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authors' acknowledgements

This book, like the earlier volumes in the *Oxford English Grammar Course* series, has benefited enormously from the hard work and professionalism of our editorial and design team at Oxford University Press. In particular, we would like to acknowledge the contributions of our remarkable editor, Sarah Bleyer, and our equally remarkable designer, Phil Hargraves, who have once again made it possible for us to write and publish the book that we wanted to, and whose input is evident on every page.

introduction

Who is this book for?

The *Oxford English Grammar Course* (Advanced Level) is for people who have a good knowledge of English, but who want to speak or write more correctly, perhaps for academic or professional purposes.

What kind of English does the book teach?

This book teaches modern British English. It deals with the grammar of speech and writing in both formal and informal styles.

How is the book organised?

There are two parts.

1 Word and sentence grammar

Part 1 deals with the structures that are important at this level for combining words into sentences. It has seventeen Sections, each covering a major topic and containing:

- an introduction to the topic
- a number of one- or two-page lessons with explanations and exercises
- (in most Sections) two or three 'More Practice' pages.

2 Grammar beyond the sentence

Part 2 contains lessons on the structures that are important for **writing and reading more complex texts**. Much of this material will be helpful to university students. Other lessons in Part 2 deal with the grammar of **natural informal conversation**.

(Note that there is not always a clear dividing line between sentence grammar and text grammar, so some topics appear in both Part 1 and Part 2.)

What about revision of elementary grammar?

Even advanced students can still make elementary mistakes. This book contains a number of 'revise the basics' lessons to help students consolidate their earlier learning. However, students who have serious problems with basic accuracy should work through the appropriate Sections of the *Intermediate Level* before studying this book.

Does the book give complete information about English grammar?

Even the biggest grammars cannot contain everything that is known about English. The explanations and exercises in this book cover all the points that are really important for advanced students; there are additional notes giving further information on complex points. For more details, see *Practical English Usage* (Swan, Oxford University Press 2005), *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Huddleston and Pullum, Cambridge University Press 2002) or *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk and others, Longman 1985).

Some language problems come in the area between grammar and vocabulary. Grammars can only give limited information about the grammar of individual words; for detailed explanations, see *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*.

Does the book give enough practice?

This book gives a great deal of practice – more complete and varied than any similar book. Some exercises simply focus on structure; others make students think, solve problems, express opinions, talk about their experience etc. This is enough to fix the structures and rules in learners' minds and help them towards much more correct language use. But no single practice book can completely bridge the gap between conscious knowledge of a rule and the ability to apply it spontaneously in communication. This will come with further experience and language use; the exercises that are being developed for the *Oxford English Grammar Course* website www.oup.com/elt/oxfordenglishgrammar will help.

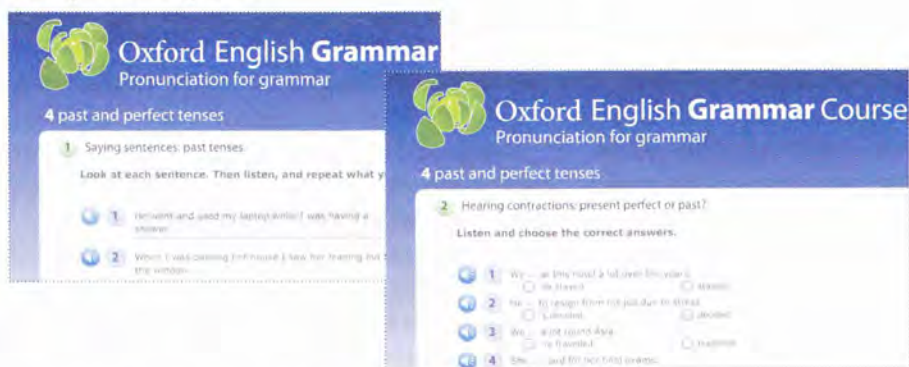
Grammar and real life

The *Oxford English Grammar Course* shows how grammar is used in real-life communication, in authentic or adapted texts from newspapers and magazines, letters, quotations, advertisements and many other sources. (Please note that, when we quote a text that expresses an opinion, the opinion is not necessarily ours! The text is simply provided as an interesting and memorable example of the structure being studied.)

