ENGLISH FOR EVERYONE
ENGLISH GRAMMAR GUIDE

A COMPREHENSIVE VISUAL REFERENCE
Consultant, British English

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Consultant, American English

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The present simple is used to make simple statements of fact, to talk about things that happen repeatedly, and to describe things that are always true.

**1.1 THE PRESENT SIMPLE**

To make the present simple of most verbs, use the base form (the infinitive without “to”).

*I eat* lunch at noon every day.

The base form of the verb “to eat.”

*She eats* lunch at 2pm every day.

With “he,” “she,” and “it,” “s” is added to the base form.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

*We drink* coffee every morning.

*We start* work at 9am.

*They leave* work at 5pm.

*She drinks* coffee every morning.

*He starts* work at 11am.

*Rob leaves* work at 7pm.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / We / They</td>
<td><strong>eat</strong></td>
<td>lunch at 2pm every day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She / It</td>
<td><strong>eats</strong></td>
<td>lunch at 2pm every day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also:
Present continuous 4 Present for future events 19 Adverbs of frequency 102
With some verbs, “-es” is added for “he,” “she,” and “it.” These include verbs ending with “-sh,” “-ch,” “-o,” “-ss,” “-x,” and “-z.”

- **I** go to bed.
  - He goes to bed.
  - “-es” is added to verbs ending with “-o.”

- **I** finish work.
  - He finishes work.
  - “-es” is added to verbs ending with “-sh.”

- **I** watch TV.
  - She watches TV.
  - “-es” is added to verbs ending with “-ch.”

- **I** cross the road.
  - She crosses the road.
  - “-es” is added to verbs ending with “-ss.”

- **I** fix cars.
  - She fixes cars.
  - “-es” is added to verbs ending with “-x.”

- Their phones **buzz** all day.
  - His phone **buzzes** all day.
  - “-es” is added to verbs ending with “-z.”

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Tom **does** the dishes every evening.
- He **washes** the windows on Fridays.
- She **teaches** English to six students.
- He **blushes** when he’s embarrassed.

**COMMON MISTAKES FORMING THE PRESENT SIMPLE**

- When the present simple is used with “he,” “she,” “it,” or one person’s name, it always ends in “-s” or “-es.”
  - **He** starts work at 11am. ✔️
  - **He** start work at 11am. ✗
  - “Start” without an “s” is only used for “I,” “you,” “we,” and “they.”

- There is no need to add the auxiliary verb “do” when forming the present simple. It is only used to form questions and negatives.
  - **I** eat lunch at noon every day. ✔️
  - **I** do eat lunch at noon every day. ✗
  - “Do” is only used as an auxiliary verb when forming negatives or questions.
“Be” is an important verb with an irregular present simple form.

I am 25 years old.  You are a chef.  He is happy.

“Are” also follows “we” and “they.”  “Is” also follows “she” and “it.”

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“BE”</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>happy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She / It</td>
<td>is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We / They</td>
<td>are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I am a doctor.

They are students.

My grandma is 92 years old.

We’re late for work.

He’s American.

Ruby’s seven years old.

Contractions can also be used.
1.4 “HAVE” IN THE PRESENT SIMPLE

“Have” is an irregular verb. The third person singular form is “has” not “haves.”

I have a garage.

She has a yard.

“Has” is used for the third person singular: “he,” “she,” and “it.”

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“HAVE”</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>a garage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>have</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>have</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>have</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>has</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>has</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>has</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I have a car.

The cat has a new collar.

You have a sister.

He has a cold.

I have a painful back.

Thomas has a driving lesson today.

They have the same dress.

Jack has a bad headache.

They have a new baby.

Sarah has coffee with Tom every Tuesday.
To make negative sentences using “be” in the present simple, “not” is added after the verb. For other verbs, the auxiliary verb “do not” or “does not” is used.

2.1 NEGATIVES WITH THE VERB “BE”

The verb “be” takes the same form in positive and negative sentences. The only difference is adding “not.”

I am a farmer. I am not a doctor.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT + “BE”</th>
<th>“NOT”</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>a doctor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She is</td>
<td></td>
<td>doctors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 NEGATIVE CONTRACTIONS

“Is not” and “are not” can be contracted in two ways. The subject and verb can be contracted, or the verb and “not.” They mean the same thing.

You are not a doctor.

“You are” becomes “you’re.”

You’re not a doctor.

“Are not” becomes “aren’t.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I’m not a teacher. He’s not a farmer. They’re not American.

“Isn’t” and “aren’t” are not correct.

See also:
Present simple 1  Present overview 5
Types of verbs 49
2.3 NEGATIVES WITH OTHER VERBS IN THE PRESENT SIMPLE

For verbs other than “be,” “do not” or “does not” goes before the verb to make the negative.

I work outside.  He works inside.
I do not work outside.  He does not work inside.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“DO / DOES” + “NOT”</th>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / We / They</td>
<td>do not</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She / It</td>
<td>does not</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The base form is used no matter what the subject is.

COMMON MISTAKES FORMING NEGATIVE SENTENCES

The main verb in a negative sentence always stays in its base form, even if the subject is “he,” “she,” or “it.”

He does not work outside.  ✓
He does not works outside.  ✗
Questions in the present simple with “be” are formed by swapping the verb and subject. For other verbs, the auxiliary verb “do” or “does” must be added before the subject.

### QUESTIONS WITH “BE” IN THE PRESENT SIMPLE

To form questions in the present simple using “be,” reverse the order of the subject and the verb.

In a statement, the subject comes before the verb.

You are Canadian.

In a question, the verb moves to the start of the sentence.

Are you Canadian?

The subject comes after the verb.

You are Canadian.

In a statement, the subject comes before the verb.

You are Canadian.

In a question, the verb moves to the start of the sentence.

Are you Canadian?

The subject comes after the verb.

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“BE”</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Canadian?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>he / she / it</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are</td>
<td>you / we / they</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

Am I on time?

Is he your brother?

Where are we?

Am I on the list?

Is it time to leave?

Are they friendly?

Question words can be used before the verb to form open questions.
3.2 **QUESTIONS WITH “DO” AND “DOES”**

For questions with verbs other than “be,” start the question with “do” or “does.” Don’t swap the subject and the main verb.

### You work in an office.

**Do you work** in an office?

- Add “do” to questions with “I,” “you,” “we,” and “they.”

### She works in a school.

**Does she work** in a school?

- Add “does” to questions with “he,” “she,” and “it.”

The main verb goes in its base form.

---

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“DO / DOES”</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>BASE FORM OF VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Do</strong></td>
<td>I / you / we / they</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>in an office?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Does</strong></td>
<td>he / she / it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb never takes an “-s” or “-es” when you ask a question.

---

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **Do** they live in Paris?
- **Do you** usually finish work at 4pm?
- **Does** Tom get up at 6am?
- **When does** the party start?

Question words can be used before “do” or “does” to form open questions.

---

### COMMON MISTAKES FORMING PRESENT SIMPLE QUESTIONS

Never add “-s” or “-es” to the base form of the verb when asking a question, even in the third person singular (“he,” “she,” or “it”).

- **Does he finish** work on time? ✓
- **Does he finishes** work on time? ❌

The main verb always goes in its base form in questions.

Do not add “-s” or “-es” to the main verb when asking a question.
The present continuous is used to talk about continued actions that are happening in the present moment. It is formed with “be” and a present participle.

**4.1 THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS**

The present continuous is used to describe a current, continued action.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“AM / IS / ARE”</th>
<th>VERB + “-ING”</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>wearing</td>
<td>a dress.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Julie usually wears jeans, but today she is wearing a dress.

The present continuous uses the verb “be.”

This is the present simple. It describes a repeated action or situation.

This is the present continuous. It describes what is happening right now.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

We are walking the dog.

They’re fighting with each other.

He is washing the dishes.

She’s relaxing at the moment.

They are talking on their phones.

It’s raining a lot outside.

See also:
Present simple 1  Action and state verbs 50
Infinitives and participles 51
### 4.2 Present Participle Spelling Rules

The present participle is formed by adding “-ing” to the base form of the verb. Some participles have slightly different spelling rules.

**Further Examples**

- **They’re opening a store next week.**
- **Harry is always lying to his mother.**
- **My uncle is writing a novel.**
- **Terry is mopping the floor.**
- **I am cutting some apples.**
- **My mother is baking us a cake.**

**Tip**

Present participles follow the same spelling rules as gerunds.

### Common Mistakes: State Verbs in Continuous Tenses

Action verbs can be used in simple and continuous forms. State verbs are not usually used in continuous forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I read every day. √</td>
<td>I own two cars. √</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am reading right now. √</td>
<td>I am owning two cars. ✗</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Questions in the Present Continuous

To ask questions in the present continuous, swap the subject and the form of “be.”

He is playing tennis.

Is he playing tennis?

In a question, the verb moves to the start of the sentence.

This action is happening right now.

How to Form

“Am / Is / Are”  Subject  Verb + “-ing”  Rest of sentence

Is  he  playing  tennis?

The present participle stays the same when you make the negative.

Add “not” after “be” to make the negative. Contractions are also possible.

To make the negative of the present continuous, add “not” after “be.”

Further Examples

Are they going to the park?

Where are we going today?

Is he cycling to work?

Are you coming to the party?

Is she eating pizza?

What are you eating for dinner?

Are they working late?

Is it raining outside?

Question words such as “what,” “where,” and “how” can be used before the verb to form open questions.
4.4 THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS NEGATIVE

To make the negative of the present continuous, add "not" after "be."

He is wearing a tie, but he {is not} wearing a hat.

Add "not" after "be" to make the negative. Contractions are also possible.

The present participle stays the same when you make the negative.

HOW TO FORM

SUBJECT  "AM / IS / ARE" + "NOT"  VERB + "-ING"  REST OF SENTENCE
He  is not  wearing  a hat.

The present participle doesn't change.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

He isn't walking the dog.  We aren't taking the bus today.

They aren't singing well today.  You aren't doing your job!

She isn't cleaning up her bedroom.  James isn't reading his book.

They aren't looking where they're going.  We aren't eating out this week.

He isn't playing football today.  You aren't doing well at school this year.
5.1 THE PRESENT SIMPLE AND THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS

The present simple is used to talk about permanent situations, regular occurrences, things that are always true, repeated actions, and ongoing states.

The present continuous is used to refer to temporary situations, repeated actions around the present moment, and ongoing actions in the present moment.

5.2 PRESENT TENSE QUESTIONS

Present simple questions with “be” are formed differently from other verbs.

The form of “be” comes before the subject.

Present continuous questions are always formed in the same way.

The form of “be” comes before the subject.

COMMON MISTAKES USING “S” IN THE PRESENT SIMPLE

“-s” is never added to the base form of the verb when asking a question or making a negative sentence, even in the third person singular (“he,” “she,” or “it”).

AFFIRMATIVE

An “-s” is added to the base form in affirmative sentences.

He starts work at 7am. ✓

He start work at 7am. ✗

The base form without an “-s” is only used for “I,” “you,” “we,” and “they.”
The present simple and present continuous are used in different situations. There are different ways to form questions and negatives with these tenses.

**Giorgio** plays golf every weekend.

This is a repeated action.

**Robert** lives in London.

This is a continuing state.

**Julia** is playing lots of golf these days.

This is a repeated action happening around the present moment.

**At the moment, Robert** is watching TV.

This is an ongoing action in the present moment.

### 5.3 PRESENT TENSE NEGATIVES

**Present simple** negatives with “be” are formed differently from other verbs.

- I am not French.
- I do not speak French.

“Not” is added after the form of “be.”

“Do not” or “does not” is added between the subject and main verb.

**Present continuous** negatives are always formed in the same way.

- It is not raining.

“Not” is added after the form of “be.”

### QUESTION

The verb always goes in its base form in questions.

- Does he finish work on time? ✔
- Does he finishes work on time? ✗

“-s” or “-es” are not added to the main verb when asking a question.

### NEGATIVE

The base form is used in the negative.

- He does not work weekends. ✔
- He does not works weekends. ✗

“-s” or “-es” are not added to the main verb in negative sentences.
Imperatives are used to give commands or to make requests. They can also be used to give warnings or directions.

### 6.1 Imperatives

Imperatives are formed using the base form of the verb (the infinitive without “to”).

An exclamation mark is used if the imperative is urgent.

The base form of the verb “to stop.”

### Further Examples

- **Get up.**
- **Be careful!**
- **Give that to me.**
- **Eat your breakfast.**
- **Help!**
- **Read this book.**

### 6.2 Negative Imperatives

“Do not” or “don’t” can be added before the verb to make an imperative negative.

### Further Examples

- **Do not turn right.**
  - **Don’t eat that cake.**
  - **Don’t rush. I’m not in a hurry.**
  - **I’ve just painted that door. Don’t touch it.**
  - **Don’t sit there. That chair is broken.**
6.3 SUBJECTS WITH IMPERATIVES
An imperative sentence does not usually have a subject, but sometimes a noun or a pronoun is used to make it clear who is being talked to.

Everybody sit down.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Phillip, come here.

You stay there.  
For emphasis "you" can be used in an imperative clause.

Someone open the window.

Have fun, Anne.  
The subject can also be placed at the end.

6.4 POLITE REQUESTS
Imperatives in English can be considered rude. Words can be added to make them more polite.

Please close the door.

"Please" can be placed before the imperative verb to make a request more polite.

Just give me a minute, please.

"Just" can go before the imperative.

Do come in.

"Do" can go before the imperative verb to make a request more formal.

6.5 MAKING SUGGESTIONS WITH “LET’S”
“Let’s” can be used to make a suggestion for an activity that includes the speaker.

It’s sunny today. Let’s go out.

It’s cold. Let’s not go out.

“Not” goes after “let’s” to form the negative.
The past simple is used to talk about completed actions that happened at a fixed time in the past. It is the most commonly used past tense in English.

### 7.1 REGULAR VERBS IN THE PAST SIMPLE

To form a regular verb in the past simple, "-ed" is added to the base form.

**Walter washed his car on Tuesday.**

The verb ends in "-ed."

Fixed point in the past.

### HOW TO FORM

Most verbs in the past simple do not change with the subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>PAST VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / He</td>
<td>played</td>
<td>tennis yesterday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She / We / They</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same form is used for all subjects.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- Last night, I watched a documentary about Italy.
- Heather cleaned her bedroom last weekend before the party.
- Last Friday I danced with friends.
- Tom shaved off his beard yesterday.
- Tom usually drives to work, but yesterday he walked instead.
- After work, Nia listened to music and started reading a new book.
The past simple of all regular verbs ends in “-ed,” but for some verbs, there are some spelling changes, too.

**SPELLING RULES FOR THE PAST SIMPLE**

- **FURTHER EXAMPLES**
  - wash → washed
  - dance → danced
  - try → tried
  - stop → stopped
  - A stressed final syllable ending consonant-vowel-consonant.
  - Last letter is “-e.”
  - Just a “-d” is added.
  - The “-y” is removed and “-ied” is added instead.
  - The last consonant is doubled and “-ed” is added.

- For many regular verbs, “-ed” is added.
- Last letters are a consonant and a “-y.”
- Last letters are a consonant and a “-y.”
- A stressed final syllable ending consonant-vowel-consonant.

- **FURTHER EXAMPLES**
  - jump → jumped
  - arrive → arrived
  - carry → carried
  - drop → dropped
  - work → worked
  - save → saved
  - cry → cried
  - hop → hopped
  - play → played
  - decide → decided
  - hurry → hurried
  - step → stepped
7.3 IRREGULAR VERBS IN THE PAST SIMPLE

Some verbs do not take "-ed" to form the past simple. There are no specific rules about how to form irregular verbs in the past simple.

"Went" is the past simple of "go."

I went swimming yesterday.

COMMON IRREGULAR VERBS IN THE PAST SIMPLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>go</th>
<th>have</th>
<th>do</th>
<th>put</th>
<th>come</th>
<th>see</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>went</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>came</td>
<td>saw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I swam in the 500m race. Sam ate two pizzas.
I came to the US in 1980. We went to the zoo last week.
We saw some rare birds. They drank all the lemonade.
I did really well in school. They had a great vacation.
Steve put his cup on the table. Sheila drove to the park.
The past simple of “be” is completely irregular. It is the only verb in the past simple which changes depending on the subject.

The traffic was bad, so we were late to school.

HOW TO FORM

The past simple of “be” changes with the subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;BE&quot;</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>late to school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She</td>
<td>was</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We / They</td>
<td>were</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FURTHER EXAMPLES

He was a doctor for 40 years.

She was a Broadway star in the 1960s.

There was a party last night.

We were at the library yesterday.

There were lots of people at the party.

They were at the movies last week.
The past simple negative is used to talk about things that did not happen in the past. It is always formed the same way, unless the main verb is "be."

**8.1 THE PAST SIMPLE NEGATIVE**

The past simple negative uses "did not" or "didn't" with the base form of the main verb. The main verb is not put into the past simple.

**HOW TO FORM**

- **Subject**: I
- **"Did not / didn't"**: didn't
- **Base form of verb**: go
- **Rest of sentence**: swimming.

"Didn't" or "did not" are used to make the negative, no matter what the subject is.

The base form of the main verb is used in the past simple negative.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- You didn’t like the beach.
- I didn’t eat all the chocolate!
- They didn’t buy the big, expensive car.
- Emily didn’t enjoy the theme park as much as Zara.
- She did not talk to anyone before the exam.
- Hugh did not cycle to work today.
When using the negative form of the past simple, “didn’t” plus the main verb in the base form is used. The main verb is never in the past simple.

“Play” should be in the base form. The main verb should only go into the past simple if it’s a positive statement.

I didn’t play tennis last night. ✔️
I didn’t played tennis last night. ✗

8.2 THE PAST SIMPLE NEGATIVE OF “BE”

To form the past simple negative of “be,” “not” is added after “was” or “were.”

The book was interesting, but the movie was not.
The books were great, but the movies were not.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“WAS / WERE”</th>
<th>“NOT”</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The movie</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>interesting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The movies</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>interesting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Kate was not feeling well.
My parents were not pleased.
The cat wasn’t in the house.
The computers weren’t working.

“Was not” is often shortened to “wasn’t.”
“Were not” is often shortened to “weren’t.”
Questions in the past simple are formed using "did." For past simple questions with "be," the subject and the verb "was" or "were" are swapped around.

### 9.1 QUESTIONS IN THE PAST SIMPLE

Use "did" plus the base form of the verb to ask a question in the past simple.

In the statement the main verb is in the past simple.

They bought a new car.

Did they buy a new car?

She visited her parents last week.

Who did she visit last week?

"Did" goes before the subject. The main verb is in its base form.

You can add question words to ask open questions.

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;DID&quot;</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>BASE FORM OF VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did</td>
<td>they</td>
<td>buy</td>
<td>a new car?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

Did they have a good time?

Where did she meet her friends?

Add question words to make open questions.

Did you read a book on the beach?

When did he go to the gym?

Did Ray drink all the milk?

Why did you buy so much food?
9.2 QUESTIONS IN THE PAST SIMPLE WITH “BE”

To make a question using the verb “be” in the past simple, swap the order of the subject and “was” or “were.”

In a statement, the subject comes before the verb.

She was excited. You were excited.

Was she excited? Were you excited?

In a question, the verb and the subject swap places.

The subject comes after the verb.

HOW TO FORM

“WAS / WERE” SUBJECT REST OF SENTENCE

Was I / he / she / it excited?

Were you / we / they excited?

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Was he good at playing tennis?

Were they surprised by you?

Why was she late for the party?

What was that song called?

Was there any cake at the party?

Were we the last ones to arrive?

What were the lectures about?

What was the weather like?
The past continuous is used in English to talk about actions or events that were in progress at some time in the past. It is formed with "was" or "were" and a present participle.

10.1 THE PAST CONTINUOUS

English uses the past continuous to talk about ongoing actions that were in progress at a certain time in the past.

The past continuous shows the action went on for some time, but is now finished.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

- This time last week, we were hiking in Peru.
- He didn’t go out because he was working late.
- When I lost my camera, we were swimming in the sea.
- The last time I saw him, he was washing his car.

HOW TO FORM

"Was" or "were" followed by the present participle form the past continuous.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;WAS / WERE&quot;</th>
<th>VERB + &quot;-ING&quot;</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>eating</td>
<td>lunch with a friend.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"Was" or "were" is used depending on the subject.
"-ing" is added to the main verb.

Past simple shows the action happened once and is now finished.
Past continuous describes a continuing action.
THE PAST CONTINUOUS FOR SCENE-SETTING

The past continuous is often used in storytelling to set a scene or describe a situation.

It was a beautiful day.
The sun was shining and the birds were singing.
Children were laughing and playing in the street.

THE PAST CONTINUOUS AND THE PAST SIMPLE

When English uses the past continuous and past simple together, the past continuous describes a longer, background action, and the past simple describes a shorter action that interrupts the background action.

CONTINUING BACKGROUND ACTION

INTERRUPTING MAIN ACTION

I was taking a photo when a monkey grabbed my camera.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

He was sunbathing when it started to rain.
She was sleeping when the phone rang.

I was mowing the lawn when you called.
I was having a bath when you knocked.
The present perfect simple is used to talk about events in the recent past that still have an effect on the present moment. It is formed with “have” and a past participle.

11.1 PRESENT PERFECT

The present perfect can be used to talk about the past in a number of different ways:

To give new information or news.

**Hi! I have arrived** in London! My plane landed five minutes ago.

To talk about a repeated action that continues to happen over a period of time.

**I have visited** California every summer since I was 18.

To talk about an event that started in the past and is still happening now.

**Olivia has gone** on a trip to Egypt.

FURTHER EXAMPLES THE PRESENT PERFECT

**Look! I’ve cooked** dinner for us.

**You haven’t cleared** the table. It’s a mess!

**John has just washed** the dishes.

**Have you cleaned up** your bedroom?

HOW TO FORM

SUBJECT | “HAVE / HAS” | PAST PARTICIPLE | REST OF SENTENCE
--- | --- | --- | ---
I | have | arrived | in London.

“Has” is used for “he,” “she,” and “it.”

See also:
Past simple 7  Present perfect continuous 12  Infinitives and participles 51
### 11.2 Regular Past Participles
Regular past participles are formed by adding “-ed” to the base form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ask</td>
<td>asked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call</td>
<td>called</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help</td>
<td>helped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>need</td>
<td>needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>play</td>
<td>played</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talk</td>
<td>talked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walk</td>
<td>walked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>want</td>
<td>wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch</td>
<td>watched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work</td>
<td>worked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 11.3 Irregular Past Participles
English has a lot of irregular past participles, which sometimes look very different from the base form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>been</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buy</td>
<td>bought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have</td>
<td>had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td>made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>say</td>
<td>said</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>seen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Common Mistakes Past Simple Forms and Past Participles
It is important not to mix up past simple forms with past participles.

- **I have seen** lots of great things here.  
- **I have saw** lots of great things here.  

This is the past participle of “see.”

This is the past simple form of “see,” and shouldn’t be used in perfect tenses.
“Be” and “go” are both used in the present perfect to talk about going somewhere, but they have different meanings.

I haven’t seen Joan recently. Where is she?

She’s gone to Florida.

She is still in Florida.

Hi, Joan. You’re looking well.

Yes, I’ve been to Florida.

She went to Florida, but now she is back home.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Where’s Ben?

He’s gone to the mall.

You look relaxed.

Yes, we’ve been in Bermuda. We had a great time.

Where’s Ariana?

She’s gone windsurfing.

Your hair looks great!

Thanks! I’ve just been to the hair salon.

Where are Julie and Jack?

They’ve gone to see a play.

Where have you been?

We’ve been to visit Joan in the hospital. She’s not very well.
**11.5 THE PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE AND THE PAST SIMPLE**

The past simple is used to talk about something that happened at a definite time. The present perfect is used when a particular time is not specified.

- **FURTHER EXAMPLES**
  - **PAST SIMPLE**
    - I saw a great movie last week.
    - Jo didn’t climb Mount Fuji last year.
    - Madison ate too much last night.
  - **PRESENT PERFECT**
    - I haven’t seen that movie.
    - Saki has climbed Mount Fuji twice.
    - Jack hasn’t eaten curry before.

- **11.6 THE PRESENT PERFECT IN US ENGLISH**

US English often uses the past simple when UK English would use the present perfect.

- No dessert for me! I ate too much. *(US)*
- No dessert for me! I’ve eaten too much. *(UK)*
- I can’t find my passport. Did you see it? *(US)*
- I can’t find my passport. Have you seen it? *(UK)*
The present perfect continuous is used to talk about a continuing activity in the past that still has an effect on the present moment. It usually refers to the recent past.

**THE PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS**

The present perfect continuous describes an activity that took place over a period of time in the recent past. The activity might just have stopped or might still be happening.

**PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS**

I have been painting the house all day. I’m exhausted!

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

“I have” can be shortened to “I’ve.”

I’ve been cooking this evening. Now I have to do the dishes.

“He has” can be shortened to “He’s.”

He’s been waiting for the bus for an hour. He is going to be late for work.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“HAS / HAVE”</th>
<th>“BEEN”</th>
<th>VERB + “-ING”</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>been</td>
<td>painting</td>
<td>the house.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use “have” or “has,” depending on the subject. “Been” stays the same for all subjects. “-ing” is added to the main verb.
12.2 THE PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS AND THE PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE

The present perfect continuous is used to show that an activity in the past was in progress. It is possible that the activity is still taking place.

**PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS**

*I’ve been fixing* my car. I’m covered in oil.

The present perfect simple is used to show that an activity in the past is finished.

**PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE**

*I’ve fixed* my car. Now I can drive to work again.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

*I’ve been cooking* dinner. It will be ready soon.

*I’ve cooked* dinner. It’s ready now.

Vicky has been running today. Now she’s really tired!

Vicky has just run a race. Now she’s receiving a medal.

*I’ve been eating* too much cake. I must eat less!

*I’ve eaten* all the cake. The plate is empty.

We’ve been looking at houses. We want to move.

We’ve bought a new house. We’re moving in June.
The past perfect simple

English uses the past perfect simple with the past simple to talk about two or more events that happened at different times in the past.

13.1 THE PAST PERFECT SIMPLE

When talking about two events that happened at different times in the past, the past simple describes the event that is closest to the time of speaking. The past perfect describes an event further back in the past.

PAST PERFECT SIMPLE

The train **had left** before we **arrived** at the station.

8:10PM 8:20PM NOW

PAST SIMPLE

Pablo **had gone** to work when I **knocked** on his door.

7:00AM 7:30AM NOW

HOW TO FORM

Use “had” followed by the past participle to form the past perfect.

SUBJECT | “HAD” | PAST PARTICIPLE | REST OF SENTENCE
--- | --- | --- | ---
The train | had | left | before we arrived at the station.

“Had” does not change with the subject.
The past participle expresses the action in the past.
FURTHER EXAMPLES

He had cooked dinner before Sally got back from work.

She had already read the play by the time she went to see it.

The traffic was bad because a car had broken down on the road.

When we arrived at the stadium, the game had already started.

13.2 THE PRESENT PERFECT AND PAST PERFECT

PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE

The present perfect is used to talk about an action that took place in the recent past and is still relevant to the present moment.

I’m so excited. I have just passed my driving test.

PAST PERFECT SIMPLE

The past perfect is used to talk about an action that took place before another moment in the past.

I was so excited. I had just passed my driving test.
English uses the past perfect continuous with the past simple to talk about an activity that was in progress before another action or event happened.

14.1 THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

The past simple refers to a specific completed event in the past. The past perfect continuous describes a repeated action or continuing activity that was taking place before that completed event.

He had been studying English for two years before he went to London.

By the time Katie arrived home, she had been driving for six hours.

HOW TO FORM

The past perfect continuous is formed using “had been” plus a present participle.

He had been studying English for two years.
FURTHER EXAMPLES

She decided to buy a new car because her old one hadn’t been working for weeks.

I went to see the doctor after I’d been feeling unwell for a few days.

The band had been rehearsing every day, so they won the competition.

I had been training to be a dancer until I broke my leg.

14.2 THE PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS AND PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

The present perfect continuous is used to talk about an action in progress or repeated activity that was taking place until the present moment.

I’m really thirsty. I have been cycling for two hours.

TWO HOURS AGO NOW

PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

The past perfect continuous is used to talk about an ongoing action or repeated activity that was taking place until another specified moment in the past.

I was really thirsty. I had been cycling for two hours.

TWO HOURS BEFORE PAST NOW
When talking about habits or states in the past, “used to” or “would” are often used. English often uses these forms to contrast the past with the present.

**15.1 “USED TO”**

“Used to” can be used with the base form of a verb to talk about past habits.

*We used to play* tennis every day, but now we prefer golf.

“Used to” can also be used to talk about fixed states at some indefinite time in the past.

*We used to live* in London before we moved to Sydney.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Did you use to ride a scooter when you were a student?

I didn’t use to believe in ghosts until I visited a haunted house.

I used to eat lunch on my own, but now I sit with friends.

We didn’t use to think England was cold until we moved here.

I used to eat meat, but now I’m a vegetarian.

I didn’t use to be afraid of spiders until I visited Australia.

“Used” becomes “use” in questions and negative forms.

See also:
- Present simple
- Past simple
- Past continuous
- Adverbs of frequency
COMMON MISTAKES “USED TO” AND THE PAST CONTINUOUS

When talking about habits in the past, “used to” should be used. It is incorrect to use the past continuous in this context.

We used to play lots of board games when we were younger. ✓

We were playing lots of board games when we were younger. ❌

The past continuous shouldn’t be used to talk about past habits.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

When I was younger, my family would go skiing once a year.

Refers to a past habit.

ANOTHER WAY TO SAY “USED TO” WITH HABITS

“Used to” can be replaced by “would” in writing and formal speech, but only to talk about past habits. These statements often include a reference to time to describe when, or how often something happened.

When I was little, we would go for a picnic every Saturday.

