

Base (V)	Past tense (V- <i>ed</i> ₁)	- <i>ed</i> participle (V- <i>ed</i> ₂)	Reference
wear	wore	worn	4Ab
weave	wove	woven	4Aa
wed	wedded, wed	wedded, wed	5
weep	wept	wept	3A
wet	wetted, wet	wetted, wet	5
win	won	won	6B
wind	wound	wound	6C
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn	4Bd
withhold	withheld	withheld	6A
withstand	withstood	withstood	6H
wring	wrung	wrung	6B
write	wrote	written	4Ca

Verbs in auxiliary function

- 3.21** In contrast to full verbs, the verbs we will consider in the next sections are capable of functioning as AUXILIARY or 'helping' verbs (*cf* 2.27*f*). These are the PRIMARY VERBS BE, HAVE, and DO, and the MODAL VERBS *can*, *may*, *will*, *shall*, *could*, *might*, *would*, *should*, and *must*. Since they can function only as auxiliaries, the modal verbs will generally be referred to as MODAL AUXILIARIES.

The auxiliaries make different contributions to the verb phrase (*cf* 3.55*f*). Of the three primary verbs, DO is only a semantically empty syntactic component in sentence processes such as negation and interrogation (*cf* DO-support; 3.37), whereas BE contributes to aspect and voice, and HAVE contributes to aspect. The modal auxiliaries are so called because of their contribution of meanings in the area known as MODALITY (including such concepts as volition, probability, and obligation); but such verbs have a broader semantic role than this label suggests (*cf* 4.49*ff*).

Although auxiliaries have different functions in the verb phrase, they have one important syntactic function in common, *viz* their ability to act as OPERATOR when they occur as the first verb of a finite verb phrase (*cf* 2.48); as such they are used, for example, in the formation of *yes-no* questions:

Is he asking any questions?
Has he been asking any questions?
Was he asked any questions?
Will he be asked any questions?
Has he asked any questions?
Does he ask any questions?

Here the operator, or first auxiliary of the verb phrase, is isolated from the rest of the predicate no matter how complex the verb phrase is. Since BE and (sometimes, esp in BrE) HAVE also have this function as main verbs, the term operator will also be used for them in sentences like:

Is she a tall girl? *Has he any money?* <BrE>

(The variant constructions with HAVE are discussed in 3.33–35.) The complex verb phrase of *He might have been being questioned by the police* is thus analysed, within this sentence, as shown in Fig 3.21:

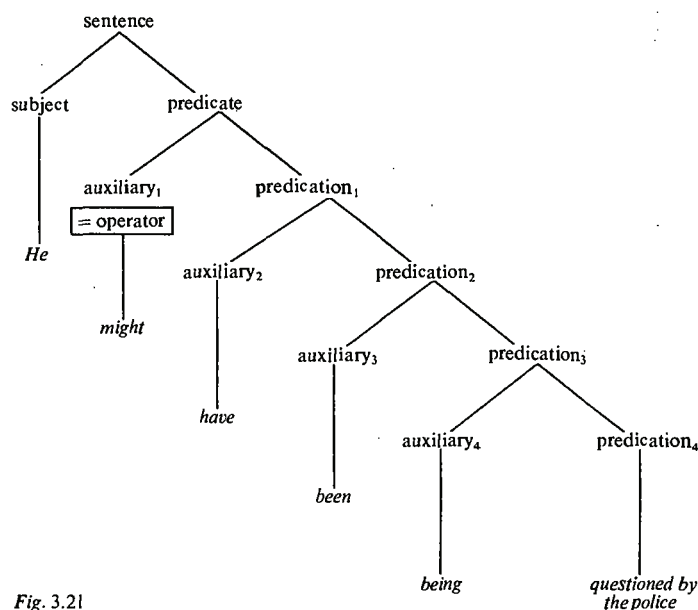


Fig. 3.21

(On the use of the terms predicate and predication in this diagram, cf 2.47–48.)

Many of the criteria for the syntactic function of auxiliaries have to do with their status as operators, and therefore apply also to BE and HAVE as main verbs. These are listed in (a), (c), (d), (e) below. Of the remaining criteria, (b) is morphological, (f) and (g) are syntactic and have to do with the ordering of elements in the verb phrase, and (h) is semantic.

Criteria for auxiliary verbs

(a) Operator in negation with *not*

3.22 In forming negative finite clauses, the first auxiliary is placed before the negative word *not*. Contrast:

She *can* do it. She *cannot* do it.
 She *saw* the play. *She *saw not* the play.

As the example shows, full verbs like SEE are distinguished from auxiliary verbs by their inability to form negation in this way.

Note [a] Whereas current English has no negative sentence such as **She saw not the play* (but cf Note [b]) we do have an acceptable negative sentence of the form:

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He decided *not* to see the play.
I like *not* working on Fridays.

In these cases, however, negation is associated with the second, nonfinite verb phrases, *to see* and *working*, rather than with the initial finite verb phrases, *decided* and *like* (cf 14.7). This is obvious from the following paraphrases:

He decided that he would not see the play.
I like it not working on Fridays.

which are not synonymous with:

He did not decide that he would see the play.
I don't like it working on Fridays.

