himself some time before the time of speaking (past perfect tense).

When **have** is used in this way the negative and interrogative of its present and past tenses are formed with **do**:

Do you have your windows cleaned every month? - I don't have them cleaned; I clean them myself.

He was talking about having central heating put in.

Did he have it put in in the end?

It can also be used in continuous tenses:

I can't ask you to dinner this week as I am having my house painted at the moment.

While I was having my hair done the police towed away my car.

The house is too small and he is having a room built on.

get can be used in the same way as **have** above but is more colloquial.

get is also used when we mention the person who performs the action:

She got him to dig away the snow.

(She paid/persuaded him to dig etc.)

(**have** with a bare infinitive can be used in the same way, e.g. *She had him dig away the snow*, but the **get** construction is much more usual in British English.)

- B** The **have** + object + past participle construction can also be used colloquially to replace a passive verb, usually one

concerning some accident or misfortune:

*His fruit was stolen before he had a chance to pick it
can be replaced by*

*He had his fruit stolen before he had a chance to pick
it, and*

*Two of his teeth were knocked out in the fight can be
replaced by*

He had two of his teeth knocked out.

It will be seen that, whereas in A above the subject is the person who orders the thing to be done, here the subject is the person who suffers as a result of the action. The subject could be a thing:

The houses had their roofs ripped off by the gale.

get can also replace have here:

*The cat got her tail singed through sitting too near the
fire. (The cat's tail was singed etc.)*

114. Had Better + Động từ nguyên mẫu bỏ To.

(had better + bare infinitive)

had here is an unreal past; the meaning is present or future:

*I had/I'd better ring him at once/tomorrow. (This
would be a good thing to do/the best thing to do.)*

The negative is formed with **not** after **better**:

*You had better not miss the last bus. (It would be
unwise to miss it, or I advise/warn you not to miss it.)*

had here is usually contracted after pronouns and in speech is sometimes so unstressed as to be almost inaudible:

had better is not normally used in the ordinary interrogative, but is sometimes used in the negative interrogative as an advice form:

Hadn't you better ask him first? =

Wouldn't it be a good thing to ask him first?

you had better is a very useful advice form:

You had better fly. (It would be best for you to fly, or I advise you to fly.)

In indirect speech **had better** with the first or third person remains unchanged; **had better** with the second person can remain unchanged or be reported by **advise + object + infinitive**:

He said, 'I'd better hurry' =

He said (that) he 'd better hurry.

He said, 'Ann had better hurry' =

He said (that) Ann had better hurry.

He said, 'You'd better hurry' =

He said (that) I'd better hurry or

He advised me to hurry.

115. Have + Tân ngữ + Hiện tại phân từ.

(have + object + present participle)

A This expression is often used with a period of future time:

I'll have you driving in three days. (As a result of my efforts, you will be driving in three days.)

It can also be used in the past or present:

He had them all dancing. (He taught/persuaded them all to dance.)

I have them all talking to each other. (I encourage/persuade them all to talk to each other.)

It can be used in the interrogative:

Will you really have her driving in three days?

but is not often used in the negative.

B *If you give all-night parties you'll have the neighbors*

complaining,

(The neighbors will complain/will be complaining.)

If film-stars put their numbers in telephone book they'd have everyone ringing them up. (Everyone would ring/would be ringing them up.)

you'll have in the first example conveys the idea 'this will happen to you'. Similarly *they'd have* in the second example conveys the idea 'this would happen to them'.

If you don't put a fence round your garden you'll have people walking in and stealing your fruit. (People will walk in and steal/will be walking in and stealing i.e.this will happen to you.)

The construction can be used in the interrogative and negative:

When they move that bus stop, you won't have people sitting on your steps waiting for the bus any more.

This structure is chiefly used for actions which would be displeasing to the subject of **have**, as in the above example but it can be used for an action which is not displeasing:

When he became famous he had people stopping him in the street and asking for his autograph =

When he became famous, people stopped him in the street and asked for his autograph.

But **I won't have** + object + present participle normally means

'I won't/don't allow this'

I won't have him sitting down to dinner in his overalls. I make him change them. (I won't/don't allow him to sit down etc.)

This use is restricted to the first person.

(For **have** used for obligation, see chapter 14.)

Động từ Have như là động từ thường.

(Have as an ordinary verb)

116. Have nghĩa có "Có".

(have meaning 'possess')

- A This is the basic meaning of have: (đây là nghĩa cơ bản của have)

He has a black beard.

I have had this car for ten years.