Grammar and pronunciation

The 'Pronunciation for grammar' CD-ROM gives practice on:

- intonation
- unstressed words and syllables
- word and sentence stress
- grammatical endings
- linking words together.



The exercises focus on hearing as well as speaking: for many language students, the main problem is not saying things correctly, but hearing exactly what is said. The CD-ROM also offers practice in listening to speakers with different native accents (English, Scottish, US American) and to speakers whose first language is not English.

Examinations

This book teaches all the grammar (and more!) that is needed for Common European Framework Levels C1 and C2, and is suitable for learners studying for The Cambridge Advanced Examination in English, Cambridge Proficiency or the IELTS Examination.

With our best wishes for your progress in English.

Michael Swan Catherine Walter

some useful grammatical terminology

active and **passive**: *I see, she heard* are **active** verbs; *I am seen, she was heard* are **passive** verbs.

adjective clause: the same as **relative clause**.

adjective: for example *big, old, yellow, unhappy*.

adverb clause: An adverb clause acts like an adverb in another clause. For example *We left as soon as we could*. (Compare *We left immediately*.)

adverb particle: A short adverb like *up, out, off*, often used as part of a phrasal verb (e.g. *clean up, look out*).

adverb: for example *quickly, completely, now, there*.

affirmative sentences or **statements** are not questions or negatives – for example *I arrived*.

articles: *a/an* ('indefinite article'); *the* ('definite article').

auxiliary verbs are used before other verbs to make questions, tenses etc – for example *do you think, I have finished, she is working*. See also **modal auxiliary verbs**.

clause: a part of a sentence with a subject and verb, usually joined to the rest of the sentence by a conjunction. *Mary said that she was furious* has two clauses. See also **sentence**.

comparative: for example *older, better, more beautiful, more slowly*.

complement: 1) a part of a sentence after a verb that gives more information about the subject or object. For example *John is an engineer; I feel tired; They elected Sandra president*.
2) a word or expression needed after a noun, adjective, verb or preposition to complete its meaning. For example *the intention to return; full of water; They went to Germany; in the garden*.

conditional: a structure using the conjunction *if*.

conjunction: for example *and, but, if, because, while*.

consonant: see **vowel**.

contraction: a short form like *I'm, you're, he'll, don't*.

countable nouns: the name of things we can count – for example *one chair, three cars*; **uncountable** (or 'mass') **nouns**: the names of things we can't count, like *oil, rice*.

declarative question: a question that has the form of a statement. For example *This is your car?*

demonstrative: *this, that, these* and *those* are demonstrative determiners or pronouns.

determiner: a word like *the, some, many, my*, which goes before (adjective +) noun.

discourse markers are words and expressions which help to structure spoken exchanges and written texts. For example *first of all, anyway, by the way, right*.

ellipsis: leaving words out. For example '[Have you] Seen John?' 'No, I haven't [seen John].'

emphasis: giving special importance to one part of a sentence, expression or word. For example *It was the marketing manager who phoned. No, I wanted black coffee*. Related words are *emphasise* and *emphatic*.

formal, informal We use **formal** language with strangers, in business letters etc: for example 'Good afternoon, Mr Parker. May I help you?' We use **informal** language with family and friends: for example 'Hi, John. Need help?'

fronting: moving part of a clause to the beginning to give it more emphasis or to focus on it. For example *Annie I quite like, but her sister I just can't stand*.

gender: (In English) the use of grammatical forms to show the difference between male and female, or between human and non-human. For example *he, she, it, who, which*.

generalising: talking about a whole class of people or things. For example *Penguins don't fly; I like chocolate*.