In these examples, the distinction between negation in the superordinate clause and negation in the nonfinite clause is clear; but in other cases, the semantic difference may be small or nonexistent (cf catenative verbs 3.49; transferred negation 14.36):

She seemed not to mind. = She didn't seem to mind.

Even here, however, the syntactic difference between the two constructions is indicated by the inability of the first negative to be contracted: **She seemn't to mind* (cf 3.23).

[b] Whereas **She saw not the play* was rejected above, *She saw not the play but the opera* is acceptable. The reason for this is that the negative word *not* goes with the noun phrase *the play* rather than with the verb (cf 13.42); i.e. the sentence can be paraphrased:

It was not the play but the opera that she saw.

A related example of the use of *not* after a full verb is the following quotation from President John F. Kennedy's Inaugural Address:

Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.

This case is parallel to the preceding one, in that there is a contrastive parallelism between the two objects of the verb *ask*, the first of which is rejected by *not*: . . . *not what your country can do for you* . . . (*but*) *what you can do for your country*. The scope of *not* here therefore includes the interrogative clause, but excludes the main verb. This example also has an air of studied archaism (cf Note [c]).

[c] In archaic or facetiously archaic usage we can still meet negative constructions in which *not* follows a full verb and not an operator:

Whether they succeeded I *know not*. ['I do not know']

I *care not* who knows it. ['I do not care . . .']

If I *mistake not*, you were at Yale? ['If I am not in error . . .']

[d] *Not* also follows a full verb when it acts as a pro-form for a clause (cf 12.28):

Jean may be late, but I *hope not*. ['. . . hope that she won't be late']

[e] Negation in subjunctive and nonfinite verb phrases does not involve the occurrence of an operator (cf 3.58, 14.6).

(b) Negative and verb contractions

3.23 The negative word *not* following an operator can in most cases be contracted and attached, as an enclitic particle, to the auxiliary. The resulting negative auxiliary is spelled with a final *-n't*: *isn't*, *hadn't*, *didn't*, *won't*, *couldn't*, etc. The pronunciation of the contracted auxiliary and its conditions of use are given below in later sections (3.32ff, 3.39). Every auxiliary except the *am* form of BE has a contracted negative form (but cf 3.32 Note [c]), but two of these, *mayn't* and *shan't*, are now virtually nonexistent in AmE, while in BrE *shan't* is becoming rare and *mayn't* even more so.

In addition, many operators have contracted nonnegative forms:

BE:	<i>am</i> ~ 'm; <i>is</i> ~ 's; <i>are</i> ~ 're;
HAVE:	<i>have</i> ~ 've; <i>has</i> ~ 's; <i>had</i> ~ 'd;
modals:	<i>will</i> ~ 'll; <i>would</i> ~ 'd.

Notice that the contractions 's and 'd are ambiguous, the former representing *is* or *has* (or, occasionally, *does*; cf 3.36 Note), and the latter *had* or *would*. Further information on individual contractions is given in 3.33, 3.36, 3.39.

The above verb contractions were called nonnegative because they cannot combine with negative contractions to form doubly-contracted forms:

- (i) She *is not* studying. (ii) She *isn't* studying.
 (iii) She's *not* studying. (iv) *She'sn't studying.

There are, however, two constructions (ii) and (iii) corresponding to the uncontracted negative construction in (i). In the first contracted construction (ii), the contracted negative is attached to the uncontracted operator; in the second contracted form, the contracted operator is attached to the subject, the *not* being uncontracted. Generally speaking, the variant (ii) with contracted negation is more common than the variant (iii) with contracted verb and full negation. There are, however, exceptions to this generalization in Scotland and in Northern England, where forms such as *'ll not* seem to be preferred to forms such as *won't*.

Contractions are phonologically reduced or simplified forms which are institutionalized in both speech and writing. As such, they are to be distinguished from cases of PHONOLOGICAL REDUCTION only (eg the reduction of /ɑː/ to /ə/ in the pronunciation of *are*). A contracted form can undergo additional phonological reduction, and this is very commonly the case with the negative contractions, where the final /nt/ is reduced to /n/; eg: *haven't* /hævn/, *isn't* /ɪzn/.

Contracted forms, being enclitic to a preceding word, naturally do not occur initially, eg where the operator comes at the beginning of the clause, with inversion (cf 3.24). Further, being unstressed, they do not occur where the operator is the only verb in the verb phrase, and precedes an ellipsis (cf 3.26). These two circumstances are illustrated in:

- { *Will* you be in tonight?
 { **'ll* you be in tonight?
 { No, but I *will* tomorrow night.
 { *No, but I'*ll* tomorrow night.

In other positions, the contraction is favoured in informal style. The choice between uncontracted *is* /ɪz/ and contracted 's /z/ in spoken English has been found to be conditioned by the following variables, listed in order of importance:

First, there is significant correlation of /z/ with a preceding pronoun, or with the preceding words *there* and *here*, eg:

It's raining. There's a car in the garage. Here's my bus.

whereas the uncontracted form is associated with a preceding noun, eg:

The car *is* in the garage.

Second, but less important, /z/ is typical of informal and /ɪz/ of formal contexts.

Third, there is some tendency for the contracted form to be more common when functioning as an auxiliary than as a main verb.