She will have £4,000 a year when she retires.

- B Form (Hình thức)

	Affirmative (Xác định)	Negative (Phủ định)	Interrogative (Nghi vấn)
Present	<i>have (got) or have</i>	<i>haven't (got) or don't have</i>	<i>have I (got) ? etc. or do you have? etc.</i>
Past	<i>had</i>	<i>hadn't (got) or didn't have</i>	<i>had you (got)? etc. or did you have? etc.</i>

Note that the negative and interrogative can be formed in two ways.

- C **have** is conjugated with **do** for habitual actions: (have được chọn với **Do** cho những hành động theo thời gian)

I've got a headache -

Do you often have headaches?

When there is not this idea of habit, the **have not (got)/have you (got)** forms are more usual in Britain, whereas other English - speaking countries (notably America) use the **do** forms here also.

An American might say:

Can you help me now? Do you have time?

where an Englishman would probably say:

Can you help me now? Have you got time?

do forms can therefore be used safely throughout, but students living in Britain should practice the other forms as well.

- D** **got** can be added to **have/have not/have you** etc. as shown above. It makes no difference to the sense so it is entirely optional, but it is quite a common addition. **got** however, is not added in short answers or question tags:

Have you got an ice-axe? – Yes, I have.

She's got a nice voice, hasn't she?

have (affirmative) followed by **got** is usually contracted:

I've got my ticket. He's got a flat in Pimlico.

The stress falls on **got**. The 've or 's is often barely audible. **have** (affirmative) without **got** is often not contracted. The **have** or **has** must then be audible.

117. Have có nghĩa "Take 'dùng bữa' 'give' (đãi tiệc)" ...

(*have meaning 'take' (a meal), 'give' (a party) etc.*)

- A** **have** can also be used to mean:
- 'take' (a meal/food or drink, a bath/a lesson etc.)
 - 'give' (a party), 'entertain' (guests)
 - 'encounter' (difficulties/trouble)
 - 'experience', 'enjoy', usually with an adjective, e.g. good.
- We have lunch at one.*
They are having a party tomorrow.
Did you have trouble with Customs?
I hope you'll have a good holiday.
- B** **have** when used as above obeys the rules for ordinary verbs. It is never followed by **got**. Its negative and interrogative are made with **do/did**.

It can be used in the continuous tenses.

We are having breakfast early tomorrow. (near future)

She is having twenty people to dinner next Monday.
(near future)

I can't answer the telephone; I am having a bath.
(present)

How many English lessons do you have a week? – I have six.

You have coffee at eleven, don't you? (habit)

Ann has breakfast in bed, but Mary doesn't. (habit)

Will you have some tea/coffee etc.? (This is an invitation. We can also omit *Will you* and say *Have some tea etc.*)

Did you have a good time at the theatre? (Did you enjoy yourself?)

Have a good time! (Enjoy yourself.)

I am having a wonderful holiday.

I didn't have a very good journey.

Do you have earthquakes in your country? – Yes, but we don't have them very often.

do

118. Form (Hình thức).

Principal parts: *do, did, done* (phần chính: do did, done)

Gerund/present participle: *doing* (Danh động từ/Hiện tại phân từ: doing)

Present tense: (thì hiện tại)

Affirmative (Xác định)	Negative (Phủ định)	Interrogative (Nghi vấn)
<i>I do</i>	<i>I do not/don't</i>	<i>do I?</i>
<i>you do</i>	<i>you do not/don't</i>	<i>do you?</i>
<i>he does</i>	<i>he does not/doesn't</i>	<i>does he?</i>

<i>she does</i>	<i>she does not/doesn't</i>	<i>does she?</i>
<i>it does</i>	<i>it does not/doesn't</i>	<i>does it?</i>
<i>we do</i>	<i>we do not/don't</i>	<i>do we?</i>
<i>you do</i>	<i>you do not/don't</i>	<i>do you?</i>
<i>they do</i>	<i>they do not/don't</i>	<i>do they?</i>

Negative interrogative: *do I not/don't I? do you not/don't you does he not/doesn't he?* etc.

do as an ordinary verb has the affirmative shown above. But for negative and interrogative we add the infinitive **do** to the above forms:

What does/did she do? (See 120.)

Past tense: (Thì quá khứ)

Affirmative: *did* for all persons

Negative: *did not/didn't* for all persons

Interrogative: *did he?* etc.

Negative interrogative: *did he not/didn't he?* etc.

do is followed by the bare infinitive:

I don't know.

Did you see it?