identifying: saying exactly who or what you are talking about. For example *Henry Bartlett; the woman over there in the corner; my first car; the woman who phoned just now*.

imperative: a form like *Go home, Don't worry*, which we use when we tell or ask people (not) to do things.

indirect speech: the grammar that we use to show what people say or think: for example *John said that he was ill*.

infinitive: *(to) go, (to) sleep* etc.

informal: see **formal**.

intransitive: see **transitive**.

inversion: putting a verb before the subject. For example *Are you ready? So do I. Here comes Arthur*.

link verbs connect subjects to complements, not to objects. For example *They are Russian; She seems nice*.

modal verbs or **modal auxiliary verbs**: *must, can, could, may, might, shall, should, ought to, will* and *would*.

noun clause A noun clause acts like the subject or object of another clause. For example *How she did it was a mystery*; *I understood what they wanted*.

Noun clauses are common in indirect speech.

noun: for example *chair, oil, idea, sentence*.

noun phrase: a phrase based on a noun. For example *the first car that I bought*.

object: see **subject**.

participle: see **present participle, past participle**.

participle clause: a clause containing a participle, not a tense. For example *Walking to the window, I looked out*.

particle: see **adverb particle**.

passive: see **active**.

past participle: for example *gone, seen, stopped*. (In fact: 'past' participles can refer to the past, present or future).

perfect infinitive: *(to) have seen, (to) have started* etc.

personal pronouns: for example *I, you, us, them*.

phrasal verb: a two-part verb formed with an adverb particle □ for example *cut up, break down, run away*.

phrase: a group of words that belong together grammatically. For example *dead tired; would not have understood*.

plural: see **singular**.

possessives: for example *my, your; mine, yours; John's, my brothers'*.

prediction: saying what will happen. For example *I think we're going to lose; You'll be sorry*.

preparatory subject/object: *It* put in the place of a longer subject or object, which comes later. For example *It's important to believe in yourself; She made it clear that she was disappointed*.

preposition: for example *at, in, on, between*.

prepositional verb: a two-part verb formed with a preposition. For example *look at, listen to*.

present participle: for example *going, sleeping*. (In fact, 'present' participles can refer to the past, present or future).

progressive (or 'continuous'): for example *He's eating* (present progressive); *They were talking* (past progressive).

pronouns: for example *I, you, anybody, themselves*.

quantifier: a determiner that shows how much/many we are talking about. For example *all, most, little*.

question tag: for example *isn't it?, doesn't she?*

reduced relative clause: for example *the people invited* (meaning 'the people who were invited').

reflexive pronouns: *myself, yourself* etc.

relative clause: a clause that begins with a relative pronoun. For example *the man who bought my car*.

relative pronouns: *who, which* and *that* when they join clauses to nouns. For example *the man who bought my car*.

reply question: for example *'I had a great time in Holland.'* *'Did you? I am glad.'*

rhetorical question: a question with an obvious answer or with no answer. For example: *Who's a lovely baby, then?*

sentence: A written sentence begins with a capital letter (A, B etc) and ends with a full stop (.), like this one. A sentence may have more than one clause, often joined by a conjunction. For example: *I'll come and see you when I'm in London*. If one clause is part of another, it is called a 'subordinate clause'; the other is the 'main clause'. Clauses with equal weight are called 'co-ordinate clauses'.

short answer: for example *Yes, I am; No, we didn't; They will*.

singular: for example *chair, cat, man*; **plural**: for example *chairs, cats, men*.

stress: giving a syllable, word or phrase more importance by pronouncing it more loudly or on a higher pitch.

subject and **object**: In *She took the money* – *everybody saw her*, the **subjects** are *she* and *everybody*; the **objects** are *the money* and *her*.

subjunctive: a special verb form that is used to talk about possibilities rather than fact. For example *It's important that she inform the police. If I were you*. Modern English has very few subjunctives.

superlative: for example *oldest, best, most beautiful, most easily*.

tense: *She goes, she is going, she went, she was going, she has gone* are different tenses (for a list, see page 297).

third person: words for other people, not *I* or *you* – for example *she, them, himself, John, has, goes*.

transitive verbs normally have objects – for example *break, improve, tell*. **Intransitive** verbs don't usually have objects – for example *sleep, breathe, stay*.

uncountable nouns: see **countable nouns**.

verb: for example *sit, give, hold, think, write*.

vowels: *a, e, i, o, u* and their usual sounds;

consonants: *b, c, d, f, g* etc and their usual sounds.