When these three factors of preference are combined the choice of form is more predictable, ie /ɪz/ is most likely when it is a main verb and follows a

noun in a formal context (eg: *Radiation is dangerous*), whereas /z/ is most likely when it is an auxiliary and follows a pronoun in an informal context (eg: *It's getting dark*). A similar pattern of choice is to be expected with other verb contractions.

- Note [a] Although phonological reduction may result in pronunciations similar to those of orthodox contractions, such reductions are not represented in writing if they occur outside the normal conditions for contraction. For example, although the auxiliary at the beginning of *Have you eaten?* may be reduced, in speech, to /v/ (as in /vju: 'itn/), this will not be written in standard orthography **Ve you eaten?*
 [b] On the alternative constructions *usedn't to* and *didn't use(d) to*, cf 3.44.

(c) Inversion of subject and operator

- 3.24 Auxiliaries, as operators, admit inversion; ie the subject noun phrase and the auxiliary (the first auxiliary if there are two or more) change places, especially in interrogative clauses. Compare:

She will come. ~ Will she come?
 She plans to come. ~ *Plans she to come?

As with *not*-negation (cf 3.22) main verbs here require the use of DO (cf 3.37):
Does she plan to come?

Inversion of subject and operator occurs not only in interrogatives but also in sentences with introductory negatives or semi-negatives (cf 18.24):

At no time *was* the entrance *left* unguarded.

- Note [a] In addition to subject-operator inversion, there is also inversion of subject and main verb, as in *Down came the rain* (cf 18.23).
 [b] Subject-operator inversion is usual not only with *yes-no* questions, but with *wh*-questions. There are, however, one or two formulaic *wh*-questions in which the subject and main verb are inverted:
 How goes it? [a greeting: 'How are you doing?]
 How came you to miss the train? ['How did you come to...?]
 What say you, Peter? ['What is your opinion?]
 Where stands the Administration?
 There tends to be a tone of archaism or mock-archaism in such questions.
 [c] On *Used she to come?* and *Did she use(d) to come?* cf 3.44.

(d) Emphatic positive

- 3.25 Auxiliaries as operators can carry nuclear stress to mark a finite clause as positive rather than negative:

Won't you try again? Yes, I **WILL** try again. [1]
 You must speak to the teacher. I **HAVE** spoken to her. [2]

The function of this **EMPHATIC POSITIVE** use of the operator is to deny a negative which has been stated or implied. On the use of DO here in assertive contexts, cf 3.37, 18.16:

You **DID** speak to her? ['I thought you didn't']
 You should listen to your mother. But I **DO** listen to her.

Sometimes the emphatic operator has no contrastive meaning, but is used purely for emotive force (cf 18.56):

I **AM** glad! I **DO** wish you would **LISTEN**. You **HAVE** done well.

(e) **Operator in reduced clauses**

3.26 The reply to a question such as:

Won't you try again? Can you drive a car?

may be as indicated in [1] above:

Yes, I **WILL** try again. No, I **CAN'T** drive a car.

On the other hand, a more likely reply would be the elliptical construction:

Yes, I **WILL**. No, I **CAN'T**.

Auxiliaries can function as operators in a range of such reduced constructions (cf 12.21f, 12.60), where the main verb is omitted either by ellipsis or by pro-form substitution, and the clause is understood to repeat the content of an earlier clause. The nature of this type of operator function has been captured by various labels such as 'code' or 'stranding'.

Here we mention four types of reduced clause containing an operator without a main verb, of which the first two are the most important. **DO** is used as an 'empty' operator where the clause has no other auxiliary.

(i) **SO/NEITHER/NOR + OPERATOR** (cf 12.29)

Positive:

Ann will stay and so *will* **BAR**bara.

Bill stayed and so *did* **HEN**ry.

Negative:

Ann won't stay and *neither will* **BAR**bara.

Bill didn't stay, *nor did* **HEN**ry.

(ii) **OPERATOR + TOO/EITHER** (cf 12.59)

Positive:

Ann will stay late and Barbara *will* **TOO**.

Bill broke his promise, and Henry *did* **TOO**.

Negative:

Ann won't eat much and Barbara *won't* **EITHER**.

Bill didn't break his promise, and Henry *didn't* **EITHER**.

(iii) **PREDICATION FRONTING** (cf 18.20)

Ann **SĀID** she would be late, and late she *was*.

Bill **SĀID** he would win the match, and win the match he *DĪD*.

(iv) **RELATIVIZED PREDICATION** (cf 6.34 Note [b])

Ann said she would be late, which she *was*.

Bill said he would win the match, which he *did*.

In these examples, the second auxiliary (unless it is **DO**) is the same as the first; but there are also reduced constructions in which the two auxiliaries may differ (cf 12.59, 19.45 Note):

Ann hoped that we *would* stay, but unfortunately we *couldn't*.