Whenever there were sports on TV, we just wouldn’t do our homework.

When I was a student in college, I would spend as little as possible.

Before I moved abroad, I wouldn’t try anything new.

COMMON MISTAKES “WOULD” WITH STATES

“Would” cannot be used to talk about states in the past. “Used to” must be used instead.

We used to live in London before we moved to Sydney. ✓

We would live in London before we moved to Sydney. ❌

“Would” cannot be used in this way with state verbs.
### 16.1 PAST TENSES

**The past simple** refers to a single, completed action in the past.

*Phil washed his car on Tuesday.*

This is a completed action in the past that is now over.

**The past continuous** refers to a continuing action in the past.

*The last time I saw Phil, he was washing his car.*

At that moment, he was in the process of washing his car.

**The present perfect simple** refers to an unfinished action or series of actions that started in the past, or past actions that still have a consequence in the present moment.

*Eve has arrived in London.*

Eve is still in London, so it is still relevant to the present moment.

**The present perfect continuous** refers to a continuing activity in the past that still has a consequence in the present moment.

*I have been painting the house all day. I’m exhausted!* This is a consequence in the present moment.

### 16.2 PAST SIMPLE AND PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE

**The past simple** is used to refer to single, completed actions or events in the past. These no longer have a consequence in the present moment.

*I wrote my essay about Ancient Greece.*

The essay is finished, so the past simple is used.

*I lost my keys, but I found them on my desk.*

This is no longer relevant to the present moment, because the keys were found.

**The present perfect simple** is used to refer to actions or events in the past that are unfinished, or still have consequences in the present moment.

*I have written half of my essay, but I need to finish it.*

The essay is unfinished, so the present perfect simple is used.

*I have lost my keys. I can’t find them anywhere!* The keys are still lost in the present moment, so the present perfect simple is used.

**The past perfect** refers to an action or event that took place before another action or event in the past.

*Used to* can also be used to refer to a fixed state at some indefinite time in the past that is no longer true.

*The past perfect continuous* refers to a continuing action or event that was taking place before another action or event that happened in the past.

"Used to" and "Would" are used to talk about repeated actions in the past that no longer happen.

*"Live"* is a state, so "would" can’t be used.
There are eight different ways to talk about the past in English. The differences between the past simple and the present perfect simple are particularly important.

The past perfect simple refers to an action or event that took place before another action or event in the past.

**The game had started when I arrived at the stadium.**

The past perfect continuous refers to a continuing action or event that was taking place before another action or event that happened in the past.

**I had been feeling unwell for days, so I went to the doctor.**

“Used to” and “Would” are used to talk about repeated actions in the past that no longer happen.

**I used to live in London.**

“Used to” can also be used to refer to a fixed state at some indefinite time in the past that is no longer true.

**I would go to Spain every year.**

“Live” is a state, so “would” can’t be used.

**16.3 KEY LANGUAGE NARRATIVE TENSES**

Narrative tenses are types of past tense that are used when telling a story. The past continuous is used to set the scene. The past simple describes actions in the story. The past perfect is used to talk about things that happened before the beginning of the story.

A crowd of people were celebrating the New Year when one of the young men kneeled down in front of his girlfriend and asked her to marry him. He had planned everything beforehand.
17 The future with “going to”

Future forms in English are formed using auxiliary verbs. One of the most commonly used constructions is “going to” plus the base form of the main verb.

See also:
The future with “will” 18
Future continuous 20  Future in the past 22

### 17.1 HOW TO FORM THE FUTURE WITH “GOING TO”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“BE”</th>
<th>“GOING TO”</th>
<th>BASE FORM OF VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>going to</td>
<td>buy</td>
<td>a new car.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 17.2 “GOING TO” FOR FUTURE PLANS

“Going to” is used to talk about future events that have been planned in advance, rather than decided upon at the time of speaking.

I’m **going to** buy a new car.

We are **going to** cook dinner tonight.

“Be” matches the subject of the sentence.

“Going to” doesn’t change with the subject.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I’m **going to** start reading this book soon.
- Sam’s **going to** get fit before his next birthday.
- I’m **not going to** eat any chocolate this month.
- We’re **going to** cycle from Boston to Cape Cod next weekend.

“Not” is added after the verb “be” to make the negative.
“GOING TO” FOR PREDICTIONS

“Going to” is also used to make predictions when there is evidence in the present moment.

Look at those clouds. It’s going to rain soon.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Oh no! She’s going to slip and fall over.

That hill is too steep. Jon is going to crash!

They’re going to break a window if they’re not careful.

Look! The waiter is going to drop those plates.

He’s wearing a raincoat, so he’s not going to get wet.

Oh dear, I think she’s going to fall off that ladder!

QUESTIONS WITH “GOING TO”

Questions with “going to” are formed by swapping the subject and “be.”

Michelle is going to be at the meeting.

Is Michelle going to be at the meeting?

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Is Rhian going to come to work tomorrow?

What are you going to wear to the party?

Is Tim going to be at the party?

When is he going to get here?
“Will” is used to form some future tenses in English. It can be used in several different ways, which are all different from the future with “going to.”

**18.1 HOW TO FORM THE FUTURE WITH “WILL”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“WILL”</th>
<th>BASE FORM OF VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>will</td>
<td>love</td>
<td>the new movie.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Will” doesn’t change with the subject.

**18.2 THE FUTURE USING “WILL”**

English uses “will” when talking about the future in four main ways:

To make a prediction about what you think will happen.

*Wait a few minutes. I think it will stop raining soon.*

This prediction is not based on evidence.

To offer to do something for someone.

*You look frozen. I’ll make you some hot soup.*

Contraction

To make a promise.

*We’ll be there by eight. Don’t worry!*

This decision was not planned in advance.

To describe a decision you’ve just made.

*I know! I’ll buy Aaron a surfboard for his birthday.*

See also:
The future with “going to” 17
Infinitive and participles 51
"WILL" FOR PREDICTIONS

"Will" is used to talk about predictions about the future when there is no firm evidence for that prediction.

This movie is great. You will love it.

There is no firm evidence that the person will like the movie.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The mall will be so busy this afternoon.

They'll enjoy their trip to Venice.

"Probably" means something is likely, but not definite.

Jane will probably like the new house. It's really nice.

She'll be really angry when she finds out.

"WILL" FOR QUICK DECISIONS

"Will" is used to describe quick decisions that someone has made at the time of speaking. They are often a solution to an unexpected problem.

Oh, it's raining! I'll take my umbrella.

"Will" shows you have just made the decision.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

"Will not" or "won't" is the negative form of "will."

It's midnight. I won't walk home through the park.

This apple is delicious. I'll have another one.

"So" is often used to join a situation to a quick decision.

There's no juice, so I'll have some water instead.

The car has broken down, so I'll have to walk to work.
**“WILL” FOR MAKING OFFERS**

“Will” is also used to offer to do something for someone.

You seem busy. I’ll pick the kids up from school today.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

I’ll go to the post office for you if you want.

You must be starving! I’ll make you a sandwich.

Sit down and relax, I’ll make you a cup of tea.

Since you cooked, I’ll do the dishes.

**“WILL” FOR MAKING PROMISES**

“Will” can be used when making a promise.

Don’t worry, I’ll be careful.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

We’ll let you know as soon as your car’s ready.

I’ll feed the cat when I get home.

If you bring the food, we’ll take care of the drinks.

I’ll take care of everything while you’re away.

Ben said he’ll call us as soon as he gets home.

Don’t worry, I’ll lock the front door when I leave.
**18.7 “THINK” WITH “WILL”**

“Think” can be used with “will” to show that a prediction is just an opinion, or a decision is not final.

- I think that we’ll have enough food for the party.
- I’m tired. I think I’ll go to bed.

“Think” is made negative, rather than “will.”

- That” is used after “think,” but it can be left out.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- It’s cold outside, but we don’t think it’ll snow today.
- If we hurry, I think we’ll get to the airport on time.
- I think I’ll cook chicken for dinner this evening.
- I think I’ll take the children ice-skating tomorrow.

**18.8 FUTURE WITH “SHALL”**

“Shall” is used instead of “will” when asking for a decision, or making offers or suggestions. In these cases, it is only used with “I” or “we.” It is rarely used in US English.

- Shall I pick you up or shall we meet at the restaurant?

“Shall” is being used to make an offer.

“Shall” is being used to make a suggestion.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Shall I cook chicken or beef tonight?
- It’s so hot in here. Shall I open a window?
- I’m bored, shall we go out for a walk?
- Shall we try to finish the gardening today?
The present simple and present continuous can be used to talk about future events that are already planned. They are usually used with a future time word or time phrase.

**19.1 THE PRESENT SIMPLE FOR FUTURE EVENTS**

The present simple can be used to talk about events that are scheduled to take place in the future.

The train **arrives** at 10pm tonight.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>PRESENT SIMPLE</th>
<th>FUTURE TIME PHRASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The train</td>
<td><strong>arrives</strong></td>
<td>at 10pm tonight.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Don’t forget we **have** an early meeting tomorrow morning.

The next flight to New York **departs** at 6 this evening.

The concert **is** next Wednesday. I hope we’re ready by then!

The bank **opens** late tomorrow because it’s the weekend.

See also:
- Present simple 1
- Present continuous 4
- Prepositions of time 107
The present continuous can be used to talk about pre-arranged future events. Time markers usually show whether the event is in the present or future.

**At the moment** Dave is working, but **tomorrow** he is playing golf.

- ** Present continuous refers to Dave's present activity.
- Present continuous refers to a future event that is planned.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>PRESENT CONTINUOUS</th>
<th>FUTURE TIME PHRASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dave</td>
<td>is playing golf</td>
<td>tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Jack's playing soccer tomorrow.
- I'm seeing a movie later.
- Sue is studying this evening.
- Lisa is playing golf tomorrow.
- I'm having dinner with Mike next weekend.
- Jay is meeting some friends tomorrow evening.
- Tom and Samantha are getting married tomorrow.
- I'm running a race for charity this weekend.
The future continuous can be formed using “will” or “going to.” It describes an event or situation that will be in progress at some point in the future.

**20.1 THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS WITH WILL**

The future continuous describes an event that will be in progress at a given time in the future which is often stated. The event will start before the stated time and may continue after it.

**PRESENT CONTINUOUS**

*Right now I’m working in a café. In 10 years’ time, I hope I will be running a bistro.*

**FUTURE CONTINUOUS**

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“WILL BE”</th>
<th>PRESENT PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>will be</td>
<td>running</td>
<td>a bistro.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

This time next week, we will be walking in the Andes.

Emma will be starting school in September.
20.2 THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS WITH "ANYWAY"

The future continuous can also be used to talk about events that are going to happen as a matter of course or "anyway."

**NEUTRAL QUESTIONS**

The future continuous is also used to ask neutral questions: questions asked for information, not to make a request.

**NEUTRAL QUESTION**

Future continuous.

**REQUEST**

Future simple.

---

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

You can send the parcel here. I’ll be waiting in the house anyway.

I can give that to Freda for you. I’ll be seeing her for lunch.

Anyway” is implied here.

---

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Oh no, I’ve run out of milk.

I can get some for you later.

No, please don’t worry!

It’s okay, I’ll be driving past the store anyway.

---

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Will you be coming into work tomorrow?

Yes, I will.

OK, let’s talk about the report then.

---

Will you be driving past the post office later?

Will you be attending the meeting this afternoon?
20.4 THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS TO TALK ABOUT THE PRESENT
You can also use the future continuous to speculate about what is happening at the present moment.

Have you noticed that Andrew isn’t at work today?
He’ll be working on his presentation at home.

It’s more likely that he’ll be watching the golf on TV!

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Why isn’t Xavier here today?
He’ll be finishing off his report for the annual meeting.

Why is Nev late?
He’ll be taking his children to school.

Where is Sarah?
She’ll be studying in the library probably.

Is Phoebe at home?
No, she’s not here. She’ll be playing with Ciara at the park, probably.

Have you seen Roberta?
No, but she’s going out later, so I think she’ll be getting ready.
The future continuous can sometimes be formed with “going to” instead of “will,” but this is less common. It can be used in most future continuous constructions except to speculate about the present.

I can’t come out this evening. I’m going to be studying all night.

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“BE”</th>
<th>“GOING TO BE”</th>
<th>PRESENT PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>going to be</td>
<td>studying</td>
<td>all night.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I want to go away on Saturday, but I’m going to be working all weekend.
- I’d love to go out on Thursday, but I’m going to be finishing this essay.
- Shall we have lunch next week? I’m going to be visiting your city.
- I’m going to be staying with my husband’s family for the holidays this year.
- Do you want to go to a concert tonight? My wife is going to be performing.
- At the lecture this evening, two politicians are going to be talking about crime.
The future perfect is used to talk about an event that will overlap with, or finish before, another event in the future. It can be used in simple or continuous forms.

**21.1 THE FUTURE PERFECT**

The future perfect is used to describe an action or event that will be finished before a certain future time.

They will have built the skyscraper by January.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;WILL HAVE&quot;</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>TIME PHRASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>will have</td>
<td>built</td>
<td>the skyscraper</td>
<td>by January.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Cai will have read all his course books by next week.

Sam will have finished the laundry by this afternoon.

The next time you see me, I will have had a haircut.

We’re so late! The play will have started by the time we get there!
The future perfect continuous can be used to predict the length of an activity. This tense looks back from the imagined finishing time in the future.

By July, I **will have been working** here for a year.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME PHRASE</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“WILL HAVE BEEN”</th>
<th>PRESENT PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By July,</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>will have been</td>
<td>working</td>
<td>here for a year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By the time this is all ready, Andy **will have been cooking** all day!

By the time I arrive home, I **will have been driving** for six hours.

By this time next month, I **will have been studying** English for a year!

He **will have been waiting** for two hours by the time she arrives.

This case **will have been going on** for over a year before it is settled.
There are a number of constructions in English that can be used to describe thoughts about the future that someone had at some point in the past.

### 22.1 The Future in the Past Using “Was Going To”

The future in the past is used to look back on an earlier prediction. Where “going to” is used to talk about the future from the present, “was / were going to” is used to talk about a past view of it.

**This traffic is awful! I think I’m going to be late for work.**

**I thought I was going to be late, but I’m right on time.**

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“WAS / WERE”</th>
<th>“GOING TO”</th>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>going to</td>
<td>be</td>
<td>late.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Further Examples

- I was going to start a new book today, but I didn’t have time.
- Delia was going to buy a new dress, but she couldn’t find one.
- Mike was going to have a party, but nobody could come.
- We were going to buy a new dog, but we decided to wait.
- They were going to go home, but they went dancing instead.
- Sorry, I interrupted. Were you going to say something?
22.2 THE FUTURE IN THE PAST USING “WOULD”

Where “will” is used to talk about a future event from the present, “would” is used to talk about a past view of it.

I think I will finish the gardening today. It shouldn’t take too long. I thought I would finish today, but there is still a lot left to do.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I always knew she would be successful. Did you ever think you would become a doctor?

I was told that my car would be fixed by now. I don’t know where Hilda is. I thought she’d be here by 8pm.

22.3 THE FUTURE IN THE PAST USING THE PAST CONTINUOUS

The past continuous is used to talk about an arranged future event from a time in the past.

Jenny was extremely nervous on Monday morning. She was taking her driving test that afternoon.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

They were planning to go to the beach tomorrow, but the weather’s terrible.

Michelle had been cleaning all day. Her sister was arriving that evening.

Hugo had to go to bed early because he was flying early the following morning.
23.1 THE FUTURE

The present simple can be used to talk about events that are timetabled or scheduled to take place in the future.

The train arrives at 10pm.

The present continuous can be used to talk about future arrangements and plans.

I'm traveling to Paris by train later this evening.

The simple future is the most common form used to refer to an event in the future.

It will rain tomorrow.

The future continuous describes an event that will be in progress at a given time in the future. The event will start before the stated time and may continue after it.

It will be raining all weekend.

23.2 "GOING TO" AND "WILL"

English uses both “going to” and “will” to talk about the future. They can sometimes have a very similar meaning, but there are certain situations where they mean different things.

“Will” is used to make predictions that aren’t based on present evidence.

I think Number 2 will win.

“Going to” is used when there is evidence in the present moment to support a prediction.

Look, Number 2 is going to win.
English uses different constructions to talk about the future. These are mostly formed with the auxiliary verb “will” or a form of “be” with “going to.”

**The future perfect** is used to predict when an action or event will be finished. This tense looks back from an imagined time in the future.

They **will have** built the skyscraper by next year.

**The future perfect continuous** is used to predict the eventual duration of an activity. This tense looks back from the endpoint of the action.

By July, they **will have been working** on it for a year.

**The future in the past** describes thoughts about the future that someone had at some point in the past. There are three ways to form this construction.

The traffic was terrible, so I **knew I was going to** be late.

I thought I **would** finish the gardening by the end of the day.

I was nervous on Sunday night. I **was starting** a new job the next day.

“**Will**” is used when a decision is made at the time of speaking.

I know! I’ll **buy** Jo a surfboard for her birthday.

“**Going to**” is used when talking about a decision that has already been made.

I’m **going to** buy her a surfboard that I saw last week.

“**Will**” becomes “**would**.”

“**Am starting**” becomes “**was starting**.”

This decision was not planned in advance.

This decision has already been planned.
In most sentences, the subject carries out an action and the object receives it, or the result of it. In passive sentences, this is reversed: the subject receives the action.

**24.1 THE PRESENT SIMPLE PASSIVE**
Passive sentences take emphasis away from the agent (the person or thing doing the action), and put it on the action itself, or the person or thing receiving the action. In the present simple passive, the present simple verb becomes a past participle.

The focus is on “many people.”

Many people study this book.

The subject of the active sentence is “many people.”

This book is studied by many people.

The focus is on “this book,” which is the subject of the passive sentence.

“Study” changes to “is studied.”

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**
The passive is used when the agent is obvious, unknown, or unimportant. It is also useful when describing a process where the result of the action is important.

Criminals are arrested every day in this town.

The speaker doesn’t mention the agent because the verb obviously refers to the police.

Are the posters printed on quality paper?

“Be” and the subject swap places to form questions.

**HOW TO FORM**
All passives use a form of “be” with a past participle. The agent (the thing doing the action) can be introduced with “by,” but the sentence would still make sense without it.
The present continuous passive is used to refer to ongoing actions.

**PRESENT CONTINUOUS**

Developers are building lots of new houses in the area.

Lots of new houses are being built in the area.

**PRESENT CONTINUOUS PASSIVE**

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

You can’t use the pool today because it is being cleaned.

The robbery is being investigated by the police.

We’re living in a trailer while our house is being rebuilt.

The course is being taught by a well-known scientist.

I am being interviewed by a news channel tomorrow.

Don’t worry, the food is being cooked as we speak.

Posters for the concert are being put up all over town.

I have to walk to work while my car is being repaired.

**HOW TO FORM**

SUBJECT | “AM / IS / ARE” | “BEING” | PAST PARTICIPLE | REST OF SENTENCE
--- | --- | --- | --- | ---
New houses | are | being | built | in the area.

The thing that receives the action.

Present simple of “be.”

The past participle describes what happens to the subject.
English uses the passive voice in the past to stress the effect of an action that happened in the past, rather than the cause of that action.

### 25.1 THE PAST SIMPLE PASSIVE

The past simple passive is used when referring to a single completed action in the past, focusing on the effect rather than the cause.

**PAST SIMPLE**

The fire **destroyed** the buildings.

**PAST SIMPLE PASSIVE**

The buildings **were destroyed** by the fire.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- The trees **were cut down** last year.
- The rail road **was damaged** during the storm.
- Two people **were injured** in the accident.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;WAS / WERE&quot;</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The buildings</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>destroyed</td>
<td>in a fire.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- "Was" is for singular subjects, and "were" is for plural subjects.
- The main verb is a past participle.
25.2 THE PAST CONTINUOUS PASSIVE

The past continuous can also be used in the passive voice. It is used to refer to ongoing actions in the past.

The main verb is expressed as a past participle.

"Was" is for singular subjects, and "were" is for plural subjects.

The thing that receives the action.

The main verb is expressed as a past participle.

Secret agents were watching him.

He was being watched by secret agents.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The students were being taught how to write good essays.

By the time I got back to my car, it was being taken away.

I went for lunch while my car was being fixed.

The new secretary was being shown how to use the computer.

We bought our house while it was being built.

HOW TO FORM

SUBJECT | "WAS / WERE" | "BEING" | PAST PARTICIPLE | "BY" + AGENT
--- | --- | --- | --- | ---
He | was | being | watched | by secret agents.
25.3 THE PRESENT PERFECT PASSIVE

The present perfect passive is used to talk about events in the past that still have an effect on the present moment.

PRESENT PERFECT

Don’t worry, I **have fed** the cats.

PRESENT PERFECT PASSIVE

Don’t worry, the cats **have been fed**.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

This door **has been painted** beautifully.

Do you know if all the lights **have been turned off**?

Has your computer **been fixed yet**? It broke months ago!

The new parts **haven’t been delivered yet**, so you’ll have to wait.

All of the smoke detectors **have been replaced**.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“HAS / HAVE”</th>
<th>“BEEN”</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The cats</td>
<td>have</td>
<td>been</td>
<td>fed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The thing that receives the action. *Been* stays the same no matter what the subject is. The main verb is expressed as a past participle.
25.4 THE PAST PERFECT PASSIVE

The past perfect passive is used to refer to events that happened before another event in the past.

Unfortunately, the organizer **had canceled** the party.

The past perfect passive: **Un fortunately, the party had been canceled.**

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

This part of the Arctic **had never been explored** before.

The class **hadn’t been told** that the lecture **had been canceled**.

Sue didn’t realize that the floor **had just been polished**.

We were about to sing *Happy Birthday*, but the cake **had been eaten**!

Anna was so happy that her cat **had been found**.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;HAD BEEN&quot;</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The party</td>
<td>had been canceled.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The thing that receives the action. "Had been" stays the same with any subject. The main verb is expressed as a past participle.
English uses the passive voice in the future to stress the effect of an action that will happen in the future, rather than the cause of that action.

### 26.1 THE FUTURE SIMPLE PASSIVE

The future simple passive is usually formed with "will" rather than "going to."

**FUTURE SIMPLE**

**Hopefully, the police** will catch the thief very soon.

**FUTURE SIMPLE PASSIVE**

**Hopefully, the thief** will be caught very soon.

It is not known or important who will catch the thief.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- Don’t worry, the house will be finished very soon.
- An email will be sent to you all next week with more details.
- Sorry, but the power will be turned off between 2pm and 5pm.

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;WILL BE&quot;</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The thief</td>
<td>will be</td>
<td>caught</td>
<td>very soon.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The thing that receives the action.
- "Will be" doesn’t change with any subject.
- The main verb is a past participle.

See also:  
Future with "will" 18  
Future perfect 21  
Infinitives and participles 51
26.2 THE FUTURE PERFECT PASSIVE

The future perfect passive is used to talk about events that will be finished at some point in the future.

FUTURE PERFECT

The mechanic **will have fixed** the car by 5pm.

FUTURE PERFECT PASSIVE

The car **will have been fixed** by 5pm.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

We think every ticket **will have been bought** before the end of the day.

Hurry up or all the good seats **will have been taken** already.

You should call early, otherwise all the tables **will have been booked**.

Come back tomorrow. The park **will have been cleaned** by then.

**Will those letters have been sent** out before lunchtime tomorrow?

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;WILL HAVE BEEN&quot;</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The car</td>
<td><strong>will have been</strong></td>
<td>fixed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The thing that receives the action.

"Will have been" stays the same with any subject.

The main verb is a past participle.
Modal verbs in English can be used in passive forms. As with other passive constructions, the emphasis changes to the object that receives the action.

**27.1 MODALS IN THE PRESENT PASSIVE**

Modals in passive forms don’t change. The sentence starts with the modal, then the verb “be” plus the past participle.

**PRESENT WITH MODAL**

You **should** **tell** Barbara the exciting news!

**PRESENT PASSIVE WITH MODAL**

Barbara **should be told** the exciting news!

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Should the package **be delivered** to your house or your office?
- The treasure chest **can only be opened** with a special key.
- All new employees **must be shown** what to do if there’s a fire.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>MODAL VERB</th>
<th>“BE”</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barbara</td>
<td><strong>should</strong></td>
<td><strong>be</strong></td>
<td><strong>told</strong></td>
<td>the news.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The thing that receives the action. Other modal verbs can go here. “Be” stays the same no matter what the subject is. The main verb is a past participle form.
27.2 MODALS IN THE PERFECT PASSIVE

Modals in perfect tenses can become passive by replacing “have” with “have been.”

**PERFECT WITH MODAL**

The managers **should have given** Daniel more time.

**PERFECT PASSIVE WITH MODAL**

Daniel **should have been given** more time.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

We **should have been told** that the concert was canceled!

The robber **would have been arrested** if he hadn’t been so quick.

The leaking pipe **might have been fixed** now. Should we ask?

Lots of people think that the fire **could have been prevented**.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Modal Verb</th>
<th>“Have Been”</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>should</td>
<td>have been</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>more time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The thing that receives the action.
- Other modal verbs can go here.
- “Have been” stays the same with any subject.
- The main verb is a past participle form.
28 Other passive constructions

Many idioms in English use passive forms. Some idioms use standard rules for passive forms, while others are slightly different.

28.1 REPORTING WITH PASSIVES

Some passive constructions are used to distance the writer or speaker from the facts. They are often used in academic writing or news reports.

"IT" + PASSIVE REPORTING VERB

It has been reported that three sailors have disappeared.

SUBJECT + PASSIVE REPORTING VERB

The race is known to be extremely dangerous.

"THERE" + PASSIVE REPORTING VERB

There are said to be at least 20 boats in the search party.

"THAT" CLAUSE

"TO BE / TO HAVE BEEN"

FURTHER EXAMPLES

It has been rumored that wolves live in these woods.

The worksite is said to be unsafe for workers.

There is thought to be a problem with crime here.

It has been revealed that some prisoners have escaped.

The new school is thought to have the best teachers in the country.

There are said to be pros and cons to moving abroad.

See also:
Passive voice 45  Reporting verbs 24
Defining relative clauses 81
28.2 USING “GET” IN PASSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

“Get” can sometimes replace “be” in passive sentences. This form is more informal than the passive with “be.”

PRESENT SIMPLE PASSIVE

Bikes get stolen in this town every day.

My friend’s bike got stolen yesterday.

PAST SIMPLE PASSIVE

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The windows get washed once a month.

My laptop gets updated every week by the IT team.

More and more items are getting recycled these days.

This package got delivered today. I wonder what it is.

I hope the air conditioning will get fixed soon.

Did you know that the company was getting sold?

HOW TO FORM

SUBJECT | “GET / GOT” | PAST PARTICIPLE | REST OF SENTENCE
---|---|---|---
His bike | got | stolen | yesterday.

The thing that receives the action.

A form of “get” is used instead of “be.”

The past participle describes what happens to the subject.
Conditional sentences are used to describe real or hypothetical results of real or hypothetical situations. They can use many different verb forms.

### 29.1 THE ZERO CONDITIONAL

The zero conditional, also called the “real” conditional, refers to things that are always true. It is used to describe the direct result of an action.

**ACTION**

If

you heat water,

**RESULT**

it boils.

“if” and “when” mean the same thing in the zero conditional.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

If **you heat ice**, it melts.

If **you drop an apple**, it falls.

When **you put a rock in water**, it sinks.

Oil floats when **you pour it onto water**.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“IF / WHEN”</th>
<th>ACTION (PRESENT SIMPLE)</th>
<th>COMMA</th>
<th>RESULT (PRESENT SIMPLE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If</td>
<td>you heat water</td>
<td>,</td>
<td>it boils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present simple describes the action. Comma goes at the end of the “if” or “when” clause. Result is described using present simple.

See also:
- Present simple 1
- Imperatives 6
- Past simple 7
- Future with “will” 18
29.2 CONDITIONALS WITH IMPERATIVES

Imperatives can be used in conditional sentences. The “if” clause describes a hypothetical situation and the imperative clause describes what someone should do if that hypothetical situation actually happens.

SITUATION

If you’re cold, put on a coat.

SUGGESTED ACTION

FURTHER EXAMPLES

If you feel sick, call a doctor.

If the dog’s hungry, feed him.

If the traffic is bad, cycle to work.

If the children behave badly, call me.

Don’t stay up late if you’re tired.

Let me know if you need help.

HOW TO FORM

“IF”

If

PRESENT SIMPLE

you’re cold

COMMA

,

IMPERATIVE

put on a coat.

“If” shows that the sentence is conditional.

Present simple tense describes the situation.

Comma comes at the end of the “if” clause.

The imperative gives the suggested action.
The first conditional is usually introduced by an “if” clause, followed by the present simple. The future with “will” expresses the result.

**THE FIRST CONDITIONAL**

**HOW TO FORM**

The first conditional is usually introduced by an “if” clause, followed by the present simple. The future with “will” expresses the result.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

If I go jogging, I’ll lose weight.
If it snows, I’ll go skiing.
If we go to Africa, we’ll go on safari.

If I get the job, I’ll buy a new suit.
If I cook, will you do the dishes?
I won’t go outside if it rains.
The second conditional, also called the “unreal” conditional, uses “if” to describe an unlikely or unreal action or event. The described result is also very unlikely.

**HOW TO FORM**

The second conditional is usually introduced by an “if” clause with a past simple verb. “Would” or “could” plus the base form of the main verb expresses the result.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- If he wasn’t so busy, he’d take a break.
- I’d call her if I knew her number.
- If I moved to Scotland, I’d live in a cottage.
- If I saw a ghost, I would be terrified.
- If I had more time, I could take up karate.
- If I learned English, I could visit London.
The third conditional, also called the “past unreal” conditional, is used to describe unreal situations in the past. It is often used to express regret about the past because the hypothetical situation that it describes is now impossible as a consequence of another past action.