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Section 1 basic sentence types

The basic subject-verb-object structure of simple affirmative sentences should be well known at this level. Rules for the formation of questions, negatives, imperatives and exclamations are revised briefly in this section, and some more advanced points introduced. More complex types of spoken and written sentence structure are covered in other parts of the book: see the Table of Contents or the Index for details.

questions: revise the basics ? ? ? ?

word order In most questions, we put an **auxiliary verb before the subject** – not the whole verb, even with long subjects.

*Are Annie and the rest of the family **coming** tomorrow?* (NOT *Are coming Annie ...?*)

*Can all of the team **be** here at ten o'clock?*

If there is no other auxiliary verb, we use **do** (+ infinitive without *to*).

*What **does** 'hyperactive' mean?* (NOT *What means 'hyperactive'?*)

Note that *do* may come twice in questions: once as an auxiliary and once as a main verb.

*What **does** your brother **do**?*

question-word subjects When *who* and *what* are **subjects**, we normally make questions without *do*. Compare:

'Who^{SUBJ} said that?' 'Lucy^{SUBJ} said that.' (NOT *'Who did say that?'*)

'Who^{OBJ} did you invite?' 'I invited Oliver^{OBJ}.'

'What^{SUBJ} happened?' 'Something strange^{SUBJ} happened.' (NOT *'What did happen?'*)

'What^{OBJ} did he say?' 'He said something strange^{OBJ}.'

The same thing happens when subjects **begin with** question-words *which*, *what*, *whose*, *what sort of* or *how much/many*.

Which team won? (NOT *Which team did win?*)

What country won the last World Cup?

How many students live here? (Compare *How many students^{OBJ} did you^{SUBJ} invite?*)

Whose dog dug up my flowers?

However, *do* can be used with question-word subjects for special emphasis.

*'Ollie didn't get the job.' 'Really? So who **did** get it?'*

1 Correct the mistakes or write 'Correct'.

- ▶ How you pronounce 'thorough'? *do you*
- ▶ What happened? *Correct.*
- 1 What time the train leaves?
- 2 What means 'understudy'?
- 3 Why she is crying?
- 4 Has the man from the Export Department telephoned?
- 5 What I must to do now?
- 6 Does the 9.30 train for Bristol leave from platform 7?
- 7 The postman has been?
- 8 Who does live next door?
- 9 Which car costs more?
- 10 What sort of music does help you to relax?

2 Make questions. Ask about the words *in italics*.

- ▶ (a) Mark loves Emma. (b) Mark loves *Emma*.
 (a) *Who loves Emma?* (b) *Who does Mark love?*
- 1 (a) Rob bought *a jacket*. (b) Rob bought *a jacket*.

- 2 (a) Oliver lost his credit card. (b) Oliver lost *his credit card*.

- 3 (a) Kara has broken *her leg*. (b) Kara has broken *her leg*.

- 4 (a) *This stuff* kills flies. (b) This stuff kills *flies*.

- 5 (a) Mike caught the first plane. (b) Mike caught *the first plane*.

- 6 (a) *His brother* collects Chinese paintings. (b) His brother collects *Chinese* paintings.

- 7 (a) *Her child* broke our window. (b) Her child broke *our* window.

Prepositions often come at the end of questions, especially in informal speech and writing.

Who are you waiting for? *What's that book about?*

It is possible to begin with the preposition, but this is generally very formal.

With whom did Mozart collaborate? *On what* do blue whales feed?