You *should* take a break whenever you *can*.

participles, and as a consequence of this can occur only as first verb in the verb phrase:

MODAL VERB	PRIMARY VERB	FULL VERB
* <i>to may</i>	<i>to have</i>	<i>to eat</i>
* <i>(is) maying</i>	<i>(is) being</i>	<i>(is) eating</i>
* <i>(has) mayed</i>	<i>(has) been</i>	<i>(has) eaten</i>

The primary verbs have the full range of nonfinite forms, but not all of these forms can be used in auxiliary function. For BE, all three nonfinite forms can be auxiliaries: *be, being, been*; HAVE has no *-ed* participle in auxiliary function, but only *have* and *having*. 'Dummy' auxiliary DO, like the modal auxiliaries, can only occur as an operator, and the nonfinite forms of DO, *(to) do, doing, and done*, are constructed only as main verbs.

(l) No 3rd person inflection

Modal auxiliaries are not inflected in the 3rd person singular of the present tense; *ie*, they have no *-s* form:

You *must* } write. BUT: You *like* } to write.
 She *must* } She *likes* }

In contrast, the primary verbs do have an *-s* form, but it is irregular (*cf* 3.31*ff*).

(m) Abnormal time reference

Not only the present forms, but the past forms of the modal auxiliaries can be used to refer to present and future time (often with hypothetical or tentative meaning):

I think he *may/might* retire next May.
Will/would you phone him tomorrow?

Contrast:

*I think he *retired* next May.
 **Did* you *phone* him tomorrow?

Also modal auxiliaries which do not have a distinct past form (*eg: must, need, ought*) can be used to refer to the past in indirect speech:

I told him he *must* be home early. [*... had to be ...*]

Note [a] The use of past forms to refer to present and future time is also possible with full verbs, but only in some special constructions: *eg* in hypothetical *if*-clauses (*cf* 14.23, 15.35*f*):

If you *phoned* [*'were to phone'*] me tomorrow, I could help you straight away.

[b] In dialectal use (*eg* Scots English, Tyneside English, and Southern AmE), there are varieties of popular speech in which one modal auxiliary can follow another: *He might could come* [*'He might be able to come'*] etc.

The primary verbs BE, HAVE, and DO

- 3.31 Having discussed auxiliary verb criteria, we can now consider the special morphological and syntactic characteristics of verbs which can function as auxiliaries: first the primary, and second the modal verbs.

Semantically, the primary verbs as auxiliaries share an association with the basic grammatical verb categories of tense, aspect, and voice (cf 3.63, 4.2, 4.17). In this they are broadly distinguished from the modal verbs, which are associated mainly with the expression of modal meanings such as possibility, obligation, and volition (cf 4.42ff). But first, we examine these primary verbs from a formal point of view.

BE

- 3.32 The verb BE is a main verb (with a copular function; cf 2.16) in:

Ann is a happy girl. Is that building a hotel?

But BE also has two auxiliary functions: as an aspect auxiliary (Type C, 3.55):

Ann is learning Spanish.
The weather has *been* improving.

and as a passive auxiliary (Type D, 3.55):

Ann was awarded a prize.
Our team has never *been* beaten.

BE is unique in having a full set of both finite and nonfinite forms in auxiliary function; it is also unique among English verbs in having as many as eight different forms, cf Table 3.32 on the next page. In the nonnegative column of Table 3.32 the unstressed pronunciations (with vowel reduction) are given after the stressed pronunciation, where they differ.

Note [a] BE is the only verb in English to have a special form for the 1st person singular of the present (*am*) and two distinct forms of the past tense (*was, were*). In the subjunctive, however (cf 3.58ff), the form *was* does not occur.

[b] *Ain't* is a nonstandard contraction commonly used (esp in AmE) in place of *am not, is not, are not, has not, and have not*.

[c] There is no completely natural informal contraction of *am I not* (parallel to *isn't she* for *is she not*) in negative sentences. (On the position of *not* in negative questions, cf 11.7.) *Aren't I* is widely used, especially in BrE, whereas *ain't I*, usually considered nonstandard, is somewhat more current in AmE than in BrE. *Ain't I* is mainly Scottish and Irish.

[d] The following BrE example (of marginal acceptability) shows that it is possible for *aren't* to act as a contracted form of *am not* even in declarative contexts:

HÈ WÁsn't and Ì probably *aren't* NÓRmally.

Here the substitution of *aren't* seems to have resulted from a desire for parallelism with the preceding occurrence of *wasn't*.

[e] Phonologically, the contracted 's ending /s/ or /z/ cannot occur after a sibilant consonant. Hence *Your place is over there* cannot become in writing **Your place's over there*. Compare the conditions for the pronunciation of the -s form of regular verbs (cf 3.5), and contrast the contraction following a nonsibilant:

Your { place is /pleɪsɪz/ }
 { seat's /si:t's/ } over there.

Other conditions on the use of the contraction 's in place of *is* are discussed in 3.23.

(f) Pre-adverb position

- 3.27 Frequency subjuncts, like *always* or *never*, and disjuncts, like *certainly* or *probably*, typically, but not necessarily, follow auxiliaries as operators, whereas they precede main verbs. Compare:

She $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{never} \\ \textit{probably} \end{array} \right\}$ believed his story.

She would $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{never} \\ \textit{probably} \end{array} \right\}$ believe that story.

If there is more than one auxiliary, the adverb will still generally occur after the first, *ie* after the operator:

She would *probably never* have believed his story.