**If we had left earlier, we would have caught the train.**

- **UNREAL PAST SITUATION**
- **UNREAL PAST RESULT**

**Further Examples**

- **If I had woken up on time, I would have done my hair.**
  - “Could” means this possibly would have happened.

- **If you had been wearing a coat, you might have stayed warm.**
  - “Might” means this possibly would have happened.

- **If I had studied harder, I could have been a doctor.**

- **If I had known it was your birthday, I would have bought you a present.**

**How to Form**

- **If**
- **“Had” + Past Participle**
- **“Would / Could / Might”**
- **“Have” + Past Participle**

- The “if” clause is the unreal past condition.
- Using different modals changes the certainty of the imagined result.
- The conditional clause is the unreal result.
**THE MIXED CONDITIONAL**

**SECOND CONDITIONAL**
The second conditional is used to talk about hypothetical situations in the present.

**PAST SIMPLE**
If I didn’t believe in astrology, I wouldn’t read my horoscope.

"WOULD" + INFINITIVE

**THIRD CONDITIONAL**
The third conditional is used to talk about hypothetical situations in the past.

**PAST PERFECT**
If I had known he was an Aquarius, I would not have gone out with him.

"WOULD" + "HAVE" + PAST PARTICIPLE

**MIXED CONDITIONAL**
Mixed conditionals are usually used to talk about hypothetical present results of unreal past situations.

If you had been born a month earlier, you would be a Virgo like me.

Unreal past.

Unreal present.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

If you hadn’t forgotten to bring the keys, we wouldn’t be locked out of the house.

Mixed conditionals refer to future situations when used with future time markers.

You would be starting at a new school tomorrow if you hadn’t failed your exams.

If I had finished my assignment sooner, I could be out with my friends today.

Mixed conditionals are often used to express regret.

We would be on a beach in Greece by now if we hadn’t missed our flight.
English allows for some variations in conditional sentence structures. These give more information about the context of the conditional.

### 30.1 CONDITIONAL SENTENCES WITH MODAL VERBS

First, second, and third conditional sentences can use different modal verbs in their “result” clauses. These can be used to express uncertainty, possibility, or obligation, amongst other things.

#### FIRST CONDITIONAL

In the first conditional, “will” can be replaced by a variety of modal verbs to talk about different ideas.

- If I save enough money, I will buy a new car.
- If I save enough money, I can buy a new car.

Different modal verbs can go here.

#### SECOND CONDITIONAL

In the second conditional, “would” can be replaced by “could” or “might” to express ability, possibility, or uncertainty.

- If I saved enough money, I would buy a new car.
- If I saved enough money, I \{ could, might \} buy a new car.

#### THIRD CONDITIONAL

In the third conditional, “would” can be replaced by “could” or “might” to express ability, possibility, or uncertainty.

- If I had saved enough money, I would have bought a new car.
- If I had saved enough money, I \{ could, might \} have bought a new car.

See also:
- Future with “will” 18
- Modal verbs 56
30.2 FIRST CONDITIONAL WITH “UNLESS”

“Unless” can be used instead of “if” in conditional sentences. “Unless” means “if... not,” so the future result depends on the suggested action not happening.

If you don’t
Unless you
study hard, you will fail your exams.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

If you don’t
Unless you
get up now, you’ll be late for work.

I’ll be angry
if he doesn’t turn
unless he turns
that music down.

30.3 FORMAL THIRD CONDITIONAL

The third conditional can be made more formal by swapping “had” with the subject and dropping “if.”

If you had attended the meeting, you would have met the manager.

Had you attended the meeting, you would have met the manager.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Had I worked harder at school, I could have studied medicine.

Had you listened to the directions, we would have arrived on time.

Had she woken up earlier, she wouldn’t have been late.

Had we bought that house, we couldn’t have afforded this trip.
### Conditional sentences overview

#### 31.1 TYPES OF CONDITIONAL

**The zero conditional**

is used to talk about situations that will always happen. It is used to talk about general truths.

*PRESENT SIMPLE*

*If you play the violin out of tune, it sounds terrible.*

**The second conditional**

is used to talk about hypothetical situations that are very unlikely to happen, but are usually still possible.

*PAST SIMPLE*

*If I practiced more, that song would sound better.*

*”WOULD” + BASE FORM*

#### 31.2 USING COMMAS IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

When the action comes before the result, a comma separates the two clauses of the conditional sentence. However, when the result comes first, no comma is used.

*When you freeze water, ice forms.*

The result can come at the beginning of the sentence.

*Ice forms when you freeze water.*

*”If” or “when” can sit between the action and result, without a comma.*

A comma is used if the action comes first.
There are four types of conditional sentences. The zero conditional refers to real situations, but the first, second, and third conditionals all refer to hypothetical situations.

**The first conditional**
is used to talk about hypothetical situations that are likely to happen.

**PRESENT SIMPLE**

If I practice really hard, this song will sound great.

“WILL” + BASE FORM

**The third conditional**
is used to talk about hypothetical situations that definitely will not happen. The result is no longer possible because of the imaginary cause in the past.

**PAST PERFECT**

If I had practiced more, I would have sounded better.

“WOULD” + “HAVE” + PAST PARTICIPLE

---

**COMMON MISTAKES USING OTHER TENSES IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES**

“Will,” “would,” and “would have” should not be used in the “if” clause when forming conditional sentences.

If I will work really hard, this piece will sound great.  

“Will” doesn’t go in the “if” clause.

If I would practice more, that piece would sound better.  

“Would” doesn’t go in the “if” clause.

If I would have practiced more, I would have sounded better.  

“Would have” doesn’t go in the “if” clause.
There are many ways to talk about imaginary future situations. Different structures can be used to indicate whether a situation is likely or unlikely.

### 32.1 LIKELY FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

“What if” or “suppose” followed by the present tense can be used to express a future outcome that is likely to happen.

“What if” means “what would happen if an imagined situation occurred?”

```
What if I fail my exams? I won’t be able to go to college.
```

“Suppose” refers to the consequences of an imagined situation.

```
Suppose I fail my exams.
```

FURTHER EXAMPLES

```
What if the computer crashes? I will lose all my work.
Suppose they assess our coursework. We will have to keep a portfolio.
```

### 32.2 UNLIKELY FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

“What if” or “suppose” followed by the past simple can be used to express a future outcome that is possible, but unlikely to happen.

```
Just imagine! If we all got 100% on our exams?
```

```
What if our flight was canceled? We’d be stuck here!
```

FURTHER EXAMPLES

```
Suppose I got caught cheating. My parents would be furious.
```

The past tense shows the speaker thinks this is unlikely to happen.
32.3 THINGS THAT COULD HAVE HAPPENED

“What if” and “suppose” can also be used with the past perfect to describe situations that were possible in the past, but that didn’t happen, or might not have happened.

That was so dangerous! {What if} you had broken your leg?

The past perfect shows that this didn’t happen, but it was possible.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

We were lucky to catch that plane! What if it hadn’t been delayed?

Suppose you had taken the job.
We would have had to move.

32.4 IN CASE

“In case” or “just in case” plus the present tense are used to show planning for a possible future situation.

Make sure the windows are shut in case the cat tries to escape.

Present tense.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

You should take an umbrella with you in case it rains later.

We should start organizing our project work, just in case they want to see it.

You should write these instructions down in case you forget what to do.

You should leave for the airport early, just in case the traffic is bad.

“Just” is added to “in case” to talk about preparation for a situation that is less likely.
English uses the verb “wish” to talk about present and past regrets. The tense of the verb that follows “wish” affects the meaning of the sentence.

### “WISH” AND PAST SIMPLE

“Wish” is used with the past simple to express regrets and desires about the present, which could still happen or come true.

I wish I earned more money.

The past simple is used here to talk about the present.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

Mike’s apartment is too small. He wishes he lived in a bigger house.

They wish the weather was better so they could go to the beach.

You’re always busy, I wish you didn’t have to work so hard.

Sandra hates her job. She wishes she worked on a farm.

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“WISH”</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>PAST SIMPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>wish</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>earned</td>
<td>more money.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Wish” or “wishes,” depending on the subject.

The past simple expresses wishes or regrets about the present.

See also:
- Past simple 7
- Past perfect simple 13
- Modal verbs 56
“Wish” is used with the past perfect to talk about regrets about the past. This form is used when it is too late for the wish to come true.

I’ve failed my exams. I wish I had studied harder.

The past perfect is used to talk about a regret in the past.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

He’s very tired. He wishes he had gone to bed early last night.

My car’s useless! I wish I hadn’t bought such an old one.

Jo is really bored. She wishes she had gone out with her friends.

We’re totally lost! I wish we had brought a map.

I wish I had known how big this dress was before I bought it.

There was a meteor shower last night. I wish I had seen it.

**HOW TO FORM**

```
SUBJECT  "WISH"  SUBJECT  PAST PERFECT  REST OF SENTENCE
I        wish      I        had studied       harder.
```

"Wish" or "wishes," depending on the subject.

The past perfect expresses regrets about the past.
“Wish” can also be used to talk about hopes for the future. “Wish” with “could” is usually used when someone is expressing a desire to do something themselves.

“Wish” with “would” is used when someone is expressing a desire for someone else to do something.

She wishes her teacher would give her less work.
[She wants her teacher to give out less homework in the future.]

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I wish I could get a new job in a different department.

I wish I could go to the concert with my friends this evening.

Irene wishes she could find her diamond necklace.

Matteo wishes he could play the violin.

He wishes he could understand his homework.

I wish I could move somewhere warm.
[I would like to be able to move somewhere warmer.]

She wants her teacher to give out less homework in the future.

Colin is always talking about cars. I wish he would stop.

I wish they wouldn’t make it so hard to buy tickets online.

Jenny’s mother wishes she would clean her room.

Noel wishes Adrienne would stop singing.

Madge wishes Greg wouldn’t drive so fast.

“Should have” or “ought to have” are used to express regret that something did or didn’t happen in the past.

Past participles: should have / ought to have / ought not to have
33.4 ANOTHER WAY TO SAY “I WISH”

**PRESENT REGRETS**
Stronger regrets about the present can be expressed by using “if only” and the past simple.

These mountains are incredible! If only I knew how to ski.

**PAST REGRETS**
Stronger regrets about the past can be expressed by using “if only” and the past perfect.

I really wanted to take pictures. If only I’d charged the battery.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**PRESENT REGRETS**
I love the sound of the guitar. If only I played it better.

I’m sure the teacher explained this. If only I remembered it!

**PAST REGRETS**
The show is completely sold out! If only I’d arrived sooner.

I couldn’t finish the marathon. If only I had trained harder.

33.5 PAST REGRETS

“Should have” or “ought to have” are used to express regret that something did or didn’t happen in the past.

This bill is so big. I **should have** used less electricity.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Maybe I **should have** used energy-saving light bulbs.

I shouldn’t have fallen asleep with the TV on.

The negative form “ought not to have” is rarely used in UK English and never used in US English.
34 Forming questions

If a statement uses “be” or an auxiliary verb, its question form is made by inverting that verb and the subject. Any other question is formed by adding “do” or “does.”

34.1 QUESTIONS WITH “BE”

To make a question using the verb “be,” the verb goes before the subject.

In a statement, the subject comes before the verb.

You are Canadian.

In a question, the verb comes before the subject.

Are you Canadian?

The subject comes after the verb.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Sorry, am I early? Are you tired? Are they engineers?

Is Frieda here yet? Is she still a student? Aren’t you bored?

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“BE”</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am</td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are</td>
<td>you / we / they</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is</td>
<td>he / she / it</td>
<td>Canadian?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also:
Present simple 1  Types of verbs 49
Modal verbs 56
34.2 QUESTIONS WITH “BE” IN THE PAST

To ask questions about the past using the verb “be,” the subject and verb swap places.

He was in India.

Was he in India?

The subject and “was / were” swap places.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Was it nice and sunny yesterday?

Were there any snacks at the party?

Was he good at playing tennis?

Were you at the party last night?

34.3 QUESTIONS WITH AUXILIARY VERBS

For questions including an auxiliary verb, such as “have,” “will,” and “could,” the subject and the auxiliary verb swap places. The main verb stays where it is.

She has finished work.

Has she finished work?

Auxiliary comes first.

Main verb doesn’t move.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Could you tell me where the stadium is, please?

Should we have called ahead before coming?

Have they decided when they’re going to get married yet?

Will you have finished that report by tomorrow?

If a question has more than one auxiliary verb, only the first one moves.
Questions in the present simple without the verb “be” or an auxiliary verb start with “do” or “does” and have the main verb in its base form. The subject and main verb do not swap around.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- **Do** they live in Paris?
- **Do** you speak English?
- **Do** I know you?
- **Don’t** you have any vegetarian food on the menu?
- **Does** he get up very early every morning?
- **Does** your father work on a farm?
- **Does** she still play the piano?
- **Doesn’t** this office have air conditioning?

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“DO / DOES”</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>BASE FORM OF VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>I / you / we / they</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>in an office?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does</td>
<td>he / she / it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
34.5 QUESTIONS WITH “DID”

Questions in the past simple without the verb “be” or an auxiliary verb start with “did” and have the main verb in its base form. The subject and main verb do not swap places.

Past simple statement.

They bought a new car.

Did they buy a new car?

“Did” is the past simple form of “do.”

The main verb is in its base form.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Did they have a good time?  Did she meet her friends in town?

Did you read a book on the beach?  Did he go to the gym?

Did I tell you the good news?  Did Jack just get fired?

Did you swim in the sea?  Didn't we meet at the conference last year in Paris?

COMMON MISTAKES BASE FORMS IN QUESTIONS WITH “DO”

When questions are formed with the auxiliary verb “do,” the main verb must be in the base form.

Does she work in a school?  ✓

Does she works in a school?  ✗

Did they buy a new car?  ✓

Did they bought a new car?  ✗
Open questions are questions that do not have simple “yes” or “no” answers. In English, they are formed by using question words.

### 35.1 QUESTION WORDS

There are nine common question words in English.

- **What** is used to ask questions about things.
  - *What is the time?*

- **When** is used to ask questions about time.
  - *When is dinner?*

- **Why** is used to ask for reasons.
  - *Why are you mad?*

- **Where** is used to ask about places or directions.
  - *Where is the café?*

- **Who** is used to ask about people.
  - *Who is Jo’s teacher?*

- **Whom** is a formal version of “who,” that can only be used as an object of a question.
  - *Whom did you give the package to?*

- **How** is used to ask about a condition, or the way something is done.
  - *How are you?*

- **How busy is she?**

- **Which** is used to ask someone to specify between two or more named things.
  - *Which car is yours?*

- **Whose** is used to ask who is the owner of something.
  - *Whose cat is this?*

See also:
- Forming questions 34
- Prepositions of time 107

Further examples:
- “When” asks about the specific time something happens. “How often” asks about frequency.

*Further Examples*
35.2 “WHAT / WHICH”

“What” is used when the question is general. “Which” is used when there are two or more possibilities in the question.

There are no choices in the question.

**What** is the tallest building in the world?

The question includes a choice of possible answers.

**Which** building is taller, Big Ben or the Eiffel Tower?

35.3 “HOW OFTEN” AND “WHEN”

“How often” is used to ask about the frequency with which someone does an activity. “When” is used to ask about the specific time that they do something.

“How often” asks about frequency.

**How often** do you go on vacation?

I usually go on vacation once a year.

“When” asks about the specific time something happens.

**When** do you go running?

I go on Thursday nights.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

**What** is the highest mountain in the Alps?

Which mountain is higher, the Matterhorn or Mont Blanc?

**What** sort of food do you like?

Which do you prefer, the red skirt or the blue skirt?

FURTHER EXAMPLES

**How often** do you go to the beach?

Not very often.

**When** do you go to the gym?

On Tuesdays and Fridays.
Open questions can’t be answered with “yes” or “no.” They are formed differently depending on the main verb of the question.

### 36.1 OPEN QUESTIONS WITH “BE”

If the main verb of the sentence is “be,” the question word goes at the beginning of the question and the form of “be” goes straight after it.

My name is Sarah.

**What is your name?**

“Be” comes after the question word.

The question is “open” because it can’t be answered “yes” or “no.”

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **What is Ruby’s job?**
- **Where were you last night?**
- **What is this thing?**
- **How was the concert?**
- **Why are we all here?**
- **Why aren’t you at school?**

### HOW TO FORM

**QUESTION WORD**

| What |

**“BE”**

| is |

**REST OF SENTENCE**

| your name? |

See also:

- Present simple 1
- Question words 35
- Verbs 49
### 36.2 OPEN QUESTIONS WITH OTHER VERBS

For all questions except those formed with “be,” the question word is followed by an auxiliary verb. If there is already an auxiliary verb in the sentence, it is also used in the question. If there is no auxiliary verb, a form of “do” is added.

**Who should I call?**

- This auxiliary verb is already in the sentence, so it stays in the question.

**When do you eat lunch?**

- Auxiliary “do” follows the question word.
- The question word goes at the beginning.
- The main verb changes to its base form.

---

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTION WORD</th>
<th>AUXILIARY VERB</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>MAIN VERB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>eat lunch?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>did</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>should</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **Where do you go swimming?**
- **Where could he have gone?**
- **What does she do on the weekend?**
- **How did this happen?**
- **Which car do you drive to work?**
- **Who can speak English here?**
- **When does he finish work?**
- **What should I do now?**
- **Why did you stay up so late?**
- **When did you get a cat?**
Object and subject questions

There are two kinds of question: object questions and subject questions. They are formed in different ways and are used to ask about different things.

**37.1 OBJECT QUESTIONS**

Use object questions to ask who received an action, not who did the action. They are called object questions because the question word is the object of the main verb.

The answer is the object of the question.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**What did he eat?**

He ate steak and salad.

**Who did you speak to?**

I spoke to Jane.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>AUXILIARY</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>VERB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>eat?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>know?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Different question words can be used here.

The auxiliary tells you whether the question is talking about the past or the present.

See also:
Present simple 1  Types of verbs 49  Verbs with objects 53
37.2 SUBJECT QUESTIONS

Subject questions are used to ask who did an action. They are called subject questions because the question word is the subject of the main verb. They do not use the auxiliary verb “do.”

Question doesn’t use “did.”

Who called the bank?

Ben called the bank.

The answer is the subject of the question.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Who paid the staff?

The boss paid the staff.

What broke the window?

The ball broke the window.

HOW TO FORM

“Who” and “what” are the most common pronouns used in subject questions.

Subject questions do not use an auxiliary verb and the word order stays the same as in a normal statement.

COMMON MISTAKES OBJECT AND SUBJECT QUESTIONS

Object questions must use a form of the auxiliary “do.”

“Did” is the auxiliary verb in this object question.

What did you see? ✓

What saw you? ✗

Do not use inversion to form object questions.

Subject questions do not use an auxiliary verb and the word order stays the same as in a normal statement.

Who called the bank? ✓

Who did call the bank? ✗

“Do” is only used as an auxiliary verb when forming object questions.
Indirect questions are more polite than direct questions. They are very common in formal spoken English, particularly when asking for information.

### 38.1 INDIRECT OPEN QUESTIONS

Indirect questions often start with a polite opening phrase. After the question word, the word order in indirect questions is the same as in positive statements.

**How to Form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OPENING PHRASE</th>
<th>QUESTION WORD</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>VERB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you know</td>
<td>where</td>
<td>the station</td>
<td>is?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could you tell me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A polite opening phrase comes first.

**Further Examples**

- *Do you know how much the tickets will cost?*
- *Could you tell me why you were late?*
- *Could you tell me what time the stores close?*

Indirect questions leave out the auxiliary verb "do."
38.2 INDIRECT CLOSED QUESTIONS

Indirect closed questions are formed using “if” or “whether.” In this context, “if” and “whether” mean the same thing.

Do you know if that restaurant is expensive?

Could you tell me whether the train is on time?

HOW TO FORM

A polite opening phrase comes first.

OPENING PHRASE

“IF / WHETHER”

SUBJECT

VERB

REST OF SENTENCE

Could you tell me if it is raining outside?

COMMON MISTAKES WORD ORDER WITH INDIRECT QUESTIONS

When a question has an opening phrase, the word order in indirect questions is the same as in a statement. There is no inversion, and “do” is not added.

Could you tell me where the station is? ✓

Could you tell me where is the station? ❌

Could you tell me when you close? ✓

Could you tell me when do you close? ❌
In spoken English, small questions are often added to the ends of sentences. These are called question tags, and they are most often used to invite someone to agree.

**39.1 QUESTION TAGS USING “BE”**

The simplest question tags use the verb “be” with a pronoun matching the subject of the sentence.

**STATEMENT**

The music is very loud,

**QUESTION TAG**

isn’t it?

---

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- You’re cold, aren’t you?
- I’m late, aren’t I?
- He was tall, wasn’t he?
- I’m not talking too much, am I?

---

**HOW TO FORM**

A positive statement is followed by a negative question tag, and a negative statement is followed by a positive question tag.

**POSITIVE STATEMENT**

The music is very loud,

Verb is positive.

**NEGATIVE QUESTION TAG**

isn’t it?

Question tag uses negative form of verb.

**NEGATIVE STATEMENT**

The music isn’t very loud,

Verb is negative.

**POSITIVE QUESTION TAG**

is it?

Question tag uses positive form of verb.

---

**TIP**

Question tags are mostly used in informal situations.
**39.2 QUESTION TAGS USING AUXILIARY VERBS**

For most verbs other than “be,” a present simple statement is followed by a question tag with “do” or “does.”

A past simple statement is followed by a question tag with “did.”

A statement with an auxiliary verb is followed by a question tag with the same auxiliary verb.

Statements with modal verbs such as “could,” “would,” and “should” are followed by question tags that use the same modal verb.

**39.3 INTONATION WITH QUESTION TAGS**

If the intonation goes up at the end of the question tag, it is a question requiring an answer.

You’d like to move offices, wouldn’t you?  
[I am asking whether or not you would like to move offices.]

If the intonation goes down at the end of a question tag, the speaker is just inviting the listener to agree.

You’ve already met Evelyn, haven’t you?  
[I already know you’ve met Evelyn.]
Short questions are a way of showing interest during conversation. They’re used to keep conversation going, rather than to ask for new information.

### 40.1 SHORT QUESTIONS

Short questions must be in the same tense as the statement they’re responding to. If the statement is positive, the short question should be positive and vice versa. The subject from the statement is replaced with the relevant pronoun.

**It’s Tom’s birthday today.**

**Is it?**

For statements using “be,” the short question uses the same form of “be.”

**I play golf every weekend.**

**Do you?**

For other verbs, a form of “do” is used.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

**I am going to visit my parents next week.**

**Are you?**

“I am” becomes “are you” because it is directed back at the speaker.

**I went to a party last night.**

**Did you?**

The past simple of “do” is used to match “went,” which is the past simple of “go.”

**Rob wasn’t in the office this morning.**

**Wasn’t he?**

The negative is used to match the statement.

**My son studies every night.**

**Does he?**

The third person form “does” is used to match “studies.”
40.2 SHORT QUESTIONS WITH AUXILIARY VERBS

If a statement contains an auxiliary verb, including modal verbs, that auxiliary verb is repeated in the short question.

I have just come back from Hawaii.

Here, “have” is an auxiliary verb forming the present perfect.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I couldn’t wait to come to work today.

The train should be here by now.

I’ve been working since 7am.

I can’t find my car keys.

Could you?

Should it?

Have you?

Can’t you?

40.3 SHORT QUESTIONS IN US ENGLISH

In US English, short questions are sometimes not inverted.

Roger is starting a new job tomorrow.

My team didn’t win the game last night.

He is?

They didn’t?

The subject and verb are not inverted, but this is said with a rising intonation.
Short answers

When answering closed questions in English, some words can often be left out to make responses shorter. These short answers are often used in spoken English.

**41.1 SHORT ANSWERS**

When the question uses the verb “be,” “be” is used in the same tense in the short answer. When the question uses the auxiliary verb “do,” “do” is used in the same tense in the short answer.

Question uses “be.”

Are you a doctor?

Yes, I am.

No, I’m not.

“A doctor” doesn’t need to be repeated in the answer.

Question uses “do.”

Do you like coffee?

Yes, I do.

No, I don’t.

“Like coffee” doesn’t need to be repeated in the answer.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Is your name Sophie?

Yes, it is.

Are you having fun?

Yes, I am.

Was the train on time?

No, it wasn’t.

Does he live here?

Yes, he does.

Do you like cake?

Yes, I do.

Did you enjoy the play?

No, I didn’t.

See also:

Present simple 1  Types of verbs 49
Modal verbs 56  “There” 85
41.2 SHORT ANSWERS WITH AUXILIARY VERBS

When the question uses an auxiliary verb, including modal verbs, the same auxiliary verb is used in the short answer.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- **Would you like to play chess?** Yes, I would.
- **Have they bought a new car?** No, they haven’t.
- **Should I sell my house?** Yes, you should.
- **Will he be at the party later?** No, he won’t.

**COMMON MISTAKES SHORT ANSWERS WITH AUXILIARY VERBS**

If a question uses an auxiliary verb, including modal verbs, it must be used in the short answer. The main verb should not be used at all.

**41.3 SHORT ANSWERS WITH “THERE”**

When the question uses “there,” it is also used in the answer.

- **Is there a hotel in the town?** Yes, there is. No, there isn’t. (Short for: “No, there isn’t a hotel in the town.”)
- **Are there hotels in the town?** Yes, there are. No, there aren’t.
42 Questions overview

42.1 FORMING QUESTIONS
Questions in English are formed either by swapping the positions of the subject and the verb, or by using the auxiliary verb “do.”

Tania is a pharmacist.
Is Tania a pharmacist?

The subject and “be” swap places.

42.2 SUBJECT AND OBJECT QUESTIONS
Questions in English are formed differently depending on whether they are asking who or what did an action or who or what received an action.

STATEMENT

Subject

Ben called the bank.

Object

Subject questions ask who did an action. The question word is the subject of the main verb. They do not use the auxiliary verb “do.”

Object questions ask who received an action. The question word is the object of the question. They usually use the auxiliary verb “do.”
Questions in English are formed in different ways depending on the main verb. Open and closed questions are formed differently, and spoken with different intonation.

**Closed questions** can only be answered with “yes” or “no.” When they are spoken, the voice often rises at the end of the question.

**Open questions** are formed by adding question words to the start of the question. They can be answered in many different ways. The tone of the speaker’s voice usually falls at the end of open questions.

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**See also:**
- Forming questions 34
- Question words 35
- Question tags 39
- Short questions 40
The words that people say are called direct speech. Reported speech is often used to describe what someone said at an earlier point in time.

**43.1 REPORTED SPEECH**

The main verb in reported speech is usually “said.” The reported verb is usually in a different tense from the direct speech.

Direct speech uses the present simple.

Luke *said* that he *felt* sick. I hope he’s OK.

“That” is usually added after “said” in reported speech. Reported speech uses the past simple for the reported verb.

The subject of the direct speech, “I,” becomes “he.”

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

*Your house is really beautiful.*

She *said* our house *was* really beautiful.

*Your suit looks great.*

He *said* that my suit *looked* great.

**HOW TO FORM**

The person who said the direct speech. Past simple of “say.” The subject of the direct speech. “I” becomes “he.” Present simple in direct speech becomes past simple in reported speech.

Luke *said* that he *felt* sick.
43.2 “TELL” IN REPORTED SPEECH

In reported speech, “tell” can also be used as the main verb. It must be followed by an object, which shows who someone is talking to.

He told me that he wanted to learn to drive.

“Tell” must be followed by an object.

“Say” does not need to be followed by an object.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

She told me that she was at the party.

She told me that she had a very stressful job.

He told us he arrived late to the meeting.

They told us they bought a new house.

I told her that I went abroad last year.

We told them that we didn’t want it.

“Told” can also be left out in reported speech with “told.”

COMMON MISTAKES “SAID” AND “TELL” IN REPORTED SPEECH

He said that he had a fast car. ✓

He told me that he had a fast car. ✓

He said me that he had a fast car. ✗

He told that he had a fast car. ✗

“Told” must have an object.

“Said” cannot have an object.
In reported speech, the reported verb usually “goes back” a tense. Time and place references and pronouns sometimes also change.

### 44.1 REPORTED SPEECH IN DIFFERENT TENSES

The tense used in reported speech is usually one tense back in time from the tense in direct speech.

**Present Continuous**

- **Direct Speech:** *I’m working in New York.*
- **Reported Speech:** *She said she was working in New York.*

**Past Continuous**

- **Direct Speech:** *I’ve been to China twice.*
- **Reported Speech:** *He said that he’d been to China twice.*

**Present Perfect**

- **Direct Speech:** *I will call you soon.*
- **Reported Speech:** *He said he would call them soon.*

**Future with “Will”**

- **Direct Speech:** *We can speak Japanese.*
- **Reported Speech:** *They said that they could speak Japanese.*

See also:
- Present continuous 4
- Past continuous 10
- Past perfect simple 13
- Modal verbs 56
44.2 REPORTED SPEECH AND THE PAST SIMPLE

The past simple in direct speech can either stay as the past simple or change to the past perfect in reported speech. The meaning is the same.

**DIRECT SPEECH WITH PAST SIMPLE**

I arrived in Delhi on Saturday.

**REPORTED SPEECH WITH PAST SIMPLE OR PAST PERFECT**

He said \{he arrived \textit{he'd arrived}\} in Delhi on Saturday.

44.3 REPORTED SPEECH WITHOUT CHANGE OF TENSE

If the situation described is ongoing, the verb does not have to change tense in reported speech.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Your hat \textit{looks} great.

He said that my hat \textit{looks} great.

I love your tie.

He said that he \textit{loves} my tie.
44.4 TIME AND PLACE REFERENCES

If speech is reported some time after it was said, words used to talk about times and places may need to change.

The time reference is "yesterday" in direct speech.

I went to work yesterday.