This order is unusual or impossible in informal speech.

NOT *After whose children are you looking?*

Two-word questions ending with a preposition are common in conversation.

'Rose is getting married.' *'Who to?'* *'I've been thinking.'* *'What about?'*

3 Write questions for these answers, beginning *Who* or *What*.

- ▶ 'I went with Alex.' *'Who did you go with?'*
- 1 'The article's about microbiology.'
 2 'She gave it to her sister.'
 3 'I was talking to Emma.'
 4 'You can open it with this.'
 5 'The letter was from my bank manager.'
 6 'She hit me with her shoe.'
 7 'My brother works for Globe Advertising.'
 8 'I'm thinking about life.'

4 Complete the conversations with two-word questions.

- ▶ 'I'm writing a novel.' *'What about?'* 'Love, life, art and death.'
- 1 'We're moving.' 'North Wales.'
- 2 'I've mended the printer.' 'Superglue.'
- 3 'I've bought a present.' 'Myself.'
- 4 'Pete's in love again.' 'His piano teacher.'
- 5 'I managed to stop the baby crying.' 'Chocolate.'
- 6 'We're going to France for a week.' 'Pat and Julie.'
- 7 'Sophie's got engaged.' 'To an old school friend.'

Note: A few prepositions do not normally come at the end of sentences (see page 195).

During whose lesson did you fall asleep? (NOT ~~Whose lesson ... during?~~)

negatives: revise the basics

structure To make **negative** verb forms, we put **not** or **n't** after an **auxiliary verb** or **be**. If there is **no other auxiliary**, we use **do**. In standard English, we don't normally use *not* or *do* with negative words like *never*, *hardly*, *nothing*. (But this is common in many dialects.)

*The Minister **has not** made a decision. She **couldn't** swim. It **wasn't** raining. I **don't** care.*

*He **never** says much. (NOT ~~He does never say much.~~ OR ~~He doesn't never say much.~~)*

*I **hardly** noticed the interruption. (NOT ~~I didn't hardly notice ...~~)*

*We **saw nothing**. (NOT ~~We didn't see nothing.~~)*

1 Correct the mistakes or write 'Correct'.

- ▶ You not understood. *did not understand*
- ▶ It hardly matters. *Correct*
- 1 George never is in the office.
- 2 There wasn't nothing that I could do.
- 3 Fred not likes travelling.
- 4 The rooms have not been cleaned today.
- 5 Nothing didn't happen.
- 6 I do never drive at night.
- 7 We hardly didn't have time to think.
- 8 You don't must pay now.

2 GRAMMAR IN TEXTS. Put the letters of the expressions from the box into the texts.

A cannot be B can't afford C did not pay D doesn't have E doesn't open F doesn't talk
G no longer H not be allowed I not be shown J not been named K not been paid
L nothing can justify M wouldn't have to

A police anti-terrorism TV advertisement has been banned.

The advertisement asked people to look out for suspicious behaviour by their neighbours, describing a man who 1... to people, 2... his curtains, and 3... a bank card but pays for things in cash. The authority that regulates TV advertising banned the advertisement because this could offend or throw suspicion on innocent people, and ruled that the ad should 4... again.

A 37-year-old Swedish motorist, who has 5..., was caught driving his Mercedes sports car at 290km/h in Switzerland, and could be given a world-record speeding fine of SFr1.08m. Under Swiss law, the level of fine is determined by the wealth of the driver and the speed recorded. A local police spokesman said that "6... a speed of 290km/h. The car 7... properly controlled. It must have taken 500m to stop."

A travel company has collapsed, leaving over 1,000 customers stuck in Spain.

One holidaymaker said that he and his family had paid the company for an all-inclusive hotel on the Costa Brava, but they have now been asked to pay again for the whole week or leave. 'Well, we just 8... that,' he said. 'We paid everything in advance so we 9... spend any money while we're away.' Another group in the resort of Lloret de Mar were notified as they were sunbathing that the all-inclusive deal they had paid for was 10... valid. One woman said her family of five was presented with a bill of 2,700 euros – more than the original cost of their holiday – and told they if they 11... it they would 12... any more food or drink. Hoteliers are also suffering; one said he had 100 rooms currently booked through the travel company, but had 13... for any of them.