The position of an adverb, however, is often variable within the verb phrase (*cf* 8.14*ff*). Compare:

She $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{would probably never have} \\ \textit{probably never would have} \\ \textit{would probably have never} \end{array} \right\}$ believed that story.

The most important point is that such adverbs could not occur immediately after the main verb except where the main verb is **BE** (and therefore an operator):

*She believed *never/probably* his story.

(*Cf*: She was *never/probably* a taxpayer.)

(g) Quantifier position

- 3.28 Quantifiers like *all*, *both*, and *each* which modify the subject of the clause may occur after the operator as an alternative, in many instances, to the predeterminer position (*cf* 5.15*f*):

All the boys will be there. ~ The boys will *all* be there.

Both my parents are working. ~ My parents are *both* working.

These quantifiers do not, however, occur after a main verb in the same type of construction:

All our team played well. ~ *Our team played *all* well.

Each of us owns a bicycle. ~ *We own *each* a bicycle.

But if the quantifier is placed before the main verb, these sentences become acceptable:

Our team *all* played well. We *each* own a bicycle.

Note *All*, *both*, and *each* sometimes occur between subject and operator, but this is exceptional, and less acceptable than the post-operator position:

?We both were working late. ~ We were both working late.

(h) Independence of subject

- 3.29 Compared with most main verbs, auxiliaries are semantically independent of the subject. This is reflected in at least three ways.

First, there is a lack of semantic restrictions (*cf* 10.51) between the subject and the auxiliary verb. Contrast:

The man } ought to be here at five.
The bus }

The man } hopes to be here at five.
*The bus }

Second, there is the possibility of construction with existential *there*:

There *used* } to be a school on the island.
*There *hoped* }

Third, if other conditions are met for the active-passive correspondence (*eg* if the verb is transitive, *cf* 3.67ff), auxiliaries usually admit the change from one voice to the other without change of meaning:

Thousands of people will meet the president.
= The president will be met by thousands of people.

Compare the situation in which a full verb occurs as first (finite) verb:

Thousands of people hope to meet the president.
≠ The president hopes to be met by thousands of people.

These criteria for independence are, however, not infallible. For example, in some contexts some auxiliaries fail the active-passive test (*cf* 3.72), and there are also some verbs which by other criteria are not auxiliaries, but which pass this test. These verbs will be considered later (3.47ff) under the headings of semi-auxiliary and catenative verbs.

Additional features of modal auxiliary verbs

- 3.30 The criteria (a–h) discussed so far help to define auxiliaries as a functional class, but it must be remembered that all of them except (h) apply to operators in general, and therefore apply also to BE and (sometimes) HAVE as main verbs. Now we add the following morphological and syntactic criteria which apply specifically to modal auxiliary verbs, as distinct from the primary verbs BE, HAVE, and DO.

(j) Construction with the bare infinitive

Modal auxiliaries are normally followed by the infinitive, which is bare (*ie* the base form of the verb alone) except with *used* (*cf* 3.44) and (usually) *ought* (*cf* 3.43), verbs which for this reason, as well as for others, are somewhat marginal to the class of modals. Compare:

You *will* be asked questions. BUT: You *ought to* comb your hair.
They *might* have stolen it. BUT: He *used to* read for hours.

(On the marginal modal auxiliaries *dare* and *need*, *cf* 3.42.)

(k) Finite functions only

Modal auxiliaries can only occur as the first (operator) element of the verb phrase. They cannot occur in nonfinite functions, *ie* as infinitives or

Table 3.32 Forms of BE

	NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE (cf Note)
base	<i>be</i> /bi:/, /bɪ/		
present			
1st person singular present	<i>am</i> /æm/, /əm/ <i>'m</i> /m/	<i>am not</i> , <i>'m not</i>	<i>(aren't)</i>
3rd person singular present	<i>is</i> /ɪz/ <i>'s</i> /z/, /s/	<i>is not</i> , <i>'s not</i>	<i>isn't</i> /'ɪzn̩t/
2nd person present, 1st and 3rd person plural present	<i>are</i> /ɑː/ <i>'re</i> /ə/	<i>are not</i> <i>'re not</i>	<i>aren't</i> /ɑːnt/
past			
1st and 3rd person singular past	<i>was</i> /wɒz/, /w(ə)z/	<i>was not</i>	<i>wasn't</i> /'wɒzn̩t/
2nd person past 1st and 3rd person plural past	<i>were</i> /wɜː/, /wə/	<i>were not</i>	<i>weren't</i> /wɜːnt/
-ing form	<i>being</i> /'biːŋ/	<i>not being</i>	
-ed participle	<i>been</i> /biːn/, /bɪn/	<i>not been</i>	

NOTE The final /t/ of the negative contraction is commonly not sounded.

HAVE

- 3.33 HAVE functions both as an auxiliary and as a main verb. As an auxiliary for perfective aspect (cf 4.18ff), HAVE combines with an -ed participle to form complex verb phrases:

I have finished.
What has she bought?
They may have been eaten.

As a main verb, it normally takes a direct object, and has various meanings such as possession: *I have no money*; *They had two children*; etc (cf 3.34). The different forms of HAVE are shown in Table 3.33 opposite.