She said she’d been to work the day before.

The time reference is "the day before" in reported speech.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I’ll call you tomorrow.

He said he’d call me the following day.

The weather is nice here.

She told me the weather was nice there.

We’ll have a party this weekend.

They said they’d have a party that weekend.

I saw you last week.

She said she’d seen me the week before.

I’m starting a new job today.

You told her you were starting a new job that day.
In reported speech, pronouns may also need to be changed to ensure they refer to the correct person or thing.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

1. **I don’t believe these ghost stories.**
   
   He said that he didn’t believe **those** ghost stories.
   
   *“These” is replaced by the more distant “those.”*

2. **This house gives me the creeps.**
   
   He said that **that** house gave him the creeps.
   
   *“This” is replaced by the more distant “that.”*

3. **I don’t like my new haircut.**
   
   He said that he didn’t like **his** new haircut.

4. **I can’t wait to move into our new house.**
   
   He said that he couldn’t wait to move into **their** new house.

5. **Are you going to come with **us**?**
   
   He asked if I was going to go with **them**.

6. **These are the best pastries I’ve ever tasted.**
   
   She said **they** were the best pastries she’d ever tasted.
In reported speech, “said” can be replaced with a wide variety of verbs that give people more information about how someone said something.

### 45.1 REPORTING VERBS WITH “THAT”

“Say” and “tell” do not give any information about the speaker’s manner. They can be replaced with other verbs that suggest the speaker’s mood or reason for speaking.

> I’m not very good at golf.

Neil admitted that he wasn’t very good at golf.

Shows unwillingness on the part of the speaker.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

Don’t be afraid of the dog. He’s just excited to see you.

They explained that the dog was barking because he was excited to see me.

Your house is beautiful. It has a nice lawn, too.

Rohit admired our house, and added that it had a nice lawn.

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>REPORTING VERB (PAST TENSE)</th>
<th>“THAT”</th>
<th>PAST TENSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neil</td>
<td>admitted</td>
<td>that</td>
<td>he wasn’t very good at golf.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verb introduces reported speech and gives more information about it.

Verb is followed by “that.”

Reported speech changes tense as usual.

See also:
- Present simple 1
- Past simple 7
- Types of verbs 49
REPORTING VERBS WITH OBJECT AND INFINITIVE

Some reporting verbs are followed by an object and an infinitive. English often uses these verbs to report orders, advice, and instructions.

**How to Form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Reporting verb (past tense)</th>
<th>Object</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Rest of sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ellie</td>
<td>reminded</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>to buy</td>
<td>some milk.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The object shows who was being spoken to. The infinitive usually expresses an order, instruction, or piece of advice.

**Further Examples**

- **Remember to buy some milk tonight.**
  - Ellie reminded me to buy some milk tonight.
- **You’ve been very naughty! Go to your room.**
  - I just ordered Aaron to go to his room.
- **Could you please give me a ride to the station?**
  - Sorry I’m late. Lucia asked me to give her a ride to the station.
- **Come to the party! You’ll have a great time!**
  - We encouraged Gareth to come to the party. I hope he turns up.
REPORTED NEGATIVE AUXILIARIES

When the direct speech is negative using "do not," "is not," and "has not," "do," "is," or "has" changes tense, rather than the main verb.

**I don’t work on weekends.**

He said he **didn’t** work on weekends.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

I **don’t** want to drive. I’d rather walk.

Sue said she **didn’t** want to drive. She’d rather walk.

The car **isn’t** starting.

They **told me the car wasn’t** starting.

They **haven’t** arrived on time because of the car.

Fay said they **hadn’t** arrived on time because of the car.

See also:
Present simple negative 2
Past simple negative 8  Types of verbs 49
46.2 REPORTING OTHER VERBS WITH NEGATIVES

If a reporting verb is followed by an object and an infinitive, “not” goes between the object and the infinitive to form the negative.

You shouldn’t sign the contract.

Our lawyer advised me not to sign the contract.

“Not” makes the reported speech negative.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Don’t eat any more cake. It’s bad for you.

I think I persuaded Evan not to eat any more cake.

Don’t go in the water. It’s dangerous.

The lifeguard warned me not to go in the water.

I don’t think you should stand so near the edge.

My friend warned me not to stand near the edge.

You must not lose your passport while you’re away.

My dad reminded me not to lose my passport.

Don’t draw on the walls!

My dad told me not to draw on the walls.
Reported questions are used to describe questions that someone has asked. Direct questions and reported questions use different word orders.

### 47.1 REPORTED OPEN QUESTIONS

Direct open questions are reported by swapping the order of the subject and the verb.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**WHEN A DIRECT QUESTION USES THE VERB “DO,” THIS IS LEFT OUT OF REPORTED QUESTIONS.**

It is incorrect to swap the verb and object in reported questions.

**COMMON MISTAKES**

**WORD ORDER IN REPORTED QUESTIONS**

The subject comes before the verb in reported questions.

The tense in reported questions usually moves one tense back from the tense in direct questions.

**THE TENSE IN REPORTED QUESTIONS USUALLY MOVES ONE TENSE BACK FROM DIRECT SPEECH.**

The main verb in reported questions is usually “ask.”

The object can be left out.

The subject comes before the verb in reported questions.

The tense moves one tense back from direct speech.

The object of the reporting verb can be left out.

**HOW TO FORM**

Adam asked me where his keys were. Have you seen them?

The tense in reported questions usually moves one tense back from the tense in direct questions.

An object can be included to say who was asked the original question.

The object of the reporting verb can be left out.

The subject comes before the verb in reported questions.

The tense moves one tense back from direct speech.

See also:
Forming questions 34
Open questions 36 Types of verbs 49
47.2 REPORTING QUESTIONS WITH "DO"

When a direct question uses the verb "do," this is left out of reported questions.

*Let's bake a cake. What do we need?*

*He asked me what we needed.*

Reported questions leave out the auxiliary verb "do." The past form of the verb is usually used.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

*Why do you want to work for us?*  
They asked me why I *wanted* to work for them.

*What do you think?*  
He asked me what I *thought.*

*What does a florist do?*  
James asked me what a florist *does.*

*Where do Jay and Seb live?*  
Paul asked me where Jay and Seb *live.*

*Who do you know at work?*  
She asked who I *knew* at work.

*What do you usually knit?*  
He asked me what I usually *knit.*

COMMON MISTAKES WORD ORDER IN REPORTED QUESTIONS

It is incorrect to swap the verb and object in reported questions.

*He asked me where the station is.* ✅

*He asked me where is the station.* ❌
If the answer to a question in direct speech is “yes” or “no,” “if” or “whether” is used to report the question. “Whether” is more formal than “if.”

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“ASKED”</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>“IF / WHETHER”</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My boss</td>
<td>asked</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>if</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>meeting my sales targets.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The object can be left out.

“If” and “whether” mean the same thing, but “whether” is more formal.
REPORTING QUESTIONS WITH “OR”

“if” or “whether” can also be used to report questions that use “or” in direct speech.

Does Jo want tea or coffee?

Jo, Tom asked me if you wanted tea or coffee.

The verb changes tense.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Do you want to go by car or by train?

He asked whether we wanted to go by car or by train.

Do you prefer wine or champagne?

Jo asked me if I preferred wine or champagne.

Did you choose to ski or snowboard?

He asked whether I chose to ski or snowboard.

Did you decide to walk or run?

Harry asked if I decided to walk or run.
48.1 CHANGING REFERENCES IN REPORTED SPEECH

Certain words have variable reference, which means their meaning is context-dependent. In order to retain the meaning of the direct speech, reported speech usually revises tenses, pronouns, and time references.

48.2 REPORTING VERBS IN THE PRESENT TENSE

The reporting verb can be in the present tense. In this case, the tense of the sentence doesn’t change.

- I don’t like ice cream.
  - She says she doesn’t like ice cream.
- I’ve never tried ice cream.
  - She tells me she’s never tried ice cream.
When forming reported speech from direct speech, some words change in order to keep the meaning consistent. Other words stay the same.

**48.3 REPORTING MODAL VERBS**

Most modal verbs, except for “will” and “can,” behave differently from other verbs. No matter what the tense of the direct speech, they don’t change in reported speech.

- **I might buy some ice cream.**
  - She said she **might** buy some ice cream.
    - The modal verb is the same as in direct speech.

- **I could have bought one.**
  - She said she **could** have bought one.
    - The reported verb also doesn’t change from direct speech.
Types of verbs

Verbs can be described as main verbs or auxiliary verbs. Main verbs describe actions, occurrences, or states of being. Auxiliary verbs modify the meaning of main verbs.

49.1 MAIN VERBS

Main verbs are the most important verbs in a sentence. They can describe actions or states, or they can be used to link a subject to a description.

"Play" is the main verb that describes an action.

I play tennis every Wednesday evening.

49.2 AUXILIARY VERBS

Auxiliary verbs are used with main verbs to modify their meaning. Auxiliary verbs are used very frequently to form different tenses.

The auxiliary verb “do” is used to make questions and negatives of statements that don’t already have an auxiliary verb.

Modal verbs are also auxiliary verbs. They modify the meaning of the main verb, expressing various notions such as possibility or obligation.
49.3 Linking Verbs

Linking verbs express a state of being or becoming. They link a subject to a complement, which renames or describes the subject.

The children are happy.

Subject Complement

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Harry looks just like his father.

This seems like a lovely place to live.

Whatever you’re cooking smells delicious!

After leaving school, she became a teacher.

49.4 Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Some verbs take an object, which is a noun or phrase that receives the action of the verb. Verbs which take an object are known as transitive verbs.

Some verbs never take an object. These verbs are known as intransitive verbs.

Some verbs can be either transitive or intransitive.

Some verbs can take two objects, a direct object and an indirect object.
Verbs that describe actions or events are known as “action” or “dynamic” verbs, whereas those that describe states are known as “state” or “stative” verbs.

**ACTION AND STATE VERBS**

Action verbs usually describe what people or things do. State verbs usually say how things are or how someone feels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTION VERB</th>
<th>STATE VERB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I read a book.</td>
<td>I love books.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Action verbs can be used in simple forms and continuous forms.
- State verbs are not usually used in the continuous form.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Dominic is eating ice cream.
- Gayle is lying on the couch.
- I don’t eat meat. I’m a vegetarian.
- I want to go away somewhere.
- She has two cats and a dog.
- We’ve known each other for years.

**COMMON MISTAKES USING STATE VERBS IN CONTINUOUS TENSES**

Most state verbs cannot be used in continuous forms.

- I want a new laptop. ✓
- I am wanting a new laptop. ✗

State verbs are only usually used in the simple form.
50.2 USING STATE VERBS IN CONTINUOUS FORMS

Some verbs can be both action and state verbs. When these verbs are describing an action, they can be used in continuous forms.

---

**ACTION**

I am thinking about taking up fencing.
[Right now, I’m considering taking up fencing.]

The chef was tasting his soup.
[The chef is testing the soup’s flavor.]

I’m seeing some friends for lunch tomorrow.
[I’m meeting some friends tomorrow.]

**STATE**

I think fencing is a great sport.
[In my opinion, fencing is a great sport.]

This soup tasted disgusting!
[The soup has a disgusting flavor.]

I saw some birds at the park yesterday.
[There were some birds at the park.]

---

A few state verbs can be used in continuous forms, keeping their stative meaning. The use of a continuous form emphasizes a change, development, or temporary situation.

---

**CONTINUOUS FORM**

Are you feeling better today?
You seemed sick yesterday.

We’re sounding much better than usual!

My leg is really hurting this morning.

**SIMPLE FORM**

How do you feel about modern art?

I wish they’d stop. They sound terrible!

My leg hurts. Maybe I should go to the doctor.
Infinitives and participles are forms of verbs that are rarely used on their own, but are important when making other forms or constructions.

### 51.1 INFINITIVES

The infinitive is the simplest form of the verb. English verbs have two types of infinitive.

Sometimes the infinitive is formed with “to” plus the verb. This is sometimes known as a “full” or “to” infinitive.

When the infinitive is formed without “to,” it is known as the base or simple form, or the bare infinitive.

### 51.2 PRESENT PARTICIPLES AND GERUNDS

Present participles and gerunds are formed by adding “-ing” to the base form of the verb. They are spelled the same, but they perform different functions in a sentence.

Present participles are most commonly used with auxiliary verbs to form continuous tenses.

Gerunds are verbs that are used as nouns. They are sometimes known as verbal nouns.

---

See also:
Present continuous 4
Present perfect simple 11
All present participles and gerunds are formed by adding “-ing” to the base form of the verb. The spelling of some base forms changes slightly before adding “-ing.”

PRESENT PARTICIPLE AND GERUND SPELLING RULES

- Last letters are consonant–vowel–consonant and the final syllable is stressed.
- Last letter is a silent “-e.”
- Main verb.
- Last letter is “-ie.”
- The “-ie” changes to “y.”
- The last letter doubles, unless it’s “w,” “x,” or “y.”
- The last letter of the verb doesn’t double if it’s “y.”
- The “-e” is dropped from the verb.
- The last letter is not doubled because “per” is not stressed.
- The last letter is doubled because the pattern is consonant–vowel–consonant.
- The “-e” is left out and “-ing” is added.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

- They’re whispering to each other.
- She’s swimming in the ocean.
- Connor went walking in the hills.
- Sarah loves riding her horse.
- Stop wasting so much paper!
- The children were sitting on the floor.
- I’m choosing the new intern.
- I’m enjoying my vacation.
- He’s making a cake.
- Paul was told off for lying.
- The audience started clapping.
- She started looking for a new job.
51.4 PAST PARTICIPLES
Past participles are used with auxiliary verbs to form perfect simple tenses, such as the present perfect simple.

51.5 SPELLING RULES FOR PAST PARTICIPLES
Regular past participles are made with the base form of the verb plus “-ed.” The spelling of some of these base forms changes a bit before adding “-ed.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I should have covered my work. Susanna has copied all my answers.

You haven’t passed the exam this time, but at least you have improved.

I had planned to take the kids to the beach, but the weather’s terrible.

By this time next week, I will have finished all of my assignments.

My boss has asked me to come in early again tomorrow. I’m so tired!
Many verbs in English have irregular past participle forms. They often look quite different from their base form.

I buy new clothes every month.

I have just bought a new coat.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>been</td>
<td>You’re late. Where have you been?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>become</td>
<td>become</td>
<td>This has become a real problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>begun</td>
<td>The class has already begun, so be quiet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose</td>
<td>chosen</td>
<td>Which subjects have you chosen to study?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>done</td>
<td>My son has done a lot for the local community.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feel</td>
<td>felt</td>
<td>I haven’t felt very well for over a week now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>know</td>
<td>known</td>
<td>Sonia would have known how to solve this problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>The police have found the suspect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>forgotten</td>
<td>My husband has forgotten our anniversary again.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>gone</td>
<td>Helen has gone to Peru. She’ll be back next week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>You look so different! Have you had a haircut?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>I have made a cake for your birthday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>say</td>
<td>said</td>
<td>Jerry has said he’ll be making a presentation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>seen</td>
<td>After this evening, I’ll have seen this show six times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sing</td>
<td>sung</td>
<td>This will be the first time she’s sung in public.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell</td>
<td>told</td>
<td>Has anyone told you the news? Kate’s pregnant!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand</td>
<td>understood</td>
<td>Has everyone understood the instructions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>written</td>
<td>I sent the email as soon as I had written it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some verbs in English can only go with a gerund or an infinitive. Some verbs can go with either. These verbs often describe wishes, plans, or feelings.

**52.1 VERBS WITH INFINITIVES**

English uses the infinitive with “to” after certain verbs that describe someone’s plans or wishes to do an activity.

They arranged to play tennis.

Main verb describes a plan or wish to do an activity.

Infinitive with “to” describes the activity.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The infinitive doesn’t change no matter what the tense of the main verb is.

- I’m waiting to play badminton, but my friend is running late.
- We wanted to play baseball yesterday, but it was raining.
- My car broke down, but my friend offered to drive me home.
- Ron decided to learn how to play the trombone.

**OTHER VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES**

refuse — claim — decide — intend — fail
learn — pretend — need — want — have
plan — arrange — agree — seem — offer

See also:
Types of verbs 49
Infinitives and participles 51
English uses gerunds after certain verbs that say how a person feels about an activity.

**VERBS WITH GERUNDS**

The verb describes feelings about an activity.

The word for the activity is in gerund form.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- He doesn’t **feel like** playing tennis tonight.
- We really **dislike** jogging. We’re so out of shape!
- Do you **miss** skiing now that summer is here?
- I really **enjoy** running marathons.
- Would you **consider** applying for a promotion?
- He doesn’t **mind** staying late at work when he has to.

**OTHER VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS**

- admit
- mind
- enjoy
- allow
- consider
- dislike
- finish
- deny
- suggest
- discuss
- delay
- appreciate
- miss
- avoid
- keep
Some verbs can be followed by a gerund (an “-ing” form) or a “to” infinitive, with little or no change in meaning. You can often use both forms interchangeably.

I like {to work working} in an open-plan office with a team.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Emails are really awkward. I prefer {to meet meeting} in person.
- After a short stop, they continued {to drive driving} toward the campsite.
- Once she had found a seat, she began {to write writing} her essay.
- Why isn’t the bus here yet? I really can’t stand {to be being} late.

**OTHER VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVE OR GERUND (NO CHANGE IN MEANING)**

prefer  start  love  can’t bear  can’t stand

propose  intend

neglect  continue

like  begin  hate
Some verbs change their meaning depending on the form of the verb that follows them. The infinitive is used to describe the purpose of the main verb’s action. The gerund is often used to talk about the action which is happening around the same time as the main verb’s action.

**VERBS FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVE OR GERUND (CHANGE IN MEANING)**

He stopped to talk to her in the office before lunch.

[He was walking around the office, and he stopped walking so that he could talk to her.]

She stopped talking to him and rushed to a meeting.

[She was talking to him, and she stopped talking in order to do something else.]

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**VERB + INFINITIVE**

She forgot to send the email, so her team never received the update.

[She did not send the email.]

He went on to write the report once the meeting had finished.

[He finished a meeting and then wrote the report.]

I regret to tell you the unhappy news. Your flight has been delayed.

[I have to tell you unhappy news, and I am sorry about this.]

Did you remember to meet David? Your meeting was scheduled for today.

[You were supposed to meet David. Did you remember to do that?]
53 Verb patterns with objects

Some verbs, known as transitive verbs, have objects. When these verbs are followed by infinitives or gerunds, the object must come between the verb and the infinitive or gerund.

See also:
Types of verbs 49
Infinitives and participles 51

53.1 VERB WITH OBJECT AND INFINITIVE

Some verbs that are followed by an infinitive must also have an object before that infinitive.

VERB + OBJECT + INFINITIVE

My computer allows me to work on two screens at once.

HOW TO FORM

SUBJECT
VERB
OBJECT
INFINITIVE
REST OF SENTENCE

My computer allows me to work on two screens.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Emma’s brother wants her to turn down the television.

Giorgio bought a new suit to wear to his brother’s wedding.

The building manager will tell you to leave the building if there’s a fire.

Helena’s mother is always reminding her to do the dishes.

Jonathan’s teacher expects him to do better next time.

I’ve asked my boyfriend to buy some bread and milk on his way home.
When the verb “want” is followed by an object and an infinitive, it is not formed with a “that” clause.

```
I want him to come to the exhibit with me. ✓

I want that he comes to the exhibit with me. ✗
```

“Want” should be followed by an object and infinitive.

“Want” can’t be followed by a “that” clause.

### 53.2 VERB + OBJECT + GERUND PATTERNS

Some verbs that are followed by a gerund must also have an object before that gerund.

```
Hayley heard the boss interviewing the new secretary.
```

### HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>GERUND</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hayley</td>
<td>heard</td>
<td>the boss</td>
<td>interviewing</td>
<td>the new secretary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I remember Arnold leaving the house at around 10 o’clock.

- Jeremy spends every winter snowboarding in the Alps.

- I really don’t like anyone talking to me while I’m trying to study.

- My sister loves science. I can see her becoming a doctor one day.
53.3 DOUBLE OBJECT VERBS

The direct object is the person or thing that an action happens to. The indirect object receives the same action. If the indirect object is the focus of the sentence, it comes after the direct object plus “to” or “for.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Carolina sold
- her house to her younger brother.
- her younger brother her house.

Federico bought
- a car for his parents.
- his parents a car.

53.4 USING DOUBLE OBJECT VERBS WITH PRONOUNS

If the direct object is a pronoun, it must come before the indirect object.

She lent it to her son. ✔

She lent her son it. ✗

If the indirect object is a pronoun, it can come before or after the direct object.

She lent some money to him. ✔

She lent him some money. ✔

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Carolina sold
- it to her younger brother.
- it to him.
- him her house.

Federico bought
- it for his parents.
- it for them.
- them a car.
Some verb patterns include prepositions. Prepositions cannot be followed by infinitives, so these verb patterns only use gerunds.

### 54.1 VERB WITH PREPOSITION AND GERUND

If a preposition is followed by a verb, the verb must be a gerund (the “-ing” form).

- **Jasmine decided against taking the job.**

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **Zac and Penny are thinking about taking a trip around the world.**
- **My grandmother is always worrying about forgetting her house keys.**

### 54.2 VERB WITH OBJECT, PREPOSITION, AND GERUND

If a verb takes an object, that object must come between the verb and the preposition.

- **He congratulated her on winning the competition.**

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **Hilda stopped her dog from running away.**
- **I asked my mother about buying a new computer, but she said no.**
Some verbs in English have two or more words in them, and usually have a new meaning when they are used together. These are called phrasal verbs.

**55.1 PHRASAL VERBS**

Phrasal verbs have a verb plus one or more particles (prepositions or adverbs.) The particle often changes the usual meaning of the verb.

**HOW TO FORM**

The particle always comes after the verb. The verb changes form to match the subject as usual. The particle never changes form.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- You work out at the gym.
- My cat sometimes runs away.
- They don’t eat out very often.
- Do you always turn up late?
- He doesn’t go out when he’s tired.
- She chills out in the evening.
- We can check into the hotel now.
- Do they meet up most weekends?

**See also:** Verb patterns with objects 53
Prepositions 105  Separable phrasal verbs R20
Inseparable phrasal verbs R21
### PHRASAL VERBS IN DIFFERENT TENSES

When phrasal verbs are used in different tenses, the verb changes, but the particle remains the same.

- **PRESENT SIMPLE**
  - I work **out** every week.
  - I worked **out** yesterday.
  - I am working **out** right now.
  - I will work **out** tomorrow.

- **FUTURE WITH “WILL”**
  - I will **work out** tomorrow.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I cleaned **up** the kitchen last night.
- I think we’re lost! We should have **looked up** the route.
- You should **go over** your answers again.
- I can’t believe she **turned down** the job.
- I’m still **getting over** the flu.
- Their car is always **breaking down**.
- She doesn’t **dress up** very often.
- I am **counting on** Rajiv to give the presentation next week.
- I **met up** with my friends last weekend.
- When will they **grow up**?
FURTHER EXAMPLES

I turned on the light.  
I turned the light on.

Can you pick up that box?
Can you pick that box up?

You should throw away those old shoes.
You should throw those old shoes away.

I was annoyed because he woke up the baby.
I was annoyed because he woke her up.

I always fill up the water jug when it’s empty.
I always fill it up when it’s empty.

COMMON MISTAKES

If the direct object of a separable phrasal verb is a pronoun, it must go between the verb and the particle.

He picked it up.  ✔️
He picked up it.  ❌
55.4 INSEPARABLE PHRASAL VERBS

Some phrasal verbs cannot be separated. The object must always come after the particle; it can never sit between the particle and the verb. This is true whether the object is a noun or a pronoun.

The verb and the particle must stay together.

**We had to run to get on the train. ✓**

**We had to run to get the train on. ✗**

This is wrong. The object can’t sit between the verb and the particle.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I need to go over my notes.

Susan really takes after her father, they’re very similar.

I’ve come across a new recipe.

I’m taking care of my sister’s children tonight.

It’s great to hear from you!

Caterpillars turn into butterflies.

He has fallen behind the rest of the class this year.

I ran into her at the supermarket.

Drop by the house any time you like.

He sleeps in most Saturdays.

They will have to do without a trip this summer.

Get on this bus for the beach.

Get off that bicycle if you don’t have a helmet.

I am looking into visiting somewhere warm.
Three-word phrasal verbs have a verb, a particle, and a preposition. The particle and preposition often change the usual meaning of the verb.

**VERB + PARTICLE + PREPOSITION**

He looks up to his brother.

The verb changes with the subject.
The particle and preposition never change form.

**INTONATION**

In spoken English, the stress is on the middle word of a three-word phrasal verb.

**look up to**  **get along with**  **look forward to**

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**TIP**

Most, but not all, three-word phrasal verbs are inseparable.

"Get back from" can be separable or inseparable depending on the context.

When "get back from" means "to return from," it is always inseparable.

I got back from Italy yesterday.

When "get back from" means "to retrieve from" it is separable. The object must go between "get" and "back."

I need to get the lawn mower back from Tina.

We have run out of coffee, so I’ll get some more.

You’re walking too fast, I can’t keep up with you.

I must have dropped my keys when I was getting out of the car.
NOUNS BASED ON PHRASAL VERBS

Some nouns are made from phrasal verbs, often formed by joining the verb and the particle together. When these words are spoken, the stress is usually on the verb.

The teacher asked me to hand out the exam papers.

The teacher gave us a handout for the lesson.

Sometimes, the noun is formed by putting the particle in front of the verb. In these cases, the spoken stress is usually on the particle.

Oh no! It was sunny and now it’s pouring down.

We have a rainy season with daily downpours.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The company is trying to cut back on staff expenses.

It’s a shame that he wants to drop out of school.

We want to get away and go somewhere sunny this winter.

Not another cutback! The company must be in serious trouble.

We’ve had a surprisingly high percentage of dropouts in the class.

A trip to Australia sounds like a fabulous getaway.
Modal verbs are very common in English. They are used to talk about a variety of things, particularly possibilities, obligations, and deductions.

### 56.1 USES OF MODAL VERBS

English has many modal verbs. Each modal verb can be used in several different contexts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modal Verb Type</th>
<th>Example Sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ABILITY</strong></td>
<td>I can speak three languages. I can’t read Latin because it’s too difficult. I couldn’t study it when I was at school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERMISSION</strong></td>
<td>You can have more cake if you want. You may take as much as you like. Could I have another slice of cake?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REQUESTS</strong></td>
<td>Can / Could you give me a ride home later? Would you email James for me, please? Will you lock up the office tonight?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OFFERS</strong></td>
<td>Can I help you with those? May I take one of those for you? Shall I carry some of your bags?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUGGESTIONS AND ADVICE</strong></td>
<td>You should / ought to go to the doctor. You could try the new medicine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OBLIGATION</strong></td>
<td>You must arrive on time for work. You must not be late for work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LOGICAL DEDUCTIONS</strong></td>
<td>It can’t be Jane because she’s on vacation. It could / might / may be Dave. I don’t know. It must be Tom, since nobody else ever calls.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Modal verbs share certain characteristics. They don’t change form to match the subject, and they are always followed by a main verb in its base form. Their question and negative forms are made without “do.”

**MODAL VERB FORMATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>MODAL VERB</th>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You</td>
<td>can</td>
<td>play</td>
<td>the piano quite well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She / It</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We / They</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The modal verb stays the same for any subject.

The main verb stays in its base form.

Negatives are formed by adding “not” between the modal verb and main verb.

**You should** run a marathon.

**You should not** run a marathon.

Questions are usually formed by swapping the subject and the modal verb.

**They should** visit the castle.

**Should they** visit the castle?

“Ought to” and “have to” are exceptions because they use “to” before the base form. “Ought to” is a more formal way of saying “should,” and “have to” means “must.” They both act like normal verbs.

**You** {ought to have to} learn how to drive.
“Can” is a modal verb that describes what someone is able to do. It is used in different forms to describe past and present abilities.

57.1 “CAN / CANNOT / CAN’T”

“Can” goes between the subject and the main verb. The verb after “can” goes in its base form.

I can ride a bicycle.  
He can play the guitar.

“Can” is always the same. It doesn’t change with the subject.

The negative form of “can” is “cannot” or “can’t.”

I cannot sing jazz songs.  
Bob can swim well.  
They can’t lift the box.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Janet can play tennis.  
He cannot climb the tree.

TIP
The long negative form “cannot” is always spelled as one word, not two words.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“CAN / CANNOT / CAN’T”</th>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / He / She</td>
<td>can / cannot / can’t</td>
<td>ride</td>
<td>a bicycle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It / We / They</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See also:
- Present simple 1
- Future with “will” 18
**57.2 “COULD” FOR PAST ABILITIES**

“Could” is the past form of “can” and is used to talk about an ability in the past. “When” plus a time setting can be used to say when someone had the ability.

I can’t climb trees now, but I **could** when I was younger.

The time frame can be set with a phrase about an age, day, or year.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

When I was a student, I **could** study all night before an exam.

When Milo was eight, he **could** play the violin.

I couldn’t go to China last year because it was too expensive.

Last year she couldn’t run very far, but yesterday she ran a marathon.

**57.3 “CAN” IN THE FUTURE**

It is not grammatically possible to talk about the future using “can.” “Will be able to” is used instead.

At the moment, I **can** play the trombone quite well.

If I work harder, I **will be able to** play at concerts.

Unfortunately, I can’t read music very well.

If I don’t learn, I **won’t be able** to join the orchestra.

“The negative is formed with “not able to” or “unable to.”

“Will can” is incorrect.

“Will be unable to” can also be used, but it’s less common.
“Can,” “could,” and “may” are used to ask permission to do something, or to ask someone to do something for you. They can also be used to offer to help someone.

**58.1 ASKING PERMISSION AND MAKING REQUESTS**

“Can” is the most common modal verb used to ask permission or to make a request.