Note: do and not with negative words *Do* is possible with a negative for emphasis.

*'I've split up with my girlfriend.' 'I'm not surprised. I **never did** like her.'*

And *not* can **contradict** the meaning of another negative word.

*I **didn't** say **nothing** – I said 'Hello'.*

not and no

structures with not We use **not** to make a word, expression or clause negative.

Not surprisingly, she failed her driving test. (NOT ~~No~~ surprisingly ...)
 I've worked in Scotland, but **not** in Ireland. (NOT ... ~~but no~~ in Ireland.)
 She was talking to Andy, **not** you. (NOT ... ~~no~~ you.) I do **not** agree.

Not can refer to different parts of a sentence. However, in a clause with a verb, **not** normally goes with the verb, whatever the exact meaning.

Peter **didn't study** art at Cambridge. (NOT ~~Not Peter studied art at Cambridge.~~ OR ~~Peter studied not art at Cambridge.~~ OR ~~Peter studied art not at Cambridge.~~)

meaning of no We use **no** with a **noun** or **-ing form** to mean 'not any' or 'not a/an'.

No pilots went on strike. (= 'There weren't any pilots on strike.')

We've got **no plans** for the holiday. (= '... not any plans ...')

I know you're tired, but that's **no reason** to be rude. (= '... not a reason.')

NO PARKING AT WEEKENDS.

1 Correct (✓) or not (X)?

- | | |
|---|---|
| ▶ Not Bill phoned, but Pete. X | 4 We play tennis, but not on Sundays. ... |
| ▶ I have no idea where Susie is. ✓ | 5 No trains are running today. ... |
| 1 I speak Spanish, but no very well. ... | 6 The trains are not running today. ... |
| 2 There are no messages for you. ... | 7 I'm sorry, Mary's no in today. ... |
| 3 We play tennis not on Sundays. ... | 8 Not this street is the right one. ... |

2 Complete the sentences with words from the box, and choose **not** or **no**.

Use a dictionary if necessary.

attend cash describe entrance excuse humour intend office ✓ repaired revise worry

- ▶ We speak Spanish in the office, but **no** / ~~(no)~~ at home.
- 1 There's **no** / **not** parking in front of the station
- 2 She was **no** / **not** able to her attacker.
- 3 There's **no** / **not** for that sort of behaviour.
- 4 They my watch, but **no** / **not** properly.
- 5 We've got **no** / **not** time to the schedule now.
- 6 I can a meeting, but **no** / **not** tonight.
- 7 The receptionist obviously did **no** / **not** to be helpful.
- 8 'Do you a lot?' 'No / Not usually.'
- 9 She's a woman with **no** / **not** sense of
- 10 I always pay I've got **no** / **not** credit cards.

NOTES

not The exact reference of **not** can be shown in speech by STRESS.

PETER *didn't* study medicine at Cambridge. (It was Susan.)

Peter *didn't* study MEDICINE at Cambridge. (He studied biology.)

In writing, we can use a special sentence structure if necessary (see page 260).

It was **not** Peter who studied medicine at Cambridge, but Susan.

not all, not every We most often put **not before** a subject beginning with **all** or **every**.

Not all British people drink tea. (LESS COMMON: All British people don't drink tea.)

Not every bird can fly. (LESS COMMON: Every bird cannot fly.)

negative questions

construction Negative questions can be constructed in two ways.

CONTRACTED (INFORMAL)

n't after auxiliary verb or be

Why **didn't** she answer?

Hasn't Emma phoned?

Aren't they at home?

UNCONTRACTED (FORMAL, UNUSUAL)

not after subject

Why did **she not** answer?

Has **Emma not** phoned?