In negative constructions we have the following three variants:

<i>I have not</i> seen her.	(typical of written discourse)
<i>I haven't</i> seen her. } <i>I've not</i> seen her. }	(typical of spoken discourse)

Of the contracted forms, the *haven't* type is generally more common than the *'ve not* type. As an -ed participle, *had* is restricted to use as a main verb, as in

Have you had lunch?, or to use in the HAVE *to* construction, as in *They have had to sell their car*.

Note Phonologically, the 'd contraction cannot occur after /t/ or /d/: if we encounter the written form 'd in such contexts (eg: *It'd been damaged*), this must be understood to represent the syllabic reduced form /əd/. Compare a similar restriction in 3.32 Note [e].

Table 3.33 Forms of HAVE

	NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE (cf Note)
base	<i>have</i> /hæv/, /(h)əv/ 've /v/	<i>have not</i> 've not	<i>haven't</i> /'hævnt/
-s form	<i>has</i> /hæz/, /(h)əz/ 's /z/, /s/	<i>has not</i> 's not	<i>hasn't</i> /'hæznt/
past	<i>had</i> /hæd/, /(h)əd/ 'd /d/	<i>had not</i> 'd not	<i>hadn't</i> /'hædnt/
-ing form	<i>having</i> /'hævɪŋ/	<i>not having</i>	
-ed participle	<i>had</i> /hæd/, /(h)əd/		

NOTE The final /t/ of the negative contraction is commonly not sounded.

HAVE as main verb

3.34 When used as a main verb with stative meaning (cf 4.4), HAVE shows syntactic variation in that it not only combines with DO-support in forming constructions with an operator (cf 3.37):

We don't have any money. Do you have a lighter?

but also acts as an operator itself in constructions such as:

We haven't any money. Have you a lighter?

This latter construction, although it is the traditional construction in BrE, is now somewhat uncommon, particularly in the past tense: *?Had she any news?*

There is also the informal HAVE *got* construction (cf 3.45), which although perfective in form is nonperfective in meaning, and is frequently preferred (esp in BrE) as an alternative to stative HAVE:

John has courage. = John has got courage.

It is particularly common in negative and interrogative clauses. To express some stative senses we can thus have three alternatives:

Possession: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(a) } \textit{We haven't} \\ \text{(b) } \textit{We haven't got} \\ \text{(c) } \textit{We don't have} \end{array} \right\} \text{any butter.}$

Relationship: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(a) } \textit{Have you} \\ \text{(b) } \textit{Have you got} \\ \text{(c) } \textit{Do you have} \end{array} \right\} \text{any brothers?}$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(a) } \textit{No, I haven't.} \\ \text{(b) } \textit{No, I haven't.} \\ \text{(c) } \textit{No, I don't.} \end{array} \right\}$

Health: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(a) I haven't} \\ \text{(b) I haven't got} \\ \text{(c) I don't have} \end{array} \right\}$ a headache any longer.

Of these alternatives, (a) is esp BrE <more formal>; (b) is esp BrE <informal>; (c) is AmE (and also common in BrE nowadays).

- Note [a] A further alternative for expressing negation is of course a negative determiner or pronoun: *We have no butter* (cf 5.13, 6.62).
 [b] On HAVE *to* compared with HAVE *got to*, cf 3.48.
 [c] In informal English *has got*, *have got*, and *had got* may be reduced to *'s got*, *'ve got*, and *'d got*. In very informal English, *'ve got* may be further reduced to *got*:
 What you *got* there? I *got* something nice for you.
 In its written form, this omission of the auxiliary is nonstandard.

- 3.35 In dynamic senses (cf 4.4) such as 'receive', 'take', 'experience', and in idioms with an eventive object (eg: *have breakfast* = 'eat breakfast'), HAVE (in both AmE and BrE) normally has DO-support, and HAVE *got* is not possible:

A: *Does she have coffee with her breakfast?*
 B: Yes, she *does*.
 A: *Did you have any difficulty getting here?*
 B: No, I *didn't*.
 A: *Did you have a good time in Japan?*
 B: Yes, we certainly *did*.

Other dynamic uses include HAVE in a causative sense followed by an *-ed* participle, or in a similar sense followed by a bare infinitive:

A: *Did they have the house painted?*
 B: No, they *didn't*.
 A: *Did they have you paint the house?*
 B: Yes, they *did*.

- Note [a] Note the following contrast between stative and dynamic meaning:
Had she got her baby at the clinic? ['Was her baby at the clinic with her?']
Did she have her baby at the clinic? ['Did she give birth to her baby at the clinic?']
 Especially in AmE, the second sentence could have both of these meanings.
 [b] Since HAVE with the DO construction is typically dynamic, in the present tense it tends to single out a habitual interpretation (cf 4.6). Compare:
Do you have bad headaches? [normally habitual: 'as a rule']
Have you got a bad headache? [nonhabitual: 'now, at this moment']
Have you got bad headaches? [This could only be addressed to more than one person in a nonhabitual sense.]

DO

- 3.36 DO, like BE and HAVE, can be both an auxiliary and a main verb. As an auxiliary, DO has no nonfinite forms, but only present and past forms, cf Table 3.36 opposite.