“Could” replaces “can” for more formal situations, such as in business or to talk to strangers.

“May” can also be used in formal situations.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- **Can** I borrow your pen?
- **Excuse me, could** you open the door for me?
- **Can** I have this in a smaller size?
- **May** I reserve a table for 7pm?
58.2 MAKING OFFERS
“Can” and “may” can also be used to offer to do something for someone.

**Can** I help you carry those?

Yes, please.

“May” is only used for formal situations.

**May** I take your coat?

Yes, thank you.

58.3 SHALL FOR OFFERS AND SUGGESTIONS
“Shall” is used to find out if someone thinks a certain suggestion is a good idea. This is not often used in US English.

That bag looks heavy. **Shall** I carry it for you?

Yes, please.

**Shall** I open the window?

Good idea. It’s far too hot in here.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

**Can** I get you a drink?

That would be lovely.

My computer’s broken again!

**Can** I help at all?

Good evening. **May** I take your order?

Yes, please.

Which way is the elevator.

It’s on the left. **May** I help you with your bags?
The modal verb “could” can be used to offer suggestions. “Could” is not as strong as “should.” It communicates gentle advice.

**59.1 “SHOULD” FOR ADVICE**

“Should” is used when the speaker wants to make a strong suggestion.

It’s very sunny. You should wear a hat.

“Should” comes before the advice.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

It might rain. You should take your umbrella with you.

You’re sick. I don’t think you should go to work today.

There’s ice on the roads. You shouldn’t drive tonight.

Which hat should I buy? They’re all so cool.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“SHOULD”</th>
<th>MAIN VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>should</td>
<td>wear</td>
<td>a hat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Should” is a modal verb, so it stays the same no matter what the subject is. “Should” is followed by the base form of the main verb.

See also:
- Conditional sentences 29
- Types of verbs 49
- Modal verbs 56
59.2 "OUGHT TO" FOR ADVICE

"Ought to" is a more formal and less common way to say "should." It is not usually used in the negative or question forms.

You \({\text{ought to}}\) wear a scarf. It’s very cold outside.

59.3 "IF I WERE YOU"

English uses "if I were you" to give advice in second conditional sentences. The advice is expressed using "I would."

If I were you, I would take it.

The advice comes after "I would."

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I’m going to the concert tonight.

If I were you, I’d leave early. The traffic is awful.

The suggestion can come first without changing the meaning.

I think I’ll buy this shirt.

I wouldn’t buy it \(\text{if I were you}\). I don’t like the pattern.

There is no comma before "if."

59.4 "HAD BETTER"

"Had better" can also be used to give very strong or urgent advice that can have a negative consequence if it is not followed.

You had better \(\text{You’d better}\) leave for school! It’s already 8.45.
“Could” is often used to suggest a solution to a problem. It states a possible course of action without necessarily recommending it.

Could means that the action is a possibility, a choice that might solve the problem.

“I hate my car!”

Well, you could get a new one!

FURTHER EXAMPLES

You could study science in college.

We could learn English in Canada next year.

If they need more space, they could buy a bigger house.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“COULD”</th>
<th>MAIN VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>could</td>
<td>get</td>
<td>a new car.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Could” is a modal verb, so it doesn’t change with the subject. The main verb stays in its base form.
When people give suggestions using “could,” they often give more than one option to choose from.

Our friends are coming over for dinner, but the oven’s broken.

We could make a salad **or** we could order a pizza.

“Or” is used to give an alternative suggestion.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I can’t decide what to make for dinner tonight.

Well, **you could make** a curry **or** lasagne.

The modal verb doesn’t have to be repeated after “or.”

What should I wear to Jan’s wedding?

You could wear your new dress **or** a skirt.

If the main verb is the same for both suggestions, it isn’t repeated after “or.”

MAKING RECOMMENDATIONS

One of the most common ways of recommending something or making a suggestion is to use modal verbs.

You **could** visit the park. It’s beautiful.

General suggestion.

You **should** **ought to** visit the castle. It’s great.

Stronger suggestion.

You **must** visit the palace. It is beautiful!

Very strong suggestion.
In English, “have to” or “must” are used when talking about obligations or things that are necessary. They are often used to give important instructions.

**OBLIGATIONS**

“Must” and “have to” both express a strong need or obligation to do something.

“Must not” is a strong negative obligation. It means something is not allowed.

“Don’t have to” means something is not necessary, or there is no obligation.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

He must take two pills each morning and evening for the next two weeks.

She must not go back to work until her back is better.

Do I have to go back to the doctor again? I’m feeling so much better now.

**HOW TO FORM**

“Must” does not change with the subject, but “have to” becomes “has to” in the third person singular. Both forms are followed by the base form of the main verb.

See also:
Future with “will” 18  Types of verbs 49
Modal verbs 56
"Must not" and "don’t have to" do not mean the same thing. "Must not" is used to give an instruction that forbids someone from doing something. "Don’t have to" is used to tell someone that it is not necessary that they do something.

You **must not** use a calculator during this exam.  
[It is against the rules to use a calculator during this exam.]

You **don’t have to** use a calculator, but it might be useful.  
[You are allowed to use a calculator, but it is not required.]

**60.2 “MUST” AND “HAVE TO” IN THE FUTURE**
There is no future form of “must.” The future of “have to” is formed with the auxiliary verb “will.”

In some countries, people **must** recycle. It’s the law.

In the future, I think everyone **will have to** recycle.

“Must not” does not have a future form. “Don’t have to” can be used in the future by changing “don’t” to “will not” or “won’t.”

One day, I hope I **will not have to** work so hard.

**60.3 “MUST” AND “HAVE TO” IN THE PAST**
There is no past form of “must.” The past tense of “have to” is used instead.

For most jobs, you **must** use a computer.

In the past, you **didn’t have to** use a computer.
Modal verbs can also be used to talk about how likely or unlikely something is. They can be used to guess and make deductions about what has happened or is happening now.

### 61.1 SPECULATION AND DEDUCTION

The modal verbs “might” and “could” are used to talk about something with uncertainty.

“Might” and “could” can be used to talk about uncertainty.

**John has a sore ankle. It** _{might could} be broken._

- The modal verb doesn’t change with the subject.
- The modal verb is usually followed by the base form of the main verb.

“Might not” is used to describe negative things that are not certain.

**It’s not very swollen, so it** _might not_ **be serious.**

- “Not” goes after the modal verb.

“Must” is often used to speculate about the present.

**John must be very bored at home. He’s usually so active.**

“Cannot” and “can’t” are used when someone is certain something is impossible.

**John’s leg** _{cannot can’t} be broken. He walked to the doctor._

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **Fay’s got a sore throat and isn’t feeling well. She** _might_ **have a cold.**
- **I was so sick last week that I couldn’t get out of bed.**
- **My eyes are itchy and I have a runny nose. It** _could_ **be hay fever.**
- **I can’t have the flu because I don’t have a high temperature.**
“Must have” with a past participle is used to speculate about the past when the speaker is sure something happened.

He just disappeared. Aliens must have taken him.

“Must” can be replaced with “may,” “might,” or “could” when the speaker is not sure whether something happened or not.

They might have taken him to another planet.

“Can’t” or “couldn’t” can be used to refer to something that the speaker is certain did not happen.

It can’t have been aliens, they don’t exist.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Bethan didn’t return my call yesterday. She must have been busy.

She might have forgotten to call me back.

She might not have written down my number correctly.

Paula can’t have been at the party last night, she was at work.

I didn’t see who knocked on the door, but it may have been the mailman.

What happened to my vase? The cat must have knocked it over.
62 Possibility

Modal verbs can be used to talk about possibility, or to express uncertainty. “Might” is the most common modal verb used for this purpose.

62.1 “MIGHT” FOR POSSIBILITY

“Might” can be added to different phrases to refer to past, present, or future possibilities.

**PAST POSSIBILITY**

“MIGHT” + “HAVE” + PAST PARTICIPLE

I can’t find the compass. I **might have dropped it earlier.**

**PRESENT POSSIBILITY**

“MIGHT” + BASE FORM

I don’t remember this path. We **might be lost.**

**FUTURE POSSIBILITY**

“MIGHT” + “BASE FORM” + FUTURE TIME

It’s very cold outside. It **might snow** later on.

Further Examples

We **might have taken** a wrong turn at the river.

It **might be** windy at the top of the mountain.

Joe **might not come** walking with us next weekend.

TIP

Questions with “might” are only used in very formal English.
**62.2 “MIGHT” WITH UNCERTAINTY**

Other phrases can be added to sentences with “might” to emphasize uncertainty about something.

I might take the bus home. I’m not sure.

I don’t know. I might have more pizza.

**62.3 PAST POSSIBILITY**

As well as “might,” other modal verbs can be used to talk about something that possibly happened in the past.

The copier isn’t working. It might have run out of paper.

[might, may, could]

[He thinks it is possible that the copier has run out of paper.]

These constructions can be used to talk about something that possibly did not happen in the past.

You might not have plugged it in correctly.

[might not, may not]

[He thinks it is possible that the printer wasn’t plugged in correctly.]

“Could not” can only be used when the speaker is certain that something did not happen.

You couldn’t have changed the ink correctly.

[He is certain that the ink wasn’t changed correctly.]
Articles are short words which come before nouns to show whether they refer to a general or a specific object. There are several rules telling which article, if any, should be used.

### 63.1 THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

The indefinite article “a” or “an” is used to talk about something in general.

**I work in a library.**

“A” is used to talk about the type of place where somebody works, not the specific building.

**I work in an office.**

“An” is used instead of “a” before words that start with a vowel.

We are trying to buy a house.

The exact house they will buy is unknown.

Canada is a very cold country.

“Country” categorizes Canada, and “cold” describes it.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

Dogs make a great family pet.

The indefinite article is used in the same way for questions.

Jim isn’t an artist.

The indefinite article is used in the same way for negative statements.

Do you want to come to an exhibition?

Is there a bank near here?

The indefinite article is used in the same way for questions.

See also:
Singular and plural nouns 69  Countable and uncountable nouns 70  Superlative adjectives 97
63.2 “SOME”

“Some” replaces “a” or “an” in sentences with plural nouns.

- Use “a” and “an” to talk about one thing.
- Use “some” to talk about more than one thing.

There is a hotel in the town.

There are some hotels in the town.

“Hotel” is singular.

“Hotels” is plural.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There are some banks on Main Street.

There are some children in the park.

63.3 “SOME” AND “ANY” WITH QUESTIONS AND NEGATIVES

“Some” is replaced by “any” to form questions and negatives.

There are some cafés in the town.

Are there any cafés in the town?

There are some children in the park.

There aren’t any children in the park.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Are there any museums?

There aren’t any parks.

Are there any swimming pools?

There aren’t any factories.
THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

The definite article “the” is used to talk about a specific person or thing that everyone understands.

We went on a tour and the guide was excellent. It is clear from the context that this means the tour guide.

There’s a bus trip or a lecture. I’d prefer the bus trip. The bus trip has already been mentioned.

The Colosseum is probably the most famous site in Rome. Superlative phrase.

I’m going to the Trevi Fountain before I leave. There is only one Trevi Fountain.

The Pope is visiting another country this week. “Pope” is a title.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

What is the biggest country in the world?

I went to Paris and climbed the Eiffel Tower.

I never take the first train to work in the morning.

Did you buy those shoes from the shoe shop on Broad Lane?

I love this restaurant. The waiters are great.

The President will be speaking on TV tonight.
**63.5 USING “THE” TO SPECIFY**

“The” can be followed by a prepositional phrase or a defining relative clause to specify which thing someone is talking about.

*The pictures on the wall* are beautiful.

This makes it clear which pictures are being referred to.

*The dog that I saw earlier* was adorable.

This makes it clear which dog is being talked about.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- *The computers in this office* are all too slow.
- *The students in my classes* are very intelligent and dedicated.
- *The books that I bought yesterday* are for my son’s birthday.
- *The pastries that they sell here* are absolutely delicious.

**63.6 “THE” WITH ADJECTIVES FOR CERTAIN GROUPS**

Some adjectives can be used with the definite article to refer to a group or class of people.

*Rich people* have bought most of the new houses in this town.

Almost all the houses here are owned by *the rich.*

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Emergency treatment for *the injured* is essential.
- The media sometimes portrays *the young* as lazy.
- Many charities try to protect *the poor.*
- *The elderly* often need the support of their families.
THE ZERO ARTICLE

An article is not needed with uncountable and plural nouns used in a general context. This is known as the zero article.

I don’t like the beach. I get sand everywhere.

You can see famous sights all over New York City.

Liz is seven. She goes to school now.

Larry works at the school in Park Street.

The zero article is also used with some places and institutions when it is clear what their purpose is.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Coffee is one of Colombia’s major exports.

Kangaroos are common in Australia.

I am studying Engineering in college in Chicago.

Liz goes to school at 8am.

In the UK, children start school when they are five years old.

I’ve got so many books.

Paris is the capital of France.

Go to bed, Tom!
63.8 THE ZERO ARTICLE AND GENERIC “THE”

The zero article can be used with plural nouns to talk about a class of things in general. This can also be done with the definite article, plus a singular noun.

- **Telescopes** changed the way we see the night sky.

- **Cheetahs** can run faster than any other land animal.

- **Violins** are often the key instrument in an orchestra.

63.9 DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE ARTICLES WITH NAMES

The zero article is normally used with the name of a person.

- This is my uncle, **Neil Armstrong**.

The definite article is used before a person’s name to differentiate them from another person with the same name.

- **He’s not the Neil Armstrong**, is he?

  [He isn’t the famous person with that name, is he?]

The indefinite article is used when the focus is on a particular name, rather than the person.

- **I’m afraid there isn’t a “Joseph Bloggs” on the list.**

  [The particular name given is not on the list.]
**USING ARTICLES**

### SINGULAR NOUNS
Singular nouns must be used with an article. The definite article ("the") or indefinite article ("a / an") can be used, depending on whether the object is being spoken about in general or specific terms.

#### INDEFINITE ARTICLE

- "A" refers to cars in general, not the car he wants to buy.

He wants to buy a new car.  

I've got a beautiful green coat.  

#### DEFINITE ARTICLE

- "The" is used to talk about a specific car that the speaker and listener both know about.

Sam bought a new shoes today.  

I've just planted some roses.  

### PLURAL NOUNS
The indefinite article "a / an" cannot be used with plural nouns. "Some" is used instead for plural nouns when referring to an indefinite quantity of something.

- "A" is used because the green coat is something new that is being introduced.

Sam bought a new shoes today.  

I've just planted some roses.  

### UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS
The indefinite article is not usually used with uncountable nouns. The definite article is used to talk about uncountable nouns in specific terms, and the zero article is used to talk about them in general terms.

- "Some" suggests a limited number of roses, but the exact number is unknown.

Sam bought a new shoes today.  

I left a money on the table.  

Children should drink a milk.
The definite and indefinite articles are used in different situations, and this can depend on whether they are being used with a singular, plural, or uncountable noun.

**DEFINITE ARTICLE**

“The” is used to talk about a specific car that the speaker and listener both know about.

Is the red car outside yours? ✓

I want to buy the green coat ✓ hanging in the window.

The shoes Sam bought ✓ were very expensive.

The roses you planted ✓ outside are beautiful.

**ZERO ARTICLE**

This is wrong. Singular countable nouns must have an article.

I’ve got new car. ✗

I’ve got beautiful green coat. ✗

Sam is always buying shoes. ✓

Roses are a type of flower. ✓

Roses are being spoken about in general terms. There’s no idea of a number.

No article is used because “money” is being spoken about in a general sense.

She earns a lot of money. ✓

Children should drink the milk. ✗

Milk is an uncountable noun which is being spoken about in general terms, so the definite article can’t be used.

See also:

Singular and plural nouns 69
Countable and uncountable nouns 70
“This,” “that,” “these,” and “those” can be used as determiners before a noun to specify which noun is being talked about. They can also be used as pronouns to replace a noun in a sentence.

65.1 **“THIS” AND “THAT” AS DETERMINERS**

“This” and “that” are only used with singular nouns. “This” is used for something close, and “that” for something farther away.

“This” can also be used for something current or present, and “that” can be used for something absent or in the past.

**This** house is too big. The house is close to you.

**That** house is too small. The house is farther away from you.

**This** job is great. **“This” refers to the job that the speaker is currently doing.**

**That** job was boring. **“That” refers to a job in the past that isn’t being done anymore. “Was” is in the past tense.**

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

This essay is proving to be really difficult.

That cake in the window looks incredible.

I like this rabbit so much I want to take it home.

I’d like to see that play this weekend.

When I eat out I always order this rice dish.

This show is great, but I didn’t like that other show as much.

Uncountable nouns are only used with “this” and “that,” never “these” and “those.”

“Other” can be used after “that” to stress that it is different to the first noun.

See also:
Singular and plural nouns 69
Personal pronouns 77 Possession 80
“These” and “those” are only used with plural nouns. “These” is used for things close by or current. “Those” is used for things farther away or in the past.

**This** cake is delicious.

**These** cakes are delicious.

**That** sandwich tastes bad.

**Those** sandwiches look better.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**These** new shoes are hurting my feet.

I hope **these** exams go well.

I don’t think **these** vegetables are very fresh.

**These** books are so heavy! I can’t carry them.

**Those** sunglasses look great on you!

I like the look of **those** Caribbean cruises...

I’ll take **those** apples and **these** bananas, please.
“**THIS**” AND **“THAT”** AS PRONOUNS

“This” and “that” can replace singular nouns in a sentence. They point out a specific thing. “This” is used for something close, and “that” is used for something farther away.

![Image of a person and a dog]

**This** is my dog. The dog is close to you.

![Image of a person and a dog]

**That** is my dog. The dog is farther away from you.

“This” can also be used for something current or present, and “that” can be used for something absent or in the past.

![Image of people celebrating]

**This** is a great party. “This” means the party is happening now.

![Image of a person and a dog]

**That** was such a fun party yesterday. “That” means the party has already happened.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**This** is a great honor. Thank you everyone for coming.

**That** was so exciting.

**This** has always been the most beautiful park.

If you could do a blow-dry, that would be great.

**This** is the perfect laptop for creative work.

**That** sounded out of tune. I’d get the piano fixed.

**This** is the best soup I’ve ever tasted.

**That** looks great. Is the car new?
“These” and “those” can replace plural nouns in a sentence. “These” is used for things close by or current. “Those” is used for things farther away or in the past.

“These” is the plural of “this.”

“That” is the plural of “that.”

“These” and “those” are also used for contrast. “These” things belong to one person.

“Those” things belong to another person.

“These are my bags.”

“Those are my bags.”

“These are my bags and those are your bags.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES

“These are the best kind of shoes to wear when running.”

I think those will probably taste better with sauce.

“These are the only clothes I own.”

Those aren’t very good for you. Try these instead.

SUBSTITUTING WITH “THAT” AND “THOSE”

“That” and “those” can be used in place of a noun phrase to mean “the one” or “the ones.”

“That” refers to “policy.”

The new policy is better than that of before.

“I disapprove of those who don’t recycle.”

“That” refers to “policy.”

“Those who” means “people who.”
“No” and “none” both show the absence or lack of something. “No” is always used with a noun, whereas “none” replaces a noun in a sentence.

**66.1 “NO”**

“No” is only used with uncountable nouns or plural countable nouns.

There was **no** time to cook a meal.

I have **no** ingredients in my kitchen.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

This menu has **no** vegetarian options.

I would have booked a restaurant but there were **no** tables.

**No** waiters were available to take our order.

There are **no** recipes in this book that I haven’t tried.

**66.2 “NO” AND NOUN FOR EMPHASIS**

Although “no” has the same meaning as “not any” in this context, “no” is often emphatic.

There wasn’t **any** food left.

There was **no** food left!

This version of the sentence can indicate surprise or disappointment.
“None” can replace “no” plus noun to indicate a lack of something.

I wanted some pizza, but there was none left.

[None of the pizza was left.]

“None of” is used before pronouns and nouns with determiners.

How much pizza is there?

None.

“None” can also be used on its own to answer a question about quantity.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I wanted the soup, but there was none left.

I would have bought balloons, but there were none in the shop.

I love this suit, but there are none here in my size.

None of the people eating at the restaurant enjoyed their food.

I offered my friends some chocolate, but they wanted none of it.

This restaurant has none of the food that I like.
“Each” and “every” are words that go before singular nouns to refer to all members of a group of people or things.

**67.1 “EACH” AND “EVERY”**

In most cases, there is no difference in meaning between “each” and “every.”

- **I buy more and more** \{each\} time I go shopping.
- **Each** place we stopped at was beautiful.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- The host made sure he greeted each guest at the party.
- Last summer I went to visit my grandmother every day.
- Each person on the beach was developing a bad sunburn.
- I always try every kind of ice cream when I go abroad.

**COMMON MISTAKES “EACH” AND “EVERY”**

Unlike “each,” “every” cannot be used to talk about just two things.

- She had an earring in each ear. ✔️
- She had an earring in every ear. ✗

She only has two ears, so “every” can’t be used here.

See also: Singular and plural nouns 69
67.2 "EACH"

"Each" is used to talk separately about every member of a group.

You must check each answer carefully.

"Each" is also used when talking about small numbers.

Each pencil is a different color.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I get more awake after each cup of coffee.

Each player on my team contributed to our win.

I took lots of time over each application I made.

Each friend who visited me brought a gift.

67.3 "EVERY"

"Every" is used when speaking about the whole group of something.

I want to eat every piece of this delicious pie.

Every child has the right to an education.

"Every" is also used when talking about large numbers.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Every night I look up at all the stars in the sky.

Every fan in the stadium was cheering loudly.

My colleague says he’s visited every country in the world.

I can’t remember every hotel I’ve ever stayed in.
“Either,” “neither,” and “both” are used in situations where two options are being described. They indicate that one, two, or none of the options are possible.

### 68.1 “EITHER,” “NEITHER,” AND “BOTH”

“Either” means “one or the other” of two options and is used before a singular noun.

You could enter **either** tournament.

“Neither” means “not one and not the other” of two options and is used before a singular noun. It has the same meaning as a negative statement with “either.”

**Neither** event is being shown on TV.

[They’re not showing either event on TV.]

“Both” means “each one of two” and is used before a plural noun, or after a plural pronoun.

I ran in **both** [the] races.

I ran in **them** both.

A determiner, such as “the,” “these,” or “my” can be used after “both.”

A plural pronoun can go before “both.”

### ANOTHER WAY TO SAY IT

“Either,” “neither,” and “both” can be used alone when the context is clear.

Would you like potatoes or salad with your steak?

Either.  
Neither.  
Both.
“Either of,” “neither of,” and “both of” are used before a plural pronoun or a determiner plus a plural noun.

I could buy *either of* these bicycles, but I don’t really need *either of* them.

“We won *neither of* the races. Neither of us trained hard enough.

We train with *both (of)* our coaches. They are proud of *both of* us.

Plural personal pronouns “us,” “you,” and “them” can be used with “either of,” “neither of,” and “both of” as a subject as well as an object.

I danced with *both of* them.

*Neither of* you can dance.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

I wasn’t able to get tickets for *either of* the first heats.

*Neither of* the athletes are very fit.

I’m going to watch *both the* equestrian events later today.

Either of *them* could win the contest. It’s hard to call.

We thought *neither of* *them* would be able to finish.

*Both of* *you* are strong contenders. You deserve to win.
“Either... or” and “neither... nor” are used to compare options, usually noun phrases, prepositional phrases, or clauses.

I want **either** the cake **or** the cookie.

Neither the cake **nor** the cookie tasted good.

“Nor” can only be used with “neither.”

“Neither” is only used with a positive verb.

The first two options are separated with a comma.

I want to play **either** tennis, badminton, **or** squash.

Neither basketball, golf, **nor** hockey are the sports for me.

“Both... and” is the opposite of “neither... nor,” but can only be used with two options.

I want **both** the cake **and** the cookie.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

We’ll meet up on **either** Tuesday **or** Wednesday.

My teacher told me I could **neither** paint **nor** draw.

I invited **both** my grandmother **and** my uncle.

I’m going to play **either** tennis, basketball, **or** hockey tonight.

**Neither** sports **nor** exercise interest me.

I went to **both** the bakery **and** the butcher shop.
AGREEMENT AFTER “EITHER... OR” AND “NEITHER... NOR”

When “either... or” or “neither... nor” are used to join two nouns, the verb usually agrees with the second noun.

Either a tablet or a laptop is needed for the course.

Neither the teacher nor the children were happy.

If the second noun is singular and the first is plural, either a singular verb or a plural verb can be used.

Neither the classrooms nor the office has internet access.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Either a loan or a grant is available for financial help.

I hope either sandwiches or soup is on the menu today.

Either my brother or my grandparents are coming.

Either pens or pencils are suitable to use in the exam.

Neither the swimming pool nor the gym is open on Sundays.

Neither a shirt nor a tie is compulsory at school.

Neither the bread nor the cakes are ready yet.

Neither calculators nor study notes are allowed in the exam.
Nouns in English do not have a gender. They change form depending on whether they are singular, meaning there is one, or plural, meaning there is more than one.

### COMMON NOUNS
Common nouns often come after articles. Adjectives describe nouns.

- car
- banana
- skirt
- game
- idea
- thought

### PROPER NOUNS
Nouns that refer to specific names of people, places, days, and months are called proper nouns, and begin with a capital letter.

Egypt is a country, so it begins with a capital letter.

Egypt is a beautiful country.

“Country” is a common noun.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I study at Southern University.
- My best friend is called Jasmine.
- I can see Mars in the sky tonight.
- I was born in Canada.
- The Titanic sank when it hit an iceberg.
- I hope to someday win an Oscar.
To make most nouns plural, “-s” is added to the singular noun.

**IRREGULAR PLURALS**

For nouns ending in “-s,” “-x,” “-z,” “-ch,” and “-sh,” “-es” is added.

- watch → watches
- brush → brushes
- box → boxes

When a word ends in a singular “-z,” the “z” is doubled and “-es” added.

- bus → buses
- quiz → quizzes

For nouns ending in a consonant followed by a “-y,” the “-y” is dropped and “-ies” is added.

- dictionary → dictionaries
- story → stories

Some other nouns have completely irregular plurals. A good dictionary can be used to check these.

- man → men
- woman → women
- businessman → businessmen
- businesswoman → businesswomen

“Man” and “woman,” and words made from them, such as in job names, have irregular plural forms.

For nouns ending in “-o,” the plural is usually formed by adding “-es.” If the noun ends in vowel plus “-o,” the plural is formed by adding “-s.”

- echo → echoes
- radio → radios

Some nouns do not change in the plural.

- species
- sheep
In English, nouns can be countable or uncountable. Countable nouns can be individually counted. Objects that aren’t counted are uncountable.

### 70.1 COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

"A," "an," or numbers are used to talk about countable nouns. "Some" can be used for both countable and uncountable nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTABLE NOUNS</th>
<th>UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is an egg.</td>
<td>There is some rice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are four eggs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are some eggs.</td>
<td>&quot;Some&quot; is always used with uncountable nouns, not &quot;a,&quot; &quot;an,&quot; or a number.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- a sandwich
- an apple
- some bananas
- two burgers
- some milk
- some water
- some spaghetti
- some sugar

### 70.2 MAKING UNCOUNTABLE THINGS COUNTABLE

Uncountable nouns can become countable when the noun is in a container.

- some sugar → a bag of sugar
- some water → three bottles of water
- some cereal → a bowl of cereal
**70.3 NEGATIVES**
For both countable and uncountable nouns, “any” is used in negative sentences and questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTABLE NOUNS</th>
<th>UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are <strong>some</strong> eggs.</td>
<td>There is <strong>some</strong> rice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There aren’t <strong>any</strong> eggs.</td>
<td>There isn’t <strong>any</strong> rice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there <strong>any</strong> eggs?</td>
<td>Is there <strong>any</strong> rice?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The verb is plural.
- The verb is singular.

**70.4 QUESTIONS ABOUT QUANTITIES**
“Many” is used to ask questions about quantities of countable nouns, and “much” to ask questions about quantities of uncountable nouns.

- How **many** eggs are there?  
  - The verb is plural.
- How **much** rice is there?   
  - The verb is singular.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**
- How **many** cupcakes are there?  
- How **many** apples are there?    
- How **much** cheese is there?    
- How **much** chocolate is there?

**COMMON MISTAKES “MUCH” AND “MANY”**
“Much” can only be used with uncountable nouns and the verb must always be singular.

- How **much** pasta is there? ✔
- How many pasta are there? ✗
Subject–verb agreement

One of the basic principles of English is that subjects and verbs must agree in number. Some subjects, however, can act like singular or plural nouns depending on the context.

**71.1 PLURAL NOUNS WITH SINGULAR AGREEMENT**

Books and other works of art that end in a plural noun are used as singular for agreement.

Even though “tales” is plural, The Canterbury Tales is a single work of literature.

The Canterbury Tales was first published in the 1400s.

Other nouns look like they are plural because they end in an “-s,” but have singular agreement. These include many place names and academic subjects.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Little Women is a novel by Louisa May Alcott.

The Netherlands is famous for its tulip industry.

Gymnastics was the most enjoyable sport at school.

Politics is often a topic for academic debate.

Athletics was an important part of the ancient Olympic Games.

See also:

- Present simple 1
- Singular and plural nouns 69
COLLECTIVE NOUNS

Collective nouns have a singular form, but refer to a number of people or objects as a group. In US English they generally take a singular verb. In UK English they can often be used with either singular or plural verbs.

If the subject describes a singular body, then the verb form must be singular.

The team is getting a new manager next year.  
[The team as a whole is getting a new manager.]

Subject describes a collection of individuals.  

The team are feeling excited about the news.  
[Each individual member of the team is feeling excited.]

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The society is going to have a meeting next week.  
The society are discussing how often they should meet.

The band has just released its new album.  
The band have been on tour to promote their new album.