Are **they not** at home?

We say *aren't I?*, not *amnt I?*

'*Aren't I next?*' 'No, Harry is.' (BUT NOT *I aren't next.*)

1 Make these questions more conversational.

- ▶ Why did you not phone? ...*Why didn't you phone?*.....
- 1 Who did they not tell?
- 2 Are you not well?
- 3 What did we not understand?
- 4 Was the office not open?
- 5 Do you not speak Chinese?
- 6 Are we not in the right place?

answers to negative questions Note how we use *Yes* and *No* in answers to negative questions.

The choice depends on the answer, not the question. *Yes* goes with or suggests an **affirmative** verb; *No* goes with or suggests a **negative** verb.

'Don't you like it?' '*Yes* (I like it).' 'Aren't you ready?' '*No* (I'm not ready).'

2 Add Yes or No to the answers.

- ▶ 'Can't you swim?' '...*Yes*....., I can.'
- 1 'Don't you understand?' '....., I don't.'
- 2 'Didn't Ann tell you?' '....., she did.'
- 3 'Wasn't the post office open?' '....., it was.'
- 4 'Hasn't she phoned?' '....., she has.'
- 5 'Didn't he agree?' '....., he didn't.'
- 6 'Isn't this awful!' '....., it is.'
- 7 'Aren't you hungry?' '....., I am.'
- 8 'Can't you find the address?' '....., I can't.'



'Don't you ever switch off, Jeremy?'

checking negative ideas We often use negative questions to check that something has not happened, is not true, etc. The meaning is like 'Is it true that ... not ... ?'

Hasn't Mary phoned? I wonder if she's forgotten. (= 'Is it true that Mary hasn't phoned?')

Can't you come this evening?

These questions can also express **surprise** that **something has not happened**, is not happening, etc.

Haven't the tickets come yet? *Didn't he tell you he was married?*

The structure is often used in **rhetorical questions** – questions which don't ask for an answer (see page 287).

Can't you read? It says 'closed'. *Don't you ever listen* to what I say?

3 Use negative questions to check the following negative ideas.

- ▶ It looks as if she's not at home. *Isn't she at home?*
- 1 It looks as if you don't understand.
- 2 So you haven't read this book?
- 3 Do you mean that Magnus hasn't got a work permit?
- 4 Perhaps you didn't get my message.
- 5 I think perhaps you didn't turn the lights off.
- 6 It seems as if you can't understand English. I said 'Go away'.
- 7 Is it true that he didn't pass his driving test?
- 8 I'm afraid you don't like English food.

checking positive ideas Negative questions can also check **that something is true**.

Didn't you see Peter yesterday? How is he? (= 'I believe you saw Peter ...')

4 Make negative questions to make sure that these things are true. Put in words from the box. Use a dictionary if necessary.

appointment deposit insurance ✓ interest profit reservation washer

- ▶ I think we paid the fire ... last month.
Didn't we pay the fire insurance last month?
- 1 You made a ... for dinner at 8.00, right?
- 2 I'm pretty sure Ann paid a 10% ... with her order.
- 3 I thought you said you were going to put a new ... on the tap.
- 4 I believe that this account pays 3%
- 5 My ... with Dr Masters is at 10.30, surely?
- 6 The firm made a ... of half a million euros last year, no?

Negative questions are also common in **exclamations** (see page 13).

Isn't it hot! Doesn't the garden look nice! Wasn't that lecture boring!

Note: polite invitations We can use *Won't/Wouldn't ...?* in polite invitations.

Won't you come in? Wouldn't you like something to drink?

Why don't you ...? is also used in this way (BUT NOT *Why won't you ...?*). Compare:

Why don't you join us for a drink? (= 'Please join us ...')

Why won't you join us for a drink? (= 'Why don't you want to?')

We do not use negative questions to ask people to do things for us.

Can you help me? You couldn't help me, could you?

BUT NOT *Can't you help me?* (This sounds like a criticism.)