- Note Occasionally *does* is contracted in informal style to *'s /s/*; eg: *What's it matter?* A more drastic kind of phonological reduction is indicated by the following (nonstandard) orthographic rendering of informal speech:
Whyncha do it yourself? ['Why don't you . . .?']

Table 3.36 Forms of DO

	NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE (cf Note)
base	<i>do</i> /dʊ:/, /dʊ/, /də/	<i>do not</i>	<i>don't</i> /dɒnt/
-s form	<i>does</i> /dʌz/, /dəz/	<i>does not</i>	<i>doesn't</i> /'dʌznt/
past	<i>did</i> /dɪd/	<i>did not</i>	<i>didn't</i> /'dɪdnt/
-ing form (main verb only)	<i>doing</i> /'dʊɪŋ/		
-ed participle (main verb only)	<i>done</i> /dʌn/		

NOTE The final /t/ of the negative contraction is commonly not sounded.

DO-SUPPORT

- 3.37 The term DO-SUPPORT (or 'DO-periphrasis') applies to the use of DO as an 'empty' or 'dummy' operator (cf 2.49) in conditions where the construction requires an operator, but where there is no semantic reason for any other operator to be present. All uses of DO as an auxiliary come under this heading. The main ones are:

(a) In indicative clauses (cf 3.52) negated by *not*, where the verb is simple present or simple past:

She *doesn't* want to stay.
I *didn't* like mathematics at school.

Negative imperative clauses introduced by *Do not* or *Don't* may, with some reservation (cf 11.30, Note [a]), be placed in the same category.

(b) In questions and other constructions involving subject-operator inversion, where the verb is in the simple present or past tense:

Did he stay late? What *do* they say? *Does* it matter?

This category includes tag questions (cf 11.8ff) and other reduced questions where the dummy operator is not accompanied by a main verb:

He knows how to drive a car, *doesn't* he?
They *didn't* make any mistakes, *did* they?
I don't like him, *do* you?

It also includes inversion after an initial negative element:

Never *did* he think the book would be finished so soon.

(c) In emphatic constructions where the verb is simple present or simple past (cf emphatic positive constructions, 3.25):

They *do* want you to come.
Michael *did* say he would be here at nine, *didn't* he?

Here we may also include the 'persuasive imperative' introduced by *do*:

"Do sit down! "Do be quiet.
A: May I sit here? B: Yes, by all means Dò.

(See, however, 11.30 Note [a] on the dubious status of DO as operator in this construction.)

(d) In reduced clauses, where DO acts as a dummy operator preceding ellipsis of a predication (12.60):

Mary reads books faster than I *do*. [do = 'read books']
Did you watch the game on television? No, but my brother *did*.
['... watch the game on television']

Note [a] There is no DO-support for negation in nonfinite clauses, where *not* precedes a full verb as main verb:

Not liking mathematics, he gave it up.
Not to go to the exhibition would be a pity.

There is also normally no DO-support for subjunctive verbs (cf 3.58):

It is important that this mission *not fail*.

[b] Negative words other than *not* do not require DO-support:

No one liked him.
They *never/seldom* go out.

[c] Nor is there any DO-support in questions without inversion, *ie* questions with the normal S V O/C/A order (cf 11.12, 11.15): *He said that? Who came first?*

[d] Auxiliaries have no DO-support, since they themselves perform the function of operators (cf 3.21). Thus DO does not precede other auxiliaries: **She does must come*. There is a rare exception, however, where *Do* or *Don't* precedes auxiliary BE in imperatives (cf 11.30 Note [a]): *Don't be drinking wine when he calls; Don't be frightened by that noise*.

[e] In some legal documents in archaic style, the auxiliary DO construction is used merely as an alternative to the simple present or past tense:

I, the undersigned, being of sound mind, *do* this day hereby *bequeath* . . .

do as main verb

3.38 When used as a main verb, DO has the full range of forms, including the *-ing* participle *doing* and the *-ed* participle *done*:

What have you been *doing* today? I haven't *done* much, I'm afraid.

As a main verb, DO can combine with a pronoun object to act as a pro-predication referring to some unspecified action or actions. The pronoun object may be personal (*it*), demonstrative (*this/that*), interrogative (*what*), or indefinite (*nothing/anything*, etc):

I have been meaning to mend that radio, but I haven't *done it* yet.
(cf 12.25)

A: I'm throwing these books away. B: Why are you *doing THAT*?

A: *What* have they been *doing* to the road? B: Widening it.

A: *What* have you *done* with my pen? B: I've put it in the desk.

A: *What* did you *do* on holiday? B: We didn't *do anything*.

I didn't know *what to do*, so I *did nothing*.