The government is located in the capital city.  
The government are in talks with the US.

My family is bigger than most other families I know.  
My family are going away together for the first time in years.

The company has hired some new staff.  
The company have been busy baking for a charity cake sale.
Most abstract nouns are uncountable. Some, however, can be either countable or uncountable, and the two forms often mean slightly different things.

### ABSTRACT AND CONCRETE NOUNS

Abstract nouns refer to ideas, events, concepts, feelings, and qualities that do not have a physical form. Concrete nouns are things that can be seen, touched, heard, or smelled.

He has a lot of books, but not much knowledge.

“Books” is a countable, concrete noun.

“Knowledge” is an uncountable, abstract noun.

#### FURTHER EXAMPLES

**CONCRETE NOUNS**

- teacher
- classroom
- paper
- chair
- exam

**ABSTRACT NOUNS**

- love
- freedom
- truth
- sadness
- health

## FURTHER EXAMPLES

I can’t wait to prepare for this dinner party.

I’m having difficulty logging on to my computer.

I’m going to get my car fixed sometime soon.

I need to come up with better ideas to keep my boss happy.
Some abstract nouns have both countable and uncountable forms. The forms have a slight difference in meaning, with the countable form being specific and the uncountable form being more general.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTABLE</th>
<th>UNCOUNTABLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’ve been there a few <strong>times</strong>.</td>
<td>There’s plenty of <strong>time</strong> left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Each “time” is a specific occasion.</td>
<td>“Time” refers to the concept in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He has had many <strong>successes</strong>.</td>
<td>Hard work leads to <strong>success</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Successes” are the specific achievements.</td>
<td>“Success” refers to achievement in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has some great <strong>qualities</strong>.</td>
<td>It has a reputation for <strong>quality</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Qualities” refers to specific features.</td>
<td>“Quality” refers to a high standard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We learned several new <strong>skills</strong>.</td>
<td>It takes <strong>skill</strong> to do that job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>These are the particular abilities learned.</td>
<td>“Skill” is the general ability to do something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ve had some <strong>thoughts</strong> about it.</td>
<td>The task requires <strong>thought</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>These are several specific thoughts.</td>
<td>“Thought” refers to the process of thinking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This city has a great <strong>mix of cultures</strong>.</td>
<td>The museum is filled with <strong>culture</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This refers to several different cultures.</td>
<td>“Culture” refers to items of art and history.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There’s a range of <strong>abilities</strong> in class.</td>
<td>She has great <strong>ability</strong> in writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Abilities” refers to a variety of different skill levels.</td>
<td>“Ability” refers to general skill.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compound nouns are two or more nouns that act as a single unit. The first noun(s) modifies the last, in a similar way to an adjective.

### 73.1 COMPOUND NOUNS

Two nouns can go together to talk about one thing.

- **On Tuesdays I play** table tennis.
- **My baby sister loves her** picture book.
- **My brother always plays on his** games console.

The first noun is usually singular, even if the meaning is plural.

Sometimes, the first noun is plural.

Some compound nouns are written as two separate words, some as one word, and some with a hyphen between the two. There are no clear rules for this, but good dictionaries can be used to check.

- **toothbrush**
- **bus stop**
- **six-pack**

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- The meeting is in the **town hall**.
- I eat dinner at the **kitchen table**.
- I’m having my 44th **birthday party**.
- I buy tickets at the **ticket office**.
- We were in a **cycle race**.
- I’ve always wanted a **sailboat**.
73.2 LONGER COMPOUND NOUNS
Two or more nouns can be put with another noun to modify it. This structure is common in newspaper headlines in order to save space.

I came first in the table tennis tournament.

Bank robbery ringleader capture confirmed.

This means “the capture of the ringleader of the bank robbery” has been confirmed.

73.3 PLURAL COMPOUND NOUNS
To make a compound noun plural, the final noun becomes plural.

The summer party was fun.

Summer parties are always fun.

“Party” becomes “parties.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Restaurant chains are reliable when you need a quick meal.

I have a collection of teapots.

I organize my bookcases when they start to look messy.

I spend a lot of time waiting at bus stops.
Cardinal numbers are used for counting and saying how many of something there are. Ordinal numbers give the position of something in an ordered list.

### 74.1 CARDINAL NUMBERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>two</td>
<td>three</td>
<td>four</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>six</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seven</td>
<td>eight</td>
<td>nine</td>
<td>ten</td>
<td>eleven</td>
<td>twelve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thirteen</td>
<td>fourteen</td>
<td>fifteen</td>
<td>sixteen</td>
<td>seventeen</td>
<td>eighteen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nineteen</td>
<td>twenty</td>
<td>twenty-one</td>
<td>twenty-two</td>
<td>thirty</td>
<td>forty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fifty</td>
<td>sixty</td>
<td>seventy</td>
<td>eighty</td>
<td>ninety</td>
<td>one hundred</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 74.2 SAYING NUMBERS

In US English, people say “zero” for the number “0,” whereas in UK English, other words for “0” are possible. When listing repeated numbers, for example part of a phone number, in US English each number is said individually. In UK English, other expressions are possible.

- **0** (UK only)
- **44** (UK only)
- **555** (UK only)
- **zero**
- **nine**
- **five five five** (UK only)
- **treble five** (UK only)
- **nought** (UK only)
- **double four** (UK only)
- **five double five** (UK only)

See also:
- Singular and plural nouns 69
- Quantity 75
- Approximate quantity 76
You can say “one hundred” or “a hundred.” Both are correct. Don’t add “s” to “hundred,” “thousand,” or “million.”

100  one hundred
a hundred
one hundred and one
200  No “s” at the end.

two hundred

1,000  one thousand
a thousand
one thousand, two hundred
3,000  three thousand

1,000,000  one million
a million
one million, three hundred thousand
40,000,000  forty million

In UK English, add “and” before the last two numbers to say numbers higher than one hundred. In US English, this is considered informal.

2,876  two thousand, eight hundred and seventy-six

“And” goes before “seventy-six.”

54,041  fifty-four thousand and forty-one

100,922  one hundred thousand, nine hundred and twenty-two

296,308  two hundred and ninety-six thousand, three hundred and eight

Use commas to separate millions, thousands, and hundreds.

1,098,283  one million, ninety-eight thousand, two hundred and eighty-three

74.4 SIMILAR SOUNDBING NUMBERS

It is important to stress the correct syllable in these numbers to avoid confusion.

Stress the first syllables.

Stress the last syllables.

13  thirteen
30  thirty
14  fourteen
40  forty
15  fifteen
50  fifty
16  sixteen
60  sixty
17  seventeen
70  seventy
18  eighteen
80  eighty
19  nineteen
90  ninety
In the US, people often describe dates by writing cardinal numbers and saying ordinal numbers. In the UK, people use ordinal numbers to write and say dates.

### Ordinal Numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
<th>5th</th>
<th>6th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>first</td>
<td>second</td>
<td>third</td>
<td>fourth</td>
<td>fifth</td>
<td>sixth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7th</th>
<th>8th</th>
<th>9th</th>
<th>10th</th>
<th>11th</th>
<th>12th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>seventh</td>
<td>eighth</td>
<td>ninth</td>
<td>tenth</td>
<td>eleventh</td>
<td>twelfth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13th</th>
<th>14th</th>
<th>15th</th>
<th>16th</th>
<th>17th</th>
<th>18th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>thirteenth</td>
<td>fourteenth</td>
<td>fifteenth</td>
<td>sixteenth</td>
<td>seventeenth</td>
<td>eighteenth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>19th</th>
<th>20th</th>
<th>21st</th>
<th>22nd</th>
<th>30th</th>
<th>40th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nineteenth</td>
<td>twentieth</td>
<td>twenty-first</td>
<td>twenty-second</td>
<td>thirtieth</td>
<td>fortieth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>50th</th>
<th>60th</th>
<th>70th</th>
<th>80th</th>
<th>90th</th>
<th>100th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fiftieth</td>
<td>sixtieth</td>
<td>seventieth</td>
<td>eightieth</td>
<td>ninetieth</td>
<td>one-hundredth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Dates

In the US, people often describe dates by writing cardinal numbers and saying ordinal numbers. In the UK, people use ordinal numbers to write and say dates.

![Cakes](https://example.com/cake.png)

His birthday is on

- **May 18 (US)**
- **May the 18th (UK)**
- **the 18th of May (UK)**

In US English, the number is written after the month.

May eighteenth

May the eighteenth

the eighteenth of May
74.7 FRACTIONS
You might see fractions written out as words. Aside from “half” (½) and “quarter” (¼), the bottom number of a fraction is written or spoken as an ordinal number.

\[
\frac{1}{4} \quad \frac{1}{3} \quad \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{3}{5} \quad 1\frac{1}{2}
\]

- a quarter
- a third
- a half
- three fifths
- one and a half

Use ordinal numbers for the bottom of a fraction.
Use cardinal numbers for the top of a fraction.
Use “and” to link a whole number and a fraction.

74.8 DECIMALS
Decimals are always written as numbers, not words. The decimal point is spoken as “point,” and all numbers after the decimal point are spoken separately.

- point five
- nought point five
- zero point five
- one point seven
- three point nine seven

Decimal points are written in English using a period, or full stop.
There are three ways of saying decimals that begin with 0.

74.9 PERCENTAGES
The % symbol is written and spoken as “percent.” “Per cent” is also sometimes written in UK English. Percentages are normally written as numbers, not words.

- 1%
- 99%
- 55.5%
- 12%
- 70%
- 100%

- one percent
- ninety-nine percent
- fifty-five point five percent
- twelve per cent
- seventy per cent
- one hundred per cent
In English there are many ways to express general or specific quantities, say whether quantities are adequate, and compare different quantities.

### 75.1 Using Quantity Phrases

English has different phrases for quantities when the exact number is not known.

- **Some** is used when there are more than one, but the exact quantity is unknown.
  
  There are **some** buildings.

- **A few** is used for small numbers.
  
  There are **a few** buildings.

- **Lots of** is used for large numbers.
  
  There are **lots of** buildings.

### Further Examples

- There are some very old trees in my local park.
- There are a few items on the menu that I’d like to try.
- There are a few sights that I’d like to see while I’m here.
- There are lots of mountains in the Alps that I’d love to climb.
- There are some vegetables that I really don’t like.
- There are a few cars parked outside my house.
- Lots of my friends rely on trains to get to work.
- There are lots of people waiting outside the gallery.
75.2 “ENOUGH / TOO MANY” WITH COUNTABLE NOUNS

“Enough,” “not enough,” and “too many” are used to talk about quantities of countable nouns, which are objects or things that can be easily counted.

We have two eggs. That’s not enough.

We have four eggs. That’s enough.

Don’t use five eggs. That’s too many.

We need four eggs. Do we have enough?

“Enough” is used for questions.

“Enough” is the correct amount.

Indicates more than enough.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There are enough apples here.

I don’t have enough shoes.

There aren’t enough employees.

You have too many clothes.

75.3 “ENOUGH / TOO MUCH” WITH UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

“Enough,” “not enough,” and “too much” are used to talk about amounts of uncountable nouns, which are things that cannot easily be counted.

We need eight ounces of flour. Do we have enough?

not enough flour  enough flour  too much flour

Indicates too little.

Indicates the correct amount.

Indicates more than needed or wanted.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There is enough milk.

I don’t have enough energy.

There isn’t enough time.

There is too much food.
75.4 "A LOT OF" AND "LOTS OF"

"A lot of" and "lots of" are commonly used informally before uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns to indicate that there is a large quantity of something.

A lot of 
Lots of people play sports to keep fit.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There was a lot of food at the event.

The charity received lots of donations.

The event raised a lot of money.

Lots of people enjoy charity events.

75.5 "LITTLE" FOR SMALL AMOUNTS

"Little" is used with uncountable nouns to say that there is not much of something in UK English. It emphasizes how small the amount is.

A little is used with uncountable nouns to mean "some." It emphasizes that the amount, though small, is enough.

little = not much

I have little money left. I can’t afford to visit the wildlife park.

"Little" can also be used as a pronoun to mean "not much."

Little can be done about the decreasing number of red squirrels.

a little = some

I have a little money left. Should we visit the wildlife park?

Informally, "a (little) bit of" can be used instead of "a little."

There’s a little bit of the park that we haven’t seen yet.
### 75.6 “FEW” FOR SMALL NUMBERS

“Few” is used with plural countable nouns to say that there are not many of something. It emphasizes how small the number is.

- **few** = not many

  There are few rare birds here. We probably won’t see any.

- **a few** = some

  There are a few rare birds here. We might see one.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- “Few” can also be used as a pronoun to mean “not many.”

  Few are willing to contribute to the upkeep of the national park.

- “Very” can be used to stress that the number of something is even smaller.

  I wanted to see an owl, but very few can be seen during the day.

### 75.7 “QUITE A FEW” AND “QUITE A BIT (OF)” FOR BIG QUANTITIES

The phrases “quite a bit of” and “quite a few” are understatements that actually mean “a lot” or “many.”

- **quite a few** = many

  The park is home to quite a few species.

- **quite a bit of** = a lot of

  There is quite a bit of open space for the animals.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- Quite a few of the students in my class don’t like History.

- There’s still quite a bit of snow on the ground.

- There are quite a few books that I’d like to read.

- She ate quite a bit of cake at her birthday party.
FURTHER EXAMPLES

I’m buying **more** cookies. **Cookies** is a countable noun.

We need **more** milk. **Milk** is an uncountable noun.

**“FEWER” AND “LESS”**

“Fewer” and “less” are used to show that there is a smaller quantity or amount of something. “fewer” belongs with plural countable nouns and “less” with uncountable nouns.

**Fewer** people drive cars these days. **People** is a plural countable noun.

Traveling by bus or train uses **less** fuel. **Fuel** is an uncountable noun.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There are **fewer** whales in the oceans nowadays.

**Fewer** people enjoy gardening these days.

We need to spend **less** money.

There is much **less** traffic today.
It is important to remember the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns when using “fewer” and “less.”

“Fewer” is only used with plural countable nouns.

I have fewer potatoes than I need. ✔ I have less potatoes than I need. ❌

I have fewer flour than the recipe requires. ❌ I have less flour than I need. ✔

“Less” is only used with uncountable nouns.

75.10 “MORE THAN,” “LESS THAN,” AND “FEWER THAN”

“More than” is used when talking about amounts or quantities of countable and uncountable nouns.

Lions eat more than 15 pounds of meat each day.

“Fewer than” is used for groups of people or things.

There are fewer than 3,500 tigers in the wild.

“Less than” is used when talking about amounts, distances, time, and money.

The wildlife park costs less than $5 to visit.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The committee holds meetings more than 5 times a month.

The charity survives with fewer than 20 volunteers.

There were more than 100 people at the event.

There are fewer than 50 tickets left for the charity concert.

Charity workers are paid on average less than $10 an hour.

You can donate less than the recommended amount.
If specific figures are known, it can be useful to give them. However, more general terms may be needed if figures are not known, or to avoid repetition.

### 76.1 APPROXIMATE QUANTITIES

There are certain quantifying phrases used in English when exact figures are not known, or not necessary to give.

3 out of 15 students live off campus.

**In some cases,** students live off campus.

“Some” is very unspecific. The only numbers it could not mean in this example are none, one, or 15.

---

**TIP**

“Minority” and “majority” are often qualified, for example “small minority” or “vast majority.”

---

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **In a minority of cases,** employers provide funding for education. A minority is less than half, but often refers to much less than half.

- **In a few cases,** employers provide funding for education. “Most” and “majority” refer to more than half.

- **In most cases,** students can contact their professors online. In the majority of cases, students can contact their professors online. These unspecific references could mean a majority or minority of cases.

- **In some cases,** students can live in dorms on campus. In a number of cases, students can live in dorms on campus.
76.2 APPROXIMATE STATISTICS

Statistics can be made more general by modifying them with words such as “approximately,” “about,” “just,” “well,” or “almost.”

- **Approximately** half of the students are from Europe. (Indicate that the quantity is not exact.)
- **Just under** a third of the assessment consists of coursework. (Indicates that the difference is small.)
- **Well over** 50 percent of the course is online. (Indicates that the difference is large.)
- **Almost** all of the lessons are one hour long. (Indicates that the number is slightly less.)

76.3 SURPRISING NUMBERS

Certain expressions are used to show that a particular number or quantity is surprising.

- Other universities charge **as much as** €100 for this service. (This indicates that €100 is a surprisingly large amount of money.)
- For **as little as** $5 per semester, you can join the club. (This indicates that $5 is a surprisingly small amount of money.)
- There are **as many as** 25 free student events each month. (This indicates that 25 is a surprisingly large number of events.)
- The library is generally closed for **as few as** 2 days a month. (This indicates that 2 is a surprisingly small number of days.)
Personal pronouns are used to replace nouns in a sentence. They can refer to people or things and have different forms depending on whether they are a subject or an object.

### 77.1 SUBJECT PRONOUNS

Subject pronouns replace the subject of a sentence. They are used to avoid repetition, or where a name is not known. There are no formal or informal forms of pronouns in English.

**Who’s he?**

The subject pronoun “he” is used because the speaker doesn’t know the person’s name.

The verbs “be” and “have” are often contracted with pronouns.

That’s Andy. **He’s a policeman.**

“He” refers to Andy to avoid repetition.

### HOW TO FORM

The pronoun used depends on how many nouns it is replacing, and person (first, second, or third.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FIRST PERSON</th>
<th>SECOND PERSON</th>
<th>THIRD PERSON</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>he she it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLURAL</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I’m turning 25 next week.
- **You** are a great actor.
- **He** likes driving fast.
- Stuart and I are going climbing.
- They complain every time.
- **You** make a great team.
Object pronouns replace the object of a sentence. Most of them have a different form from the equivalent subject pronoun.

There is no difference between direct and indirect object pronouns.

TIP
“You” is the same whether it is singular, plural, a subject, or an object.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I want to tell you that I’m sorry.
Sam invited you all to the party.

Dave asked me to go with him.
We’re sad that he won’t come with us.

It was a very difficult time for them.
Georgia wanted it for Christmas.

“All” can be used to show that “you” is plural.
Reflexive pronouns show that the subject of a verb is the same as its object. They can also be used in other situations to add emphasis.

### 78.1 Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns in English are formed by adding the suffix “-self” or “-selves” to simple pronouns.

- **He** cut **himself** while chopping vegetables.

### How to Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Pronoun</th>
<th>Reflexive Pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>me</td>
<td>myself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (plural)</td>
<td>yourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>her</td>
<td>herself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him</td>
<td>himself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>us</td>
<td>ourselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>them</td>
<td>themselves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Further Examples

- I left **myself** a reminder about the meeting.
- You must prepare **yourselves** for this exam.
- Sarah sees **herself** as a natural team leader.
- He introduced **himself** to the other guests.
- The door locks **itself** when you close it.
- We **pride ourselves** on our customer service.
- They’re teaching **themselves** to cook.

See also:

- Verbs patterns with objects 53
- Personal pronouns 77
Several verbs that are followed by reflexive pronouns in other languages are not normally followed by a reflexive pronoun in English.

I’m really stressed. I can’t relax. ✓

I’m really stressed. I can’t relax myself. ✗

This is wrong.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I’ll turn my music down if you can’t concentrate.

He shaves every morning.

He was sick, but he’s feeling better now.

She goes to bed at the same time every night.

Let’s meet at the café at 2:30.

She washes her hair every evening.

I get up early every day.

I often hurry out of the house.

COMMON MISTAKES REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

A reflexive pronoun can only be used if the subject and object of the sentence are the same. If the object is different from the subject, an object pronoun should be used instead.

My boss invited Joe and me to the meeting. ✓

My boss invited myself and Joe to the meeting. ✗

"I" is not the subject of the sentence, so it is wrong to use a reflexive pronoun.
Sometimes reflexive pronouns are not essential to the grammar of the sentence, but can be used to add emphasis in different ways.

The company director gave the talk.

This sentence makes sense without a reflexive pronoun.

Adding the reflexive pronoun at the end of the clause emphasizes that the action was not done by someone else.

The company director gave the talk **himself**.

[The company director gave the talk, rather than getting someone else to do it.]

Adding the reflexive pronoun directly after the subject emphasizes its importance.

The company director **himself** gave the talk.

[The company director, who is an important person, gave the talk.]

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

You don’t have to do the dishes. I’ll do them **myself**.

She’s fixing her car **herself**. It’s cheaper than taking it to the garage.

The meal **itself** wasn’t very good, but it was a great evening.

The board members **themselves** will be at the meeting today.

I do my laundry **myself**, but my dad does my sister’s for her.

I wanted us to build the furniture **ourselves**, but it’s not going well.
78.4 REFLEXIVE COLLOCATIONS

Many collocations contain reflexive pronouns. They often follow the pattern verb plus reflexive pronoun plus preposition.

She still has to familiarize herself with company policy.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Are you leaving early today? Enjoy yourself!
The managers don’t concern themselves with minor issues.
Remember to behave yourselves when you are in public.
Try to tear yourself away from the computer as often as possible.
He was sitting by himself in the café.

“By” is used with a reflexive pronoun to mean “alone.”

TIP

Reflexive pronouns are often used in the imperative. Here, “yourself” implies that “you” is the subject.

Sometimes the subject is not included, but is implied by the reflexive pronoun.

78.5 “EACH OTHER”

When two or more people or things perform the same action to the other, “each other” is used instead of a reflexive pronoun.

Amy and Raj looked at each other.

Amy and Raj looked at themselves in the mirror.

Amy and Raj looked at each other.

[Familiarize herself]

FURTHER EXAMPLES

They gave each other presents.
The children are shouting at one another.
My cats hate each other!

We’re helping each other with our homework.

“One another” means the same as “each other.”

Sometimes the subject is not included, but is implied by the reflexive pronoun.
Indefinite pronouns, such as “anyone,” “someone,” and “everyone,” are used to refer to a person or object, or a group of people or objects, without explaining who or what they are.

**79.1 “ANYONE” AND “SOMEONE”**

“Someone” and “somebody” refer to an unspecified person in a positive statement or question. “Anyone” and “anybody” refer to an unspecified person in a question or negative statement.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Is **someone** working late? I didn’t give **anybody** your name.

Can **somebody** carry my bag? **Did anybody** buy a gift for Mrs. Tan?

I gave **somebody** a flower. I don’t know **anyone** in this town.

**Someone** gave me a present. **Did anybody** here send me this letter?
“EVERYONE” AND “NO ONE”

“Everyone” refers to a whole group of people. “No one” means no person in a group.

“No one” is written as two words.

Why is there no one in the office?

Everyone is at the big meeting.

The singular form of the verb is used with “everyone” and “everybody.”

“Everybody” means the same as “everyone,” but is less formal.

Where is everybody?

I don’t know, there’s nobody here.

The singular form of the verb is used with “nobody” and “no one.”

“Nobody” means the same as “no one.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Nobody wants to come with me.

I’m at the park with everyone if you’d like to join us.

Everybody has some kind of special skill.

There was nobody but me at work until 10am.

COMMON MISTAKES “NO ONE” AND “ANYONE”

“No one” and “nobody” go in positive statements and questions. “Anyone” and “anybody” go in negative statements and questions.

No one” and “nobody” go in positive statements and questions. “Anyone” and “anybody” go in negative statements and questions.

There isn’t anyone here. ✓

There isn’t no one here. ✗

This is a negative statement, so “anyone” or “anybody” is used.

This is a negative statement, so “no one” is incorrect.
“Something” and “anything” refer to an unspecified or unnamed object or thing. “Something” can only be used in questions and positive statements, whereas “anything” can be used in negative statements as well as questions and positive statements.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

“Anything” used in positive statements shows the possibilities are unlimited.

- Have **anything** you want.
- **Anything** baked by my grandmother tastes delicious.
- There’s **something** I need to tell you.
- We don’t have **anything** in common.

“Something” that I’ve always enjoyed is kayaking with my friends.

- I know I’ve forgotten **something**, but I can’t think what it is.
- I’d do **anything** to be able to sing like her.
- **Something** spooky happened last night.

Here “something” has a more general meaning, as the speaker may not have a specific thing in mind. The singular form of the verb is used with “anything” and “something.”
“Nothing” means that there are no available objects or things.

Tim and James have nothing in common.
There is no single thing that Tim and James have in common.

“Everything” means all the possible objects or things are available.

Tim and Dan do everything together.
The verb is positive.

There’s nothing I want to buy here.
[There isn’t anything I want to buy here.]
The verb is negative.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There’s nothing I love more than a sunny day.

I want to see everything at the museum.

Everything is going well at the moment.

I know absolutely nothing about Geography.

Nothing at the exhibition was any good.

I do everything to the best of my ability.

I love that new Italian restaurant. Everything tastes so good!

Nothing interests me about politics.
Possessive determiners, possessive pronouns, apostrophe with “s,” and the verbs “have” and “have got” are all used to express possession in English.

### 80.1 POSSESSIVE DETERMINERS

Possessive determiners are used before a noun to show who it belongs to. They change form depending on whether the owner is singular, plural, male, or female.

- **Felix is my cat.**  
  I own the cat.

- **Coco is your rabbit.**  
  The rabbit belongs to you.

- **Buster is her dog.**  
  The dog belongs to a woman.

- **Polly is his parrot.**  
  The parrot belongs to a man.

- **Rachel is our daughter.**  
  We are her parents.

- **John is their son.**  
  They are his parents.

### HOW TO FORM

- **I**  
  - **my**  
    - **my cat**  
      - I own the cat.

- **you**  
  - **your**  
    - **your rabbit**  
      - The rabbit belongs to you.

- **he**  
  - **his**  
    - **his wife**  
      - The dog belongs to a man.

- **she**  
  - **her**  
    - **her sister**  
      - We are her parents.

- **it**  
  - **its**

- **we**  
  - **our**

- **they**  
  - **their**

See also:  
- Forming questions 34  
- Verb patterns with objects 53  
- “This / that / these / those” 65
Possessive pronouns can also be used to explain who owns something. Unlike possessive determiners, they replace the noun they are showing possession of.

**How to Form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DETERMINERS</th>
<th>PRONOUNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>my</td>
<td>mine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your</td>
<td>yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>his</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>her</td>
<td>hers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>its</td>
<td>its</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our</td>
<td>ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their</td>
<td>theirs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Further Examples**

- This is their suitcase.
- We’re staying in our new villa.
- The boy is playing with his toys.
- I’ll bring some food to your picnic.
- That suitcase is theirs.
- The villa is ours.
- All these toys are his.
- The rest of the food is yours.
An apostrophe and the letter “s” are added to the end of a singular noun to show that what comes after the noun belongs to it.

This is a common way of talking about belonging.

An apostrophe with an “s” shows ownership.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The “s” after the apostrophe is optional when the noun already ends in an “-s.”

If something belongs to more than one noun, “-’s” is only added to the last one.

COMMON MISTAKES APOSTROPHE

Apostrophes are often incorrectly added before the “s” when talking about years or decades.

I was born in the 1960s. ✔️

The best decade was the 70s. ✔️

I was born in the 1960’s. ❌

The best decade was the 70’s. ❌

This is neither possessive nor a contraction, so there is no need for an apostrophe.
APOSTROPHES AND PLURAL NOUNS

To show belonging with a plural noun that ends in "-s," just an apostrophe with no "s" is added.

**Ginger is my parents’ cat.**

Plural nouns that end with "-s" use an apostrophe with no extra "s."

To show belonging with a plural noun that doesn’t end in "-s," an apostrophe and an "s" are added.

**Polly is our children’s parrot.**

This is formed in the same way as singular nouns, with an apostrophe and "s."

FURTHER EXAMPLES

**My friends’ dog is called Rex.**

I’m looking after my cousins’ rabbit.

**That is his grandparents’ house.**

She cares about her students’ grades.

**These are the men’s rooms.**

It depends on the people’s vote.

It is important not to confuse “its” with “it’s.” “Its” is a third person singular possessive determiner, and never has an apostrophe. “It’s” is only ever a contraction of “it is.”

**The dog is playing with its ball. ✔**

*It’s* a shiny, red ball. ✔

This is a possessive so needs no apostrophe.

**The dog is playing with it’s ball. ✗**

*It*s a shiny, red ball. ✗

This is a contraction of “it is,” so should have an apostrophe before the "s."
80.5 “HAVE”
The verb “have” can be used to talk about what people own.

I have a large garage.

She has a yard.

HOW TO FORM

These subject pronouns take “have.”

I
You
He
She

These subject pronouns take “has.”

You
We
They

80.6 “HAVE” NEGATIVES

Although “have” is irregular, its negative is formed in the usual way. The negative form can also be contracted as with other verbs.

I have a bathtub.

I have a bathtub.

I do not have a bathtub.

Jim has a bathtub.

Jim does not have a bathtub.
**80.7 “HAVE” AND “HAVE GOT”**

“Have got” is another way to say “has” when talking about possession. “Have” is appropriate in all situations, but “have got” is only used in spoken UK English.

- **Positive Answer:**
  - I have a new phone.
  - I’ve got a new phone.
  - “I’ve” cannot be used in this context.
  - “Got” doesn’t change when the subject changes.

- **Negative Answer:**
  - I don’t have a dishwasher.
  - I haven’t got a dishwasher.
  - “Have not” can become “haven’t” when used with “got.”

**Questions and Answers**

Do you have your keys?  
Have you got your keys?

The subject sits between “do” and “have” in questions.

**80.8 ANSWERING “HAVE” QUESTIONS**

Short answers to “have” questions can be given using “do” and “don’t.”

- **Positive Answer:**
  - Do you have a microwave?  
  - Yes, I do.
  - “Do” goes in the positive answer.

- **Negative Answer:**
  - Do you have a microwave?  
  - No, I don’t.
  - “Do not” or “don’t” go in the negative answer.

**Questions and Answers**

Have you got a microwave?  
Yes, I have.

“Have” goes in the positive answer.

No, I haven’t.

“Have not” or “haven’t” go in the negative answer.