He doesn't like me.

119. Động từ Do như trợ động từ.

(do used as an auxiliary)

A **do** is used to form the negative and interrogative of the present simple and past simple tenses of ordinary verbs (s 97-99):

He doesn't work.

He didn't work.

Does he work?

Did he work?

B It is possible to use **do/did** + infinitive in the affirmative also when we wish to add special emphasis. It is chiefly used when another speaker has expressed doubt about the action referred to:

You didn't see him. – I did see him. (The **did** strongly stressed in speech. This is more emphatic than the normal *I saw him.*)

I know that you didn't expect me to go, but I did go.

C **do** is used to avoid repetition of a previous ordinary verb:

1 In short agreements and disagreements (see 103);

Tom talks too much. –

Yes, he does/No, he doesn't.

He didn't go. –

No, he didn't /Oh yes, he did.

2 In additions (see 106):

He likes concerts and so do we. (Note inversion.)

He lives here but I don't.

He doesn't drive but I do.

3 In question tags (see also 104):

He lives here, doesn't he?

He didn't see you, did he?

D **do** is used in short answers to avoid repetition of the main verb:

Do you smoke? –

Yes, I do (not Yes, I smoke)/No, I don't.

Did you see him? –

Yes, I did/No, I didn't. (See 102.)

E Similarly in comparisons. *He drives faster than I do.*

F **do + imperative** makes a request or invitation more persuasive:

Do come with us. (more persuasive than Come with us.)

Do work a little harder. Do help me, please.

G It can similarly be used as an approving or encouraging affirmative answer to someone asking for approval of, or permission to do, some action: *Shall I write to him? – Yes, do or Do alone.*

120. Động từ Do như động từ thường.

(do used as an ordinary verb)

do, like have, can be used as an ordinary verb. It then forms its negative and interrogative in the simple present and past with **do/did**:

<i>I do not do</i>	<i>do you do?</i>	<i>don't you do?</i>
<i>he does not do</i>	<i>does he do?</i>	<i>doesn't he do?</i>
<i>I did not do</i>	<i>did he do?</i>	<i>didn't he do? etc.</i>

It can be used in the continuous forms, or simple forms:

What are you doing (now)? – I'm doing my homework.

What's he doing tomorrow? (near future)

What does he do in the evenings? (habit)

Why did you do it? – I did it because I was angry.

How do you do? is said by both parties after an introduction:

HOSTESS: *Mr Day, may I introduce Mr Dam? Mr Davis. Mr Day.*

Both men say *How do you do?* Originally this was an enquiry about the other person's health. Now it is merely a formal greeting.

Some examples of other uses of **do**:

He doesn't do what he's told.

(doesn't obey orders)

What do you do for a living? – I'm an artist.

How's the new boy doing?. (getting on)

I haven't got a torch. Will a candle do?

(= be suitable/adequate) –

A candle won't do. I'm looking for a gas leak.

(A candle would be unsuitable.)

Would £10 do? (= be adequate) – No, it wouldn't. I need £20. **to do with** (in the infinitive only) can mean 'concern'.

It is chiefly used in the construction **it is/was something/nothing to do with** + noun/ pronoun/gerund:

It's nothing to do with you = It doesn't concern you.

MỤC LỤC

1. Mạo từ
2. Danh từ
3. Tính từ
4. Trạng từ
5. Cách dùng từ All, Each, Every, Both, Neither, Either, Some, Any, No, None
6. Cách dùng câu hỏi WH-? và How?
7. Đại từ sở hữu, nhân xưng và phản thân.
8. Đại từ quan hệ và mệnh đề quan hệ.
9. Giới từ
10. Giới thiệu về các động từ.
11. Cách dùng Be, Have, Do
12. Động từ May và Can chỉ sự cho phép và khả năng
13. Can và Be able dùng chỉ khả năng
14. Ought, Should, Must, Have to, Need, dùng chỉ bốn phần.
15. Must, Have, Will và Should dùng chỉ sự suy đoán và giả định.
16. Trợ động từ Dare (dám, thách) và Used.
17. Các thì hiện tại.
18. Thì quá khứ và quá khứ hoàn thành.
19. Thì tương lai.
20. Sự nối tiếp các thì.
21. Điều kiện cách.
22. Những cách dùng khác của Will/Would, Shall/Should
23. Động từ nguyên thể.
24. Danh động từ.
25. Cấu trúc động từ nguyên thể và danh động từ
26. Các phân từ
27. Bảng động từ bất quy tắc.

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