See also the use of DO in pseudo-cleft sentences (18.29). DO is also used intransitively as a pro-predication (cf 12.22):

She didn't earn so much as she might have (*done*). <esp BrE>

Apart from these uses as a pro-form, the main verb DO has a wide range of uses as a general-purpose agentive transitive verb, especially in informal speech:

- Let's *do* the dishes – you wash and I'll dry. [1]
- Who *does* your car? Fred Archer – and he *does* my neighbour's too. [2]
- She's *done* some really good essays – and she always hands them in on time. [3]

DO in such sentences is often replaceable by a verb of more exact meaning; eg in [2] SERVICE or MAINTAIN, and in [3] WRITE. The meaning is narrowed down by the nature of the object: eg in *Will you do the potatoes?*, DO could mean 'peel' or 'cook', but scarcely 'polish', a meaning it might have in *Have you done the silver?*

Note There is also a resultative use of *done* meaning 'cooked': *Is the meat done?*

Modal auxiliaries

3.39 The criteria for identifying modal auxiliaries have been discussed in 3.22ff, and especially 3.30. Not all verbs respond to all criteria, however, and it is useful to make a distinction between central and marginal modals. We will discuss the marginal modals and other verbs of intermediate status in 3.40ff, and we will discuss the meanings of the modal auxiliaries later (4.49ff).

All that needs to be said about the form of the central modals is stated in Table 3.39 and the accompanying Notes. The Table gives the contracted

Table 3.39 Forms of the modal auxiliary verbs

NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE
{ <i>can</i> /kæn, kən/ <i>could</i> /kʊd, kəd/	<i>cannot</i> , (<i>can not</i> : cf Note [b]) <i>could not</i>	<i>can't</i> /kɑ:nt/ <BrE>, /kænt/ <AmE> <i>couldn't</i> /'kʊdnt/
{ <i>may</i> /meɪ/ <i>might</i> /maɪt/	<i>may not</i> <i>might not</i>	(<i>mayn't</i> /meɪnt/ cf 3.23) <i>mightn't</i> /'maɪnt/
{ <i>shall</i> /ʃæl, ʃ(ə)/ <i>should</i> /ʃʊd, ʃ(ə)d/	<i>shall not</i> <i>should not</i>	(<i>shan't</i> /ʃɑ:nt/ <BrE> cf 3.23) <i>shouldn't</i> /'ʃʊdnt/, /'ʃədnt/
{ <i>will</i> /wɪl/ ' <i>ll</i> /(ə)/	<i>will not</i> ' <i>ll not</i>	<i>won't</i> /wəʊnt/ (cf Note [c])
{ <i>would</i> /wʊd/ ' <i>d</i> /(ə)d/	<i>would not</i> ' <i>d not</i>	<i>wouldn't</i> /'wʊdnt/ (cf Note [c])
<i>must</i> /mʌst, məst/	<i>must not</i>	<i>mustn't</i> /'mʌsnt/

(Unstressed pronunciations with vowel reduction are placed after the stressed pronunciations. Rare forms are placed in parentheses.)

negative form, and also the pronunciation of both stressed and unstressed forms.

Semantic aspects of the negation of modal auxiliaries are examined in 10.67*f*.

- Note [a] The words braced together can for some purposes be regarded as present and past forms of the same verb. But for other purposes, they behave as independent verbs (*cf* 4.59).
- [b] The spelling of *can not* as two words is unusual: it occurs where main verb negation (*cf* 10.67*f*) is intended, or where special emphasis on or separation of the negative word is required; *eg*:
- Can you not* interrupt, please.
Can I not help you?
He says we *can* manage when we *can* certainly *not*.
- [c] There are obviously no contracted forms of 'll and 'd since they are themselves contractions. These forms are braced with *will* and *would* because 'll and 'd can always be expanded to *will* and *would* (except, of course, when 'd = *had*, *cf* 3.33).
- [d] Regarding the frequency of the modal auxiliaries, the following findings, based on studies of the SEU, Brown and LOB corpora, are of significant interest:
- (a) The frequency of individual modals varies greatly from *will* (four times per thousand in spoken BrE) to *shall* (three times per ten thousand words in written English). The marginal modals *ought to*, *need*, and *dare* are in their turn strikingly less frequent than *shall*.
- (b) The modals as a whole are much more frequent in spoken than in written English.
- (c) *Will*, *can*, and their past forms *would* and *could* are notably more frequent than other modals.
- (d) Among less frequent modals, *should*, *shall*, and *ought to* are even less frequent in AmE than in BrE.

Verbs of intermediate function

- 3.40 In the following sections we examine verbs whose status is in some degree intermediate between auxiliaries and main verbs. These form a set of categories which may be roughly placed on a gradient between modal auxiliaries at one end, and full verbs, such as *hope*, which take a nonfinite clause as object, at the other. The extremes of the scale may therefore be represented by *I can go* and *I hope to go*, *cf* Fig 3.40a opposite.

The structural implication of this scale is that the construction (a) *I can go* contains one verb phrase, whereas the construction (f) *I hope to go* contains a finite verb phrase followed by a nonfinite one. This distinction will be further discussed in 3.57. Semantic aspects of the scale may also be noted (*cf* 4.66); many of the intermediate verbs, particularly those at the higher end of the scale, have meanings associated with aspect, tense, and modality: meanings which are primarily expressed through auxiliary verb constructions. Our principal task, however, is to distinguish these classes by formal criteria, while making any semantic observations that may be useful.

The criteria which will provide the framework for this analysis are those which were used in identifying the class of auxiliaries in 3.22*ff*. There are eight criteria for auxiliaries, and four criteria which more narrowly apply to the central modal auxiliaries. They are summarized in Table 3.40b opposite, together with illustratively contrasting examples.