“Have got” is mostly heard in UK English.

“Have” or “has” moves to the start of the question.

“Got” does not move.
Defining relative clauses

A relative clause is a part of a sentence that gives more information about the subject. A defining, or restrictive, relative clause identifies the subject being talked about.

### 81.1 DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

Defining relative clauses, also known as restrictive relative clauses, are used to describe exactly which person or thing the speaker is referring to. Without this information, the meaning of the sentence changes.

Here the defining clause gives essential information about people.

**MAIN CLAUSE**

She invited lots of friends **who** brought gifts.

Here the defining clause gives essential information about a thing.

**MAIN CLAUSE**

I’m looking for a job **that** I’ll enjoy.

The defining clause can also go in the middle of the main clause.

**MAIN CLAUSE**

The job **that** I heard about is interesting.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

I need a television **that** works!

Do you know anyone **who** knows how to fix a bike?

He’s the actor **that** we saw last week.

The book **that** I just read is excellent.
**81.2 Relative Pronouns**

English uses different relative pronouns to talk about people and things.

- **People:** who, that
- **Things:** which

**81.3 Subjects and Objects in Defining Relative Clauses**

Relative clauses are made up of a subject, a verb, and usually an object. They usually start with a relative pronoun, which can be the subject or the object of the relative clause.

- **Main Clause:** I’m writing about people who commit crimes.
  - “Who” is the subject of “commit.”

- **Main Clause:** I saw the car which the criminal stole.
  - “Which” is the object of “stole.”
  - “The criminal” is the subject of “stole.”

**How to Form**

- **If the relative pronoun is the subject of the relative clause, it must appear in the sentence.**

- **If the relative pronoun is the object of the relative clause, it can be left out. “Whom” is sometimes used when a person is the object, but this is very formal.**
Like defining relative clauses, non-defining relative clauses add extra information about something. However, this simply gives extra detail, rather than changing the sentence’s meaning.

**82.1 NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES**

In non-defining relative clauses, also known as non-restrictive relative clauses, “who” is used to refer to people. “Whom” can be used if the person is the object of the relative clause, but this is very formal.

**MAIN CLAUSE**

_We spoke to Linda, who had recently been mugged._

“Who” refers to a person.

“Which” is used to refer to anything that is not a person. “That” is sometimes used instead of “which,” but this is often considered wrong in non-defining relative clauses. 

**MAIN CLAUSE**

_Her necklace, which she’d just bought, was stolen._

“Which” refers to a thing.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Jay, who I used to live with, came to stay with us for a few days.

The suspect, whom we had been following, was arrested.

All the burglars were arrested, which was a great relief.

Our new house, which is by the beach, is beautiful.

The relative pronoun can refer to the entire previous clause.
HOW TO FORM

Non-defining relative clauses can come in the middle of a sentence, or at the end. If the relative clause comes in the middle, commas must go either side of it. If it comes after the whole main clause, a comma must go at the end of the main clause.

- **We spoke to Linda** who had recently been mugged.
  - A comma must go before the non-defining relative clause.
  - The non-defining relative clause comes at the end of the sentence.

- **Her necklace** which she’d just bought was stolen.
  - Commas go before and after the non-defining relative clause.
  - The non-defining relative clause comes between the subject and the main verb.

### 82.2 QUANTIFIERS WITH NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

In non-defining relative clauses, quantifiers can be used to say how many people or things the relative clause refers to. In these structures, “who” becomes “of whom,” and “which” becomes “of which.”

**QUANTIFIER + OF + WHOM**

I teach many students, all of whom are very talented.

**QUANTIFIER + OF + WHICH**

I teach many classes, some of which are very difficult.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- My brother and sister, both of whom live in Ireland, are coming to visit.
- Lots of people, many of whom are famous, will be at the event.
- I have four essays due next week, none of which are ready.
- Tommy has three pets, two of which are cats.
83 Other relative structures

Relative words introduce phrases that describe a noun in the main part of the sentence. Different relative words are used to refer to different types of nouns.

83.1 “WHERE,” “WHEN,” AND “WHEREBY”

“Where” is the relative word used to refer to a place.

That is the place where the judge sits.

[The judge sits there.]

“When” is the relative word used to refer to a time.

He is looking forward to the day when he’ll be released from prison.

[He’s looking forward to the day of his release.]

“Whereby” is the relative word used to refer to a process.

A trial is the process whereby a person is found guilty or innocent of a crime.

[To be found guilty, you must go through a trial process.]

FURTHER EXAMPLES

This is the house where Shakespeare was born.

Dean is out at the moment. I’m not sure where he is.

I remember the day when you were born.

Next month is when the new students are starting.

They have an agreement whereby they share the company’s profits.

There’s a new system whereby students submit their work online.

See also:
Singular and plural nouns 69
Possession 80
83.2 “WHOSE”

“Whose” is the relative word used to show possession or belonging.

This is the lawyer whose client lied in court.

[This lawyer’s client lied in court.]

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The UK is an example of a country whose traffic laws are very strict.

Smith & Smith, whose success rate is very high, is a respected law firm.

83.3 “WHAT”

“What” is the relative word used to mean “the thing which” or “the things which.”

This house is just what we were looking for.

[This house is the thing which we were looking for.]

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I don’t know what it is, but I’m excited to open it!

These paintings are what I’ve been spending all my time on.

COMMON MISTAKES WORD ORDER WITH RELATIVE STRUCTURES

If a relative structure uses a question word such as “where” or “what,” the word order in the clause following this word should be left as normal and should not be formed like a question.

This is just what we were looking for. ✅

This is just what were we looking for. ❌

Do not invert the subject and verb.
Adding “-ever” to question words changes their meaning. These words can be adverbs or determiners in their own clauses, or they can join two clauses together.

**84.1 QUESTION WORDS WITH “-EVER”**

Words ending “-ever” are most commonly used to mean “it doesn’t matter what,” “I don’t know,” or to say that the options are unrestricted. They can be used as subjects and objects.

- *I’m still going to the game, whatever the weather’s like.*
  
  [It doesn’t matter what the weather is like. I’m still going.]

- *We can take a taxi or walk, whichever you prefer.*
  
  [It doesn’t matter to me which you choose, taxi or walking.]

- *Whoever invented the umbrella was a very clever person.*
  
  [I don’t know who invented the umbrella, but they were very clever.]

- *We’ll reschedule for whenever the sun comes out next.*
  
  [I don’t know when it will be, but we’ll reschedule for the next time it’s sunny.]

- *I always check the forecast for wherever I’m going to be.*
  
  [I check the forecast for the place I am going to be, no matter where it is.]

- *I’m sure you’ll arrive on time, however you decide to travel.*
  
  [No matter which mode of transportation you choose, I’m sure you’ll be on time.]

See also:
- Articles 63  Singular and plural nouns 69  Adverbs of manner 98

---

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- *Whenever I have a free moment, I read a book.*
  
  [It doesn’t matter what I’m doing. I’m reading a book.]

- *Whoever speaks the loudest is the winner.*
  
  [I don’t know who the loudest speaker is. The winner is whoever speaks the loudest.]

- *He speaks English whenever he can.*
  
  [It doesn’t matter when. He speaks English whenever he can.]

- *Whenever there is a problem, I find a solution.*
  
  [It doesn’t matter what the problem is. I find a solution whenever there is a problem.]

- *However you decide to travel, you’ll arrive on time.*
  
  [No matter which mode of transportation you choose. You’ll arrive on time whenever you decide to travel.]*
**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

*Whatever* he tells you, just ignore it.

Feel free to call in to see us *whenever* you’re in town.

*Whichever* you choose, you’ll have to spend a lot of money.

*Wherever* we end up going this summer, I know it’ll be great.

*Whoever* did this painting is a very talented artist.

*However* he managed to break it, I’m not sure we’ll be able to fix it.

---

**84.2 “WHICHEVER” AND “WHATEVER” AS DETERMINERS**

“Whichever” and “whatever” can come before nouns to show that the options are unspecified.

*I’m sure you’ll love whichever dog you choose.*

*It doesn’t matter which dog you choose, you’ll love it.*

*If you need help for whatever reason, just let me know.*

*It doesn’t matter what the reason is, let me know if you need help.*

---

**84.3 OTHER USES OF “WHENEVER” AND “HOWEVER”**

“Whenever” can also mean “every time that.”

*It always seems to rain whenever I go away.*

*[Any time I go away, it rains]*

“However” is often used before an adjective, as an adverb, to mean “to whatever extent.”

*If there’s a chance of rain, however small, I’ll take an umbrella.*

*[I’ll take an umbrella, no matter how small the risk of rain]*
“There” can be used with a form of “be” to talk about the existence or presence of a person or thing. Sentences with “there” can be used in many different tenses.

**85.1 “THERE” IN THE PRESENT SIMPLE**

“There is” is used to talk about singular or uncountable nouns, and “there are” is used to talk about plural nouns.

- There is a hospital in my town.
- There are three hospitals in my town.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- There is a market every Saturday.
- There are several schools and colleges.
- There is always traffic in the city.
- There are some restaurants and bars.

**HOW TO FORM**

- **“THERE”**
  - **“IS”**
  - **SINGULAR NOUN**
  - **REST OF SENTENCE**
  
  There is a hospital in my town.

- **“THERE”**
  - **“ARE”**
  - **PLURAL NOUN**
  - **REST OF SENTENCE**
  
  There are three hospitals in my town.
In the past simple, “there was” is used to talk about singular or uncountable nouns, and “there were” is used to talk about plural nouns.

There was a party here last night.

There were 150 people at the party!

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There was singing and dancing.

There was a clown to entertain the children.

There was a huge mess to clean afterwards.

There were balloons and streamers.

There were speeches after the meal.

There were waiters to refill the guests’ drinks.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“THERE”</th>
<th>“WAS”</th>
<th>SINGULAR NOUN</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>a party</td>
<td>here last night.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“THERE”</th>
<th>“WERE”</th>
<th>PLURAL NOUN</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>were</td>
<td>150 people</td>
<td>at the party.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
85.3 “THERE” IN THE PRESENT PERFECT
In the present perfect, “there has been” is used to talk about singular or uncountable nouns, and “there have been” is used to talk about plural nouns.

There has been a decrease in client satisfaction.

There have been lots of complaints recently.

“Been” doesn’t change form.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There has been increased pressure on employees.

There has been a steady rise in unemployment.

There has been a decrease in petty crime.

There has been success in hiring graduates.

There have been many new jobs advertised.

There have been some thefts in the office.

There have been more training days for staff.

There have been big bonuses this year.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“THERE”</th>
<th>“HAS BEEN”</th>
<th>SINGULAR NOUN</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>has been</td>
<td>a decrease</td>
<td>in client satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“THERE”</th>
<th>“HAVE BEEN”</th>
<th>PLURAL NOUN</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>have been</td>
<td>lots of complaints</td>
<td>recently.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the future with “will,” “there will be” is used to talk about both singular and plural nouns.

There will be a fire drill on Monday.
There will be fire wardens around to help.

In the future with “going to,” “there is going to be” is used to talk about singular nouns, and “there are going to be” is used to talk about plural nouns.

There is going to be a big announcement.
There are going to be big changes!

FURTHER EXAMPLES

There will be a train strike next week.
There will be replacement bus services.

There is going to be a meeting at the office.
There are going to be severe delays.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“THERE”</th>
<th>“WILL BE”</th>
<th>SINGULAR / PLURAL NOUN</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>will be</td>
<td>a fire drill</td>
<td>on Monday.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“THERE”</th>
<th>“IS GOING TO BE”</th>
<th>SINGULAR NOUN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>is going to be</td>
<td>a big announcement.</td>
</tr>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>“THERE”</th>
<th>“ARE GOING TO BE”</th>
<th>PLURAL NOUN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There</td>
<td>are going to be</td>
<td>big changes!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“It” is often used when a sentence has no clear subject, and is sometimes known as a dummy subject or empty subject.

### 86.1 “IT” AS A DUMMY SUBJECT

“It” is used to talk about the time, dates, distance, or the weather. In these sentences, “it” doesn’t have a specific meaning, but it serves as the grammatical subject of the sentence.

- “It” can be used to talk about the time.

  - What time is it? It’s 3 o’clock.

- “It” can be used to talk about distances.

  - How far is it to the beach? It’s 1 mile that way.

- “It” can be used to talk about the day, date, month, or year.

  - What day is it? It’s Tuesday.

- “It” can be used to talk about the weather.

  - What’s the weather like today? It’s cloudy and raining.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- It’s 2 o’clock in the morning. Please stop singing!
- It’s only two miles away.
- It’s the 21st century. I can’t believe you still use that phone.
- I’m surprised that it’s so sunny in the middle of January.

See also:
Defining relative clauses 81
Non-defining relative clauses 82
**INTRODUCTORY “IT”**

Certain set phrases beginning “it is” can be used at the start of a sentence. “It” is the subject of the sentence, and can be used to express a general truth or belief.

**“IT” CLAUSE**

It is easy to make mistakes in a new language.

Some “it” clauses are followed by a “to” infinitive.

**“IT” CLAUSE**

It is a shame that so many people give up.

Some “it” clauses are followed by “that” clauses.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES INTRODUCTORY “IT”**

- It is important to be relaxed about making mistakes.
- It is essential to give yourself time to study regularly.
- It is difficult to remember facts if you don’t write them down.
- It’s unlikely that you will be comfortable speaking aloud at first.
- It’s true that being able to speak a second language is useful.
- It is often said that going to the country of the language helps.
“It” clauses, “what” clauses, or moving a noun to the front of a sentence can all be used to put emphasis on a certain word or phrase.

**FOCUSING WITH “IT” CLAUSES**

Part of a sentence can be emphasized by adding “it is” or “it was” before it, and “that” after it. This can correct a misunderstanding or emphasize something unexpected.

You’ve met my friend John before, haven’t you?

No, it was your friend Michael that I met.

*“It is” or “it was” is added before the noun phrase to be focused.*

*“Your friend Michael” is now the focus of the sentence.*

*“That” is added before the main verb.*

*This stresses that it wasn’t John who I met before.*

*The main verb moves to the end.*

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The second clause is a relative clause. It is most commonly introduced by “that,” “which,” or “who.” “When” and “where” can also be used, but they’re less formal.

It is the engine that I need to replace.

It was the doctor who I needed to call.

It was the cold weather which made me sick.

It was my colleague who prepared the food.

It was summertime when Zoe last saw her cousins.

It was in a bar where Olly first met his wife.

It was the price which changed my mind.

It was the toaster that set off the fire alarm.
**87.2 FOCUSING WITH “WHAT” CLAUSES**

Simple statements can be made more emphatic by adding “what” with the verb “be.” This structure is often used with verbs expressing emotions, such as “love,” “hate,” “like,” and “want.”

Would you like to go to a movie?

No, thanks. **What** I really want **is** to go to bed early.

“**What**” is added to the start of the sentence.

The focused information is put outside the “what” clause.

This has more emphasis than “I really want to go to bed early.”

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

**What** we hated **was** the bad service.

**What** I like here **is** the weather.

**What** they loved the most **were** the museums.

**What** she enjoys the most **is** the music.

**87.3 FOCUSING WITH A NOUN**

If the subject of the sentence cannot be replaced with “what” (for example, people, places, or times) a general noun that has a similar meaning can be used.

I’ve been to many countries. **The place** I most enjoyed visiting **was** Nepal.

I’ve read about some great people. **The woman** I respect the most **is** Marie Curie.

I don’t know why the show was canceled. **The reason** they gave **was** not good enough.

I have lots of fun memories. **The evening** I remember most **is** my first concert.
Inversion

Reversing the normal order of words, or inversion, can be used for emphasis or a sense of drama. It is common after certain types of adverbials.

### 88.1 INVERSION AFTER NEGATIVE ADVERBIALS

In more formal or literary texts, inversion of a verb and its subject is used for emphasis after negative adverbial phrases like “not only,” “not since,” and “only when.”

In this simple sentence, the subject comes before the verb.

She is a famous singer. She is also a very good actor.

Not only is she a famous singer, but she’s also a very good actor.

After the negative adverbial, the subject and the verb swap places.

“But” is optional.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

The auxiliary and subject swap places.

Not since my childhood have I enjoyed a performance so much.

Not until the performance was over did he look up at the audience.

Where there is no auxiliary verb, “do” is used.

Only if it stops raining will the race go ahead this afternoon.

Only when he emerged from the car did the fans start cheering.

Only after the race did he realize what he had achieved.

Little did they know how lucky they are to be successful.

Little did they realize how difficult fame would be.
88.2 INVERSION AFTER TIME ADVERBIALS

Inversion can be used after time adverbials that are negative or restrictive, such as “no sooner” and “never before.” This emphasizes the time at which something happens, or happened.

In this simple sentence, the subject comes before the verb.

*Tina* had just released an album when she starred in her first movie.

No sooner had *Tina* released an album than she starred in her first movie.

The subject (“Tina”) and the auxiliary verb (“had”) swap places.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

**Hardly had she stepped out of the car**

when fans surrounded her.

**Rarely do you meet a celebrity**

with such talent and style.

Never before had a song reached the top of the charts so quickly.

Only sometimes does it not snow during the ski season.

88.3 INVERSION AFTER “SO” AND “NEITHER”

In order to agree with a positive statement, “be” and its subject, or an auxiliary and its subject can be inverted after “so.” For a negative statement, the same is done after “neither.” For a sentence that doesn’t have an auxiliary, “do” is used when it is inverted.

I’ve never been to China.

Neither have I.

I need to get some new clothes.

So do I.

I’m excited for the party tonight.

So am I!

When there is no auxiliary verb, “do” is used.
Some words can be left out of a sentence to avoid repetition, or when the meaning can be understood without them. This is called ellipsis.

### 89.1 ELLIPSIS AFTER CONJUNCTIONS

When two phrases are joined by “and,” “but,” or “or” it is common to leave out repeated words of various kinds.

**He bought tickets,** **but [he] didn’t go.**

Often a repeated subject is dropped after “and,” “but,” or “or.”

**She loved the original and [she loved] the sequel.**

If the meaning remains clear, a repeated subject and verb can be dropped.

**I’m happy to go out or [I’m happy to] stay home.**

If the meaning is clear, words that have already been mentioned and do not require repetition can be omitted.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

She said she’d call, **but she didn’t [call].**

Please may I have a knife **and [a] fork?**

I hope my camera works, **but I don’t think it will [work].**

I’d love to be a boxer, **but I’m not strong enough [to be a boxer].**

You can watch the documentary **or [you can watch] the cartoon.**

I can’t decide if I want a burger **or [I want] a hotdog.**

See also:

- Question words 35
- Coordinating conjunctions 110
Words can also be left out of sentences if the meaning can be understood from the context. This kind of ellipsis does not have strict rules, and is very common in informal everyday speech, particularly when giving replies.

**CONVERSATIONAL ELLIPSIS**

**What time does the movie start?**

Eight.

[It starts at eight o’clock.]

**What kind of popcorn would you like?**

Salted, please.

[I would like salted popcorn, please.]

**What did you think of the film?**

Complete nonsense.

[I thought the film was complete nonsense.]

**QUESTION WORD CLAUSES**

Clauses can be dropped after question words such as “who,” “what,” “where,” and “how.”

Somebody stole my watch, but I don’t know who [stole it].

I want to buy my dad a present, but I’m not sure what [to buy him].

I want to go away, but I can’t decide where [to go].

I need to fix my car, and I’m fairly certain I know how [to fix it].
Phrases with infinitives can sometimes be reduced or shortened to prevent repetition. This helps language to sound more natural.

**90.1 REDUCED INFINITIVES**

Instead of repeating the whole infinitive clause, “to” can be used on its own if the meaning remains clear.

If the previous sentence or clause contains the verb “be,” then the full infinitive “to be” must be used, rather than just “to.”

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**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Let’s see that new DJ tonight.
  - I don’t really want to [see the new DJ].

- She was really critical of the new album.
  - It’s difficult not to be [critical of it].
  - The singing is awful!

- He asked me if I wanted to cook tonight, but I’d prefer not to.
- All my friends are going to the basketball game, but I don’t want to.
- I was going to bring an umbrella, but I decided not to.
- There are more flowers in the garden than there used to be.
- This packaging isn’t recyclable, but it ought to be.

See also: Infinitives and participles 51
DROPPING THE ENTIRE INFINITIVE CLAUSE

The entire infinitive clause can be dropped, or “to” can be kept on its own after some verbs, such as “agree,” “ask,” “forget,” “promise,” “start,” and “try.”

Chris is going to come to the show. He promised [to come].

promised to [come].

The entire infinitive clause can be dropped, or “to” can be kept on its own after some verbs, such as “agree,” “ask,” “forget,” “promise,” “start,” and “try.”

I haven’t seen this band before. I’d love the chance [to see them].

chance to [see them].

The same structure can also be used after some nouns, such as: “chance,” “plans,” “promise,” “idea,” and “opportunity.”

I want to perform on stage, but I’m afraid [to perform on stage].

afraid to [perform on stage].

The same structure can also be used after certain adjectives, such as “delighted,” “afraid,” “willing,” and “determined.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES

We need to leave soon, but I’m not ready.

They told me I could join the team if I wanted to.

I would travel the world if I had the money.

I’m going to pass my driving test. I’m determined to.

I want to go out, but I haven’t got any plans.

Remind me to lock the door, or I’ll forget to.

I would never do a bungee jump. I don’t have the courage.

Thanks for asking me to come to your wedding. I’d love to.
VERBS WITH COMPLEMENTS

The entire infinitive clause cannot be left out after verbs that have complement clauses (phrases that complete their meaning), such as: “advise,” “afford,” “be able,” “choose,” “decide,” “expect,” “hate,” “hope,” “love,” “need,” and “prefer.” “To” must be used after these.

We want to see a band tonight, but we really can’t afford to.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I tried to get to the front of the crowd, but I wasn’t able to.
You could bring some snacks along, but you don’t need to.

I had piano lessons as a child, but I didn’t choose to.
I have never been to the opera, but I would love to.

“WANT” AND “WOULD LIKE”

The “to” of the infinitive clause is not usually dropped after “want” or “would like.”

He asked if I wanted to go, and I said I would like to.
You can come with us if you want.

In “if” clauses, however, “to” can be used on its own or the whole infinitive can be dropped after “want” or “would like.”

The “to” cannot be dropped in a negative clause.

Don’t go to the concert if you don’t want to.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

We could play golf this weekend, if you want.
I asked my friends to play, but they didn’t want to.
Sometimes “to” can be used instead of repeating the whole infinitive.

After nouns and adjectives, sometimes the whole infinitive can be left out.

However the verbs “be” and “have” are not usually omitted when they are used for possession.

It’s also not usually possible to leave out “to” after “like,” “love,” “hate,” “prefer,” “want,” and “choose.”
As well as ellipsis (leaving words out), repetition can be avoided by replacing some phrases with shorter ones. This is called substitution.

### 91.1 SUBSTITUTING WITH “ONE / ONES” AND “SOME”

“One” and “ones” can be used to replace singular and plural countable nouns. “Ones” can only be used to refer to a specific group of things. “Some” is used when the group is not defined, and to replace uncountable nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGLE COUNTABLE NOUNS</th>
<th>PLURAL COUNTABLE NOUNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Does anyone have a copy of the book?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Are there any bookstores near here?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, I have <strong>one.</strong></td>
<td>Yes, there are <strong>some</strong> on Main Street.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“One” replaces “a copy of the book.”</td>
<td>“Ones” can only be used if modified to define the specific things that are meant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I got a raise at work, even though I didn’t ask for **one.**
- Those new computers look great. I want **one** for my birthday.
- I need a new phone, but I don’t know where would be the best place to buy **one.**
- I knitted some scarves and sold a few. **“A few” can be used instead of “some.”**
- I went shopping for dresses and found **some lovely ones.**
- I saw there were new pastries at the bakery, so I thought I’d try **some.**
91.2 SUBSTITUTING WITH “DO”

Verbs and their complements can also be used with substitute words to avoid repetition. “Do” and “did” are often used to replace present and past simple tense verbs, for example.

There’s water everywhere. Should I call a plumber?

Oh no! Yes, do.

I think this homework is really difficult.

I did too, so I asked for help.

I don’t. It’s easy.

“Do” prevents repetition of ‘call a plumber’

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I need to brush my teeth more.

Yes, it’s important that you do.

I thought the exam was really easy.

I didn’t. I really struggled.

91.3 SUBSTITUTING WITH “SO” AND “NOT”

In positive clauses after verbs of thinking, “so” can be used to avoid repetition. “Not” or “not... so” are used in negative sentences.

Will she be signing copies of her book?

No, I don’t think so.

I hope so!

I’m afraid not.

“Not... so” is used with “think,” “believe,” “expect,” and “imagine.”

FURTHER EXAMPLES SUBSTITUTING NEGATIVES WITH “NOT... SO” AND “NOT”

It appears not.

I don’t imagine so.

It doesn’t seem so.

I hope not.

“Not” or “not... so” are used with “appear,” “seem,” and “suppose.”

“Not” is used with with “hope,” “assume,” and “be afraid” (when “afraid” means “sorry”).
Adjectives are words that describe nouns. In English, they usually come before the noun that they are describing. There are several categories of adjective.

### 92.1 USING ADJECTIVES

Adjectives in English are usually placed before the noun they describe. They do not change form to agree with the noun.

**He is a busy man.**

**She is a busy woman.**

**It is a busy town.**

**These are busy streets.**

Adjectives are the same for nouns that describe males or females.

Adjectives are the same for singular and plural nouns.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

**This is a red shirt.**

**It’s a cold day.**

**These are tall buildings.**

**She does great concerts.**

### 92.2 OTHER WAYS TO USE ADJECTIVES

Sometimes, adjectives can be put after a verb such as “be” or “become.”

The adjective can go at the end of the sentence after the verb “be.”

**The town is busy.**

**That house is beautiful.**

**He is annoyed.**

**The cake is delicious.**

**She is very tired.**

**Natalie’s dress is long.**

The noun can be replaced with a pronoun.
Fact adjectives tell you a particular fact about the noun they are describing. There are many different categories of fact adjectives.

- **Size**
  - The children saw an enormous dog.

- **Shape**
  - It’s a round ball.

- **Age**
  - My great-grandmother is very old.

- **Color**
  - Nicole just loves her red hat.

- **Nationality**
  - I love eating French pastries.

- **Material**
  - I’ve bought some leather shoes.

**TYPES OF OPINION ADJECTIVES**

Opinion adjectives describe what somebody thinks about something. General opinion adjectives can describe lots of different things. Specific opinion adjectives can only usually describe a certain type of thing.

- **General opinion**
  - I just bought a very nice guitar.

- **Specific opinion**
  - Sylvester is such a friendly cat!
92.5 ADJECTIVE ORDER

When several adjectives are used together before a noun, they must go in a particular order. Opinion adjectives come before fact adjectives. General opinion adjectives always come before specific opinion adjectives, and the order of fact adjectives in a sentence depends on the type of fact that they describe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENERAL OPINION</th>
<th>SPECIFIC OPINION</th>
<th>SIZE</th>
<th>SHAPE</th>
<th>AGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brie is a</td>
<td>delicious</td>
<td>round</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He’s a</td>
<td>nice</td>
<td></td>
<td>young</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I love your</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>new</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That’s a</td>
<td>lovely</td>
<td>little</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OPINION ADJECTIVES               FACT ADJECTIVES

92.6 ADJECTIVES WITH “-ING” AND “-ED”

“-ING” ADJECTIVES

Adjectives that end in “-ing” describe the effect something has.

The spider is frightening.

The spider causes fright.

“-ED” ADJECTIVES

Adjectives ending in “-ed” describe how something is affected.

The man is frightened.

The man experiences fright.
TIP
English doesn’t usually use more than three adjectives in a row to describe something.

Brie is a delicious round French cheese.

He’s a nice, intelligent young man.

I love your new green dress.

That’s a lovely little china cup.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The fireworks are amazing. She is amazed.

The roller coaster was thrilling. They were thrilled.

I found the book too confusing. I was confused the whole time.

The final scene was really shocking. Everyone was really shocked.

The wasp is annoying. He is annoyed.

The vacation is relaxing. He is relaxed.

Your lecture was interesting. I was interested by your lecture.

That film was very boring. I was very bored.
Gradable and non-gradable adjectives

Gradable adjectives can be made weaker or stronger by adverbs, whereas non-gradable adjectives describe absolute qualities that cannot usually be graded.

93.1 GRADABLE ADJECTIVES

Gradable adjectives can be modified by adverbs to make the adjective's original meaning more or less powerful.

- This book is **very good!**
- This book is **fairly good.**
- This book is **not very good.**

Adverbs change the strength of the adjective.

Things can be more or less "good," so it is a gradable adjective.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **Edmund is extremely talented.**
- **Edmund is reasonably talented.**
- **Edmund is not particularly talented.**
- **This soup is really tasty!**
- **This soup is pretty tasty.**
- **This soup is not very tasty at all.**

See also:
Adjectives 92
Adverbs of degree 100
NON-GRADABLE ADJECTIVES

Non-gradable adjectives cannot usually be modified. These adjectives tend to fall into three categories: extreme, absolute, and classifying.

EXTREME ADJECTIVES

Extreme adjectives are stronger versions of gradable adjectives, such as “awful,” “hilarious,” “fantastic,” or “terrifying.”

ABSOLUTE ADJECTIVES

Absolute adjectives cannot be graded because they describe fixed qualities or states, such as “unique,” “perfect,” or “impossible.”

CLASSIFYING ADJECTIVES

Classifying adjectives are used to say that something is of a specific type or class, such as “American,” “nuclear,” or “medical.”

Her arguments were **fantastic**!

Non-gradable adjectives like “fantastic” cannot be modified by adverbs.

Her presentation was **awful**.

The idea of “extremely” is the meaning of “awful” already.

She has a **unique** presenting style.

It is not possible for something to be more or less unique.

The audience was **American**.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

It’s **boiling** in here. Can we open a window?

I am **certain** that he is the right person for the job.

I’m **terrified** of spiders and snakes!

Let’s go for a walk. The weather outside is **perfect**.
Comparative adjectives are used to compare two things. They can either be formed by adding the suffix “-er,” or by putting “more” or “less” before the adjective.

### 94.1 COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVES

For most adjectives with one or two syllables, “-er” is added to make the comparative.

- Ahmed is tall.
- Ahmed is taller than Jonathan.

“-er” is added to make the comparative.

“Than” is used to introduce the thing that the subject is being compared to.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- Dean is stronger than Carlos.
- A plane is faster than a train.
- 5°F is colder than 85°F.
- Sanjay is younger than Tina.
- Emma is older than Sharon.
- My friends are quicker than me.

### COMMON MISTAKES “THAN” WITH COMPARATIVES

“Then” and “than” can easily be confused because they sound similar, but it is never correct to use “then” to form a comparative.

- Ahmed is taller than Jonathan. ✓
- Ahmed is taller then Jonathan. ✗

The correct word to use in comparatives is “than.”

“Then” sounds similar to “than,” but it is not correct to use “then” after a comparative.
FORMING COMPARATIVES

There are different rules for forming comparatives depending on the ending of the simple form of the adjective.

- **If the adjective ends in “-e,” just an “-r” is added.**
  - close → closer
  - early → earlier
  - big → bigger

- **For some adjectives ending in “-y,” the “-y” is removed and “-ier” added.**
  - good → better
  - bad → worse
  - far → farther (US) / further (UK)

- **For single-syllable adjectives ending consonant-vowel-consonant, the final letter is doubled and “-er” added.**

FURTHER EXAMPLES

- An elephant is **larger** than a rhino.
- My bedroom is **tidier** than my sister’s.
- Spain is **hotter** than England.

IRREGULAR COMPARATIVES

Some common adjectives have irregular comparatives.

- **good** → better
- **bad** → worse
- **far** → farther (US) / further (UK)

FURTHER EXAMPLES

- The house is **farther away** than the tree.
- Jill got a **better grade** than John.
- London has **worse weather** than Paris.

TIP

In US English, “further” and “furthest” are used to describe figurative (not physical) distances.
COMPARATIVES WITH LONG ADJECTIVES

For some two-syllable adjectives and adjectives with three syllables or more, “more” and “than” are used to make the comparative.

This beach is more beautiful than that one.

The adjective “beautiful” has three syllables, so “beautifuller” is not correct.

“More” can be replaced by “less” to give the opposite meaning.

This beach is less beautiful than that one.

HOW TO FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT + VERB</th>
<th>“MORE / LESS”</th>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>“THAN”</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This beach is</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td>than</td>
<td>that one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>less</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FURTHER EXAMPLES

Spiders are more frightening than wasps.

For me, history is less difficult than science.

This book is more interesting than that one.

Walking is less tiring than running.

This dress is more glamorous than I expected.

My job is less exciting than I’d hoped.
Some two-syllable adjectives have two possible comparative forms. Either the comparative ending can be added, or “more” can be used before the adjective.

My cat is \{ friendlier \} than my dog.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The garage is \{ narrower \} than the car.
The lake is \{ shallower \} than the sea.

This puzzle is \{ simpler \} than that one.
My parrot is \{ quieter \} than yours.

This party is \{ livelier \} than yours.
The driver is \{ angrier \} than the cyclist.

COMMON MISTAKES FORMING COMPARATIVES

When forming comparatives, it is incorrect to add “more” before the adjective if it already has a comparative ending.

He’s more friendly than her. ✔

He’s friendlier than her. ✔

He’s more friendlier than her. ✗

“Friendlier” and “more friendly” are correct, but “more friendlier” is not.
ADJECTIVES WITH MODIFIERS

Modifiers can go before comparatives to make comparisons stronger or weaker.

The tree is \{ \text{a lot much} \} taller than the building.

These modifiers mean there is only a small difference between the things you are comparing.

The tree is \{ \text{a bit slightly} \} taller than the building.

These modifiers mean there is a big difference between the things you are comparing.

The palace is \{ \text{much far} \} more beautiful than the factory.

With long comparatives, the modifier goes before “more.”

Form long comparatives by putting “more” before the adjective.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The mountain is \text{much} taller than the hill.

The house is \text{a bit} taller than the statue.

The castle is \text{slightly} bigger than the hotel.

The dress is \text{a lot more} expensive than the shoes.

COMMON MISTAKES USING “VERY” WITH COMPARATIVES

It is incorrect to modify comparatives with “very.”

The tree is \text{much taller} than the building. ✔

The tree is \text{very taller} than the building. ✗
Two comparatives can be used together in a sentence to show the effect of an action. They are also used to show that something is changing.

**COMPARATIVES SHOWING CAUSE AND EFFECT**

Pairing two phrases that use comparative adjectives is a way of making comparisons that show cause and effect.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The harder I train, the stronger I get.

Implies that training results in getting stronger.

The worse the children behave, the angrier the teacher gets.

The louder the cat meows, the louder the dog barks.

**HOW TO FORM**

```
“THE” COMPARATIVE EXPRESSION SUBJECT VERB COMMA “THE” COMPARATIVE EXPRESSION
The harder I train, the stronger I get.
```
Double comparatives that end with “the better” are often shortened where the context makes the meaning obvious to the listener.

```
The stronger [the tea is,] the better [it tastes].
```

These words are implied, or understood, and can be left out.

“The more the merrier” is a phrase that means when more people are at an event, the better it will be.

```
The more [people come,] the merrier [the party will be].
```

This expression means people are welcome.

**HOW TO FORM**

```
The stronger the tea is, the better it tastes.
```

These words are implied, or understood, and can be left out.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

```
What time do we need to leave? The sooner the better.
```

```
Do we need to take a big suitcase? Yes. The bigger the better.
```

```
Sure! The more the merrier.
```

```
Can I bring my brother along?
```

**SHORTENING COMPARATIVE PHRASES**

In two comparatives that go with long adjectives, “more” is repeated but the adjective is not. “And” goes between the repeated comparatives. The repetition emphasizes that the change is continuing. “More” is repeated. The adjective is only used once, after the second “more.”
A comparative can be repeated to show that something is changing. This expression emphasizes the change, and is often used to describe extremes.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The tree outside my house is growing **taller and taller**.

The car went **faster and faster** down the hill.

**LONG COMPARATIVES SHOWING CHANGE**

In two comparatives that go with long adjectives, “more” is repeated but the adjective is not.

Houses are getting **more and more expensive**.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

His music is getting **more and more annoying**.

My job has become **more and more stressful**.
Comparisons using “as... as” constructions can be used to discuss degrees of similarity and difference. They can be modified with adverbs to make them stronger or weaker.

**96.1 “AS... AS” COMPARISONS**

“As... as” comparisons are used with an adjective to compare things that are similar.

Lisa is **as tall** as Marc.

The adjective is in its normal form.

Penny is **not** **as tall** as Marc.

“Not” makes the sentence negative.

“So” is only used in negative comparisons.

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT + VERB</th>
<th>“AS”</th>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>“AS”</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lisa is</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>tall</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>Marc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Will today be **as hot** as yesterday?
- Your desk is **as messy** as mine.
- The bus is **not so crowded** as the train.
- Jenny is **not as busy** as Will.
Modifiers can be added to “as... as” comparisons to make them more detailed or to add emphasis.

**Emphasizing equality.**

Bottled water is **just as** expensive **as** coffee.

**Comparing similarity.**

The girls were **almost as** loud **as** the boys.

This has a very similar meaning to “almost as” but contrasts the difference rather than comparing the similarity.

The movie is **not quite as** good **as** the book.

**Specific degree of difference.**

The bike is **half as long as** the car.

**Emphasizing difference.**

The mouse is **nowhere near as** big **as** the bird.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Sita is **almost as** frightened **as** Justin.

George is **almost as** tired **as** Hetty.

I think fruit is **just as** delicious **as** cake.

Seth is **nowhere near as** old **as** Mabel.

The door is **half as** wide **as** the window.

The skyscraper is **not quite as** tall **as** the mountain.
Superlative adjectives, such as “the biggest” or “the smallest,” are used to talk about extremes. Long adjectives take “most” and “least” to show an extreme.

**97.1 SUPERLATIVE ADJECTIVES**

For most adjectives with one or two syllables, “-est” is added to make the superlative.

```
Horses are faster than dogs, but cheetahs are the fastest land animals.
```

The definite article (“the”) is always used before the superlative.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Giraffes are the tallest animals in the world.
- Sloths are the slowest animals in the zoo.
- Blue whales are the largest animals in the world.
- Dolphins are the smartest animals in the world.

**HOW TO FORM**

```
SUBJECT + VERB  "THE" + SUPERLATIVE  REST OF SENTENCE

Cheetahs are the fastest land animals.
```
**FORMING SUPERLATIVES**

There are different rules for forming superlatives depending on the ending of the simple form of the adjective.

**EXAMPLES**

- **If the adjective ends in “-e,”** “-st” is added.
  - close → closest

- For some adjectives ending in “-y,” the “-y” is removed and “-iest” added.
  - early → earliest

- For adjectives ending consonant-vowel-consonant, the final letter is doubled and “-est” is added.
  - big → biggest

**EXCEPTIONS**

- **Some common adjectives have irregular superlatives.**

**EXAMPLES**

- Driving is **the easiest** way to get there.
- The firefighter was **the bravest** person I’d ever met.
- This has been **the hottest** summer in years!
For some two-syllable adjectives and for adjectives of three syllables or more, use “the most” or “the least” before the adjective to form the superlative.

**The motorcycle is more expensive than the scooter, but the sports car is the most expensive vehicle.**

“The most” is used with the adjective. The adjective stays the same. “Expensivest” is not a valid form.

**The motorcycle is less expensive than the sports car, but the scooter is the least expensive vehicle.**

“The least” means the opposite of “the most.”

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT + VERB</th>
<th>“THE” + MOST / LEAST</th>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This is</td>
<td>the most</td>
<td>expensive</td>
<td>dish on the menu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the least</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The science museum is **the most interesting** museum in town.

This is **the least comfortable** chair in the room.

The Twister is **the most exciting** ride in the theme park.

Teacups are **the least enjoyable** ride in the theme park.
**COMMON MISTAKES FORMING SUPERLATIVES**

When forming superlatives, it is incorrect to add “most” before the adjective if it already has a superlative ending. “Best” is already a superlative adjective so “most” is unnecessary.

I am most best at running. ✗

I am the best at running. ✓

---

**SUPERLATIVES WITH MODIFIERS**

“Easily” or “by far” can make superlative adjectives more specific. “One of” shows that the superlative belongs to a group of things.

The clock tower is \(\{\text{easily, by far}\}\) the tallest building in the town.

These modifiers make the superlative stronger.

The clock tower is one of the most imposing buildings in the town.

“One of” makes the superlative part of a group.

With long superlatives the modifier goes before “the.”

If “one of” is used with superlatives, the noun must be in plural form.

---

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Sally is easily the tallest person I know.

This hostel is by far the cheapest place to stay.

Tim is easily the shortest person I know.

The Grand is by far the most expensive place to stay.

Physics is one of the most confusing subjects I study.

English is one of the least complicated subjects I study.
Adverbs of manner

Words such as “quietly” and “loudly” are adverbs. They describe and give more information about verbs, adjectives, phrases, and other adverbs.

**ADVERBS OF MANNER**

Adverbs of manner describe the way something is done. They usually come after the verb they describe.

“I speak quietly.”

“He speaks loudly.”

**HOW TO FORM**

Most adverbs of manner are formed by adding “-ly” to the adjective. If the adjective ends in “-y,” the “-y” is left out and “-ily” is added to make the adverb.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

A tortoise moves slowly.

Horses can run quickly.

She sings beautifully.

I can play the piano badly.

My dad sneezes noisily.

My sister dresses stylishly.
**98.3 IRREGULAR ADVERBS OF MANNER**

Some adverbs aren’t formed by adding “-ly” to the adjective.

- **good** → **well**
  - The adverb is totally different from the adjective.
- **straight** → **straight**
  - The adverb is the same as the adjective.
- **early** → **early**
  - Adjectives ending “-ly” don’t change to become adverbs.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- It’s dangerous to drive **fast**.
- The job didn’t last **long**.
- Kris often arrives **late**.
- Jon always studies **hard**.

**98.4 ADVERBS WITH THE SAME FORM AS ADJECTIVES**

Some adjectives have more than one meaning. In these cases, the equivalent adverb is often formed differently depending on the meaning of the adjective.

- Chop the onion into **fine** pieces.
  - This means “small.”
- Chop it **finely**.
  - The adverb is formed in the usual way by adding “-ly” to the adjective. “Fine” is incorrect here.
- I’m **fine**.
  - This means “good.”
- I’m doing **fine**.
  - The adverb has the same form as the adjective. “Finely” is incorrect here.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- It’s **free** for children.
- We advocate **free** speech.
- Children are admitted **free**.
- You can speak **freely**.
Adverbs have comparative forms to compare or show differences. They also have superlative forms to talk about extremes.

**99.1 REGULAR COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADVERBS**

Most comparative adverbs are formed using “more” or “less.”

Karen eats more quickly than Tim.

Tim eats less quickly than Sarah.

Most superlative adverbs are formed using “most” or “least.”

Carmen cooks the most frequently.

Bob cooks the least frequently.

**99.2 IRREGULAR COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADVERBS**

“Well” and “badly” have the same comparative and superlative forms as their corresponding adjectives, “good” and “bad.” They are both irregular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>ADVERB</th>
<th>COMPARATIVE</th>
<th>SUPERLATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>well</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>badly</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For some shorter adverbs, the comparative or superlative adjective is sometimes used as the comparative or superlative adverb.

**COMPARATIVE**

My dog moves \{ more slowly \} than my cat.

My tortoise moves the \{ most slowly \}.

**SUPERLATIVE**

Both are correct.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

My sister always runs faster than me.

My sister can run fast, but our brother runs the fastest.

I got to work earlier than everyone else today.

I always arrive the earliest when I cycle, as I beat the traffic.

I’m training harder than my friend for the judo competition.

This is the hardest I’ve ever trained for a competition.

### COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADVERBS

Adverbs that have the same form as an adjective can only become comparative and superlative adverbs by adding “-er” and “-est.”

**COMPARATIVE**

My colleague always works later than me.

**SUPERLATIVE**

My boss always stays the latest.
Adverbs of degree can be placed in front of adjectives and verbs to strengthen or weaken their original meaning. Some adverbs can only be paired with certain adjectives.

**100.1 GRADING ADVERBS**

Adverbs that can be used with gradable adjectives are called grading adverbs. They can be used to make an adjective's meaning stronger or weaker.

This book is [very / extremely / really / remarkably] interesting.

This book is [fairly / quite / slightly] interesting.

This book is [not very / barely / not particularly] interesting.

See also:
- Adjectives 92
- Gradable and non-gradable adjectives 93

**TIP**

Gradable adjectives are adjectives which can be made weaker or stronger by adverbs.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

My brother is extremely talented.

That discussion was fairly heated.

The sunset was remarkably pretty.

I'm feeling slightly unwell.

This TV show is not very exciting.

I'm not particularly happy about this.
NON-GRADING ADVERBS

Some adverbs can be used to qualify non-gradable adjectives. These are called “non-grading adverbs,” and often mean “entirely” or “almost entirely.” They cannot usually be used with gradable adjectives.

Her presentation was **absolutely** awful!

She has a **totally** unique presenting style.

She had a **completely** American audience.

**TIP**

Non-gradable adjectives are adjectives which cannot usually be modified.

**COMMON NON-GRADING ADVERBS**

- absolutely
- utterly
- completely
- nearly
- totally
- practically
- mostly
- virtually
- almost
- mainly
- largely

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The rain is **utterly** torrential.

Our trip was **totally** awesome.

My twin sons are **entirely** identical.

Your answers were **perfectly** correct.

This class is **essentially** pointless.

The weather’s **almost** perfect.

This test is **practically** impossible.

I’ve **virtually** finished my work.
**100.3 “REALLY,” “FAIRLY,” AND “PRETTY”**

A few adverbs can be used with both gradable and non-gradable adjectives. They are “really” (meaning “very much”), and “pretty” and “fairly” (both meaning “quite a lot, but not very”).

- What you need is a really **good** idea.
- You need to be fairly **confident** it works.
- Inventing a new product is pretty **difficult**.

**100.4 “QUITÉ”**

“Quite” can be used with both gradable and non-gradable adjectives. In US English, it usually means “very.” In UK English, it weakens gradable adjectives to mean “not very,” but strengthens non-gradable adjectives to mean “very” or “completely.”

- Her invention is quite **incredible**.
- Her idea was quite **good**.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- I proposed to my husband. It was quite **perfect**.
- I was quite **upset** when I lost my pet rabbit.
- I find it quite **necessary** to shower after exercise.
- It can be quite **difficult** to adjust when you move abroad.
“Quite,” “really,” and “absolutely” can be used to modify verbs. These modifying words must go before the verb.

**COMMON MISTAKES GRADING AND NON-GRADING ADVERBS**

Only grading adverbs can be used with gradable adjectives, and only non-grading adverbs can be used with non-gradable adjectives.

**GRADING ADVERBS**

This book is very good. ✔

This book is absolutely good. ✗

**NON-GRADING ADVERBS**

The plot is very great. ✗

The plot is absolutely great. ✔

**USING ADVERBS OF DEGREE TO DESCRIBE VERBS**

“Quite,” “really,” and “absolutely” can be used to modify verbs. These modifying words must go before the verb.

In UK English “quite” doesn’t have as strong an emphasis as “really.” In US English the emphasis is stronger.

I quite enjoy cycling. “Quite” can be used before “enjoy” and “like.”

I really like cycling. “Really” can be used before “like,” “love,” “enjoy,” “don’t like,” and “hate.”

I absolutely love cycling. “Absolutely” can be used before “love” and “hate.”

“Really” is used to mean “a lot more.”

“Absolutely” is used in extreme forms.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

He quite likes playing tennis.

He really loves eating cake.

She really enjoys playing guitar.

I really don’t like cooking.

She really hates waking up early.

They absolutely hate singing.
Adverbs of time are used to give more precise information about exactly when something happens. They can also refer to a continuing event or action.

**101.1 "JUST" AND "ABOUT TO"**

These adverbs give more information about when or if an action happened.

Tom has **just** arrived home and he's **about to** go to bed.

- **JUST** means something has happened very recently.
- **ABOUT TO** means something will happen very soon.

**RECENT PAST** **NOW** **NEAR FUTURE**

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- I've **just** called a cab. It should be here soon.
- I'm on my way. I've **just** finished packing my suitcase.
- I was going to have a meal at the airport, but the plane has **just** arrived.
- The flight attendant is **about to** bring us food.
- The plane is **about to** land. We must fasten our seat belts.
- I'm **about to** book a table for tonight. How many of us are there?
“ALREADY” AND “YET”

“Already” is used when something has happened, usually sooner than expected. “Yet” means “until now.” It shows that something hasn’t happened, but it will happen in the future.

The show has **already** started, but we haven’t arrived **yet**.

“**STILL**”

The adverb “**still**” means an action or situation is ongoing.

I’m **still** watering the flowers.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

- What time is Andrew going to get here?
  - He’s **already** arrived.

- Have you booked the taxi?
  - No, I haven’t called them **yet**.

- Has Rob cooked the dinner?
  - No, not **yet**.

- I’ll order the pizzas now.
  - It’s **OK**. I’ve **already** ordered them.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

- I’m **still** working. I won’t finish until 7 tonight.

- The shop is **still** open. Let’s go in before it closes.

- The phone is **still** ringing. Will someone answer it?

- We **still** live in the same house, but it’s too small for us now.
Adverbs of frequency show how often something is done, from something done very frequently ("always") to something not done at all ("never").

**Adverbs of frequency**

Adverbs of frequency usually go between the subject and the main verb. The time phrase usually goes at the end of the sentence.

**How to form**

Adverbs of frequency can also be described with more precise expressions. Unlike adverbs of frequency, these must sit at the end of a phrase.

**Questions about frequency**

"How often" is used to ask about how often someone does an activity.

"When" is used to ask about the day or time it is done.

**Further examples**

The adverb of frequency usually goes before the verb.

Precise frequency expressions usually go at the end of a phrase.
**102.2 ADVERBS AND EXPRESSIONS OF FREQUENCY**
Frequency can also be described with more precise expressions. Unlike adverbs of frequency, these must sit at the end of a phrase.

The adverb of frequency usually goes before the verb. Precise frequency expressions usually go at the end of a phrase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Regularly</th>
<th>Hardly Ever</th>
<th>Go Running</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| I              | I go running | five times a week. | every Tuesday. | once a year. |

**102.3 QUESTIONS ABOUT FREQUENCY**
“How often” is used to ask about how often someone does an activity. “When” is used to ask about the day or time it is done.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often do you go away?</th>
<th>I usually go away once a year.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often do you go to the beach?</th>
<th>Not very often.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often do you see your friends?</th>
<th>All the time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When do you go running?</th>
<th>I go on Thursday nights.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When do you go to the gym?</th>
<th>On Tuesdays and Fridays.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| When does your family eat dinner? | At 6pm every evening. |
“So” and “such” are adverbs which can be used with certain words to add emphasis. They are similar in meaning, but they are used in different structures.

**103.1 “SO” AND “SUCH”**

Unlike most adverbs, “such” can be used before a noun to add emphasis. It can also be used before an adjective and noun combination.

- **The trial was such a success.**
- **It was such an important experiment.**

“So” can be used before an adjective or an adverb to add emphasis.

- **The reaction is so dangerous.**
- **The surgery went so well!**

“So much” is used before a comparative adjective or a comparative adverb to add stronger emphasis.

- **This hospital is so much cleaner than that other one.**
- **Diseases spread so much faster as a result of air travel.**

**TIP**

- “Such” + “a / an” is more common with extreme nouns rather than neutral ones.
- “So” is never used on its own before comparative words.

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See also:
- Adjectives 92
- Comparative adjectives 94
- Adverbs of manner 98
- Comparative and superlative adverbs 99
“SO” AND “SUCH” WITH “THAT”

“That” can be used with “so” and “such” to introduce a particular result caused by the fact being emphasized.

“SUCH” + “A/AN” + NOUN + “THAT”

The disease is such a mystery that it doesn’t even have a name yet.

“SUCH” + “A/AN” + ADJECTIVE + NOUN + “THAT”

This is such a strange injury that it is hard to diagnose.

“SO” + ADJECTIVE + “THAT”

Medical research is so expensive that drugs are often costly.

“SO” + ADVERB + “THAT”

He recovered so quickly that he was able to go home the next day.

“SO MUCH” + COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVE + “THAT”

The new treatment was so much more effective that he felt better the same day.

“SO MUCH” + COMPARATIVE ADVERB + “THAT”

Hospitals are now being built so much more quickly that more people can be treated.
“Enough” is used when there is the correct degree or amount of something. “Too” is used when something is more than necessary or wanted.

### 104.1 ADJECTIVE / ADVERB + “ENOUGH”

“Enough” can be used after an adjective or adverb to show that it’s the right degree.

- **ADJECTIVE + ENOUGH**
  - This house is **big enough** for us.

- **ADVERB + ENOUGH**
  - She isn’t speaking **loudly enough**. I can’t hear her.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **This food isn’t hot enough to eat.**
- **My bag is big enough for my books.**
- **The traffic isn’t moving quickly enough.**
- **I didn’t read the instructions carefully enough.**

### 104.2 NOUN + “ENOUGH”

“Enough” and “not enough” can be used to talk about quantities of countable and uncountable nouns. “Enough” comes before the noun.

- **Do we have enough balloons?**
  - Balloons are countable.
  - “Enough” can also be used without a noun.

- **We only have two. That’s not enough.**
  - “Enough” can be used after an adjective or adverb.

- **Do we have enough food?**
  - Food is uncountable.

- **We have these snacks. That’ll be enough.**

See also:
- Countable and uncountable nouns 70
- Adjectives 92
- Adverbs of manner 98
"ENOUGH" AND "TOO" WITH AN INFINITIVE CLAUSE

In English, "enough" and "too" are used with infinitive clauses. They state whether something is to the right degree or extent for the infinitive clause to happen.

Is this mango ripe enough to eat?

Yes, it’s ripe enough to eat.

No, it’s not ripe enough to eat.

No, it’s too ripe to eat.
Prepositions are words that are used to show relationships between different parts of a clause, for example relationships of time, place, or reason.

### 105.1 SIMPLE PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions describe the relationship between two other words. They are usually part of a prepositional phrase, which is made up of a preposition followed by an object (a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase).

*By* describes where the park is in relation to the house.

There’s a beautiful park **by** my house.

*On* helps to describe when Chrissy goes to the gym.

Chrissy goes to the gym **on** Wednesdays.

### 105.2 COMPLEX PREPOSITIONS

Some prepositions are made up of two words which act as a single unit. They behave the same way as one-word prepositions.

The bank is **next to** the library.

### 105.3 PARALLEL PREPOSITIONS

When the same preposition applies to more than one word in a list, the preposition only needs to be used once.

I sent presents **to** Al and [**to**] Ed.

When different words need different prepositions, each preposition must be used.

Look **at** and listen **to** the teacher.
**PREPOSITIONS AND GERUNDS**

If a verb comes immediately after a preposition, it has to be a gerund, which is the “-ing” form of a verb.

After **graduating**, I worked in a hospital.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Instead of applying for a job, I went to college.

After seeing the job listing, I wrote a cover letter.

**PREPOSITIONS AT THE END OF SENTENCES**

Prepositions can come in many different places in a sentence, including at the end.

I’m listening **to** some music. ✓

I like having something to listen **to**. ✓

**“TO”**

“To” can cause confusion because it can be a preposition, but it is also used to form infinitives.

Here, “to” is part of the infinitive verb “to see.” When used like this, it is not a preposition.

Here, “to” is part of the phrasal verb “look forward to,” and is a preposition. Therefore, it must be followed by a noun, pronoun, or gerund.

I’m going **to** see my friends tonight.

I’m looking forward **to** seeing them.
Prepositions of place are used to relate the position or location of one thing to another. Using a different preposition usually changes the meaning of a sentence.

106.1 “IN,” “AT,” AND “ON”

“In” is used to position something or someone inside a large area or in a three-dimensional space.

The Louvre is in Paris.

David is in his bedroom.

“In” positions David inside his bedroom.

“At” is used to talk about an exact point.

Turn left at the next corner.

Let’s meet at the restaurant.

“On” is used to position something in line with, next to, on top of, or attached to something else.

I love traveling on trains.

There’s a spider on the floor!

FURTHER EXAMPLES

They live in a hot country.

The dog is sleeping in his basket.

I will meet you at the beach.

Jane is working at her desk.

I like that picture on the wall.

The books are on the table.

See also:
Question words 35
Prepositions 105
**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- There’s a sign **above** the door.
- There’s a mouse **underneath** the bed!
- My house is **near** a lovely park.
- The table is **opposite** the television.
- I was stuck **behind** a truck all the way home.
- I like those photos **on top of** the bookshelf.
Prepositions of time are often used to talk about schedules and routines. They give information about when something happens, and how long it lasts.

**107.1 “ON”**

“On” is often used before days of the week to say when something happens.

I work on Mondays.

“-s” can be added to the day of the week to show that the thing happens regularly on that day.

In US English the preposition can be left out.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The library is closed on Sundays.

I’m going shopping on Saturday.

I have orchestra practice on Fridays.

I’ll visit my grandparents on Monday.

**107.2 “AT”**

“At” is usually used to express what time something happens.

I leave the house at 8am.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

They are meeting at 1 o’clock.

I have an appointment at 7 o’clock.

I have a yoga class at lunchtime.

I get the bus at half past 8.

See also:

Present perfect continuous 12
Prepositions 105
107.3 “ON” AND “AT” WITH “THE WEEKEND”
When talking about the weekend, US English uses “on,” whereas UK English uses “at.”

I watch TV \{ \text{on} \} \text{ the weekend.}

“I watch TV \text{ on } \text{ the weekend.}” is more common in the US.

“I watch TV \text{ at } \text{ the weekend.}” is more common in the UK.

107.4 “IN”
“IN” has a similar meaning as “during” and is used before months, years, seasons, and general times of day, e.g. “morning” and “afternoon.”

I go to the gym \text{ in } \text{ the morning.}

“I go to the gym \text{ on } \text{ the weekend.}” is more common in the US.

“I go to the gym \text{ at } \text{ the weekend.}” is more common in the UK.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I usually watch TV \text{ in } \text{ the evening.}

She’s going to Europe \text{ in } \text{ June.}

I was born \text{ in } 1973.

I enjoy gardening \text{ in } \text{ summer.}

107.5 “PAST” AND “TO”
“Past” and “to” are prepositions of time that are mainly used when telling the time.

“It’s twenty \text{ past } \text{ seven.}”

“It’s twenty \text{ to } \text{ seven.}”

“Past” means “after the hour.”

“To” means “until the hour.”
**PREPOSITIONS SHOWING DURATION**

“From... to...” or “between... and...” are used to say when an activity starts and finishes.

- “From” is used to say the time something starts.
- “To” is used to say the time something finishes.
- “Between” is used to say the time something starts.
- “And” is used to say the time something finishes.

I work from 9am to 5pm.

“Until” can be used to say when an ongoing situation finishes.

- “Until” + TIME OR DATE

I will be working until five o’clock.

“Since” can be used to say when an ongoing situation started.

- “Since” + TIME OR DATE

I have been working since 9am.

“For” can be used to express how long something has been happening.

- “For” + QUANTITY OF TIME

I have been working for six hours.

“During” can be used to express when something was happening, rather than how long it went on for.

I relaxed during my break.
“By” is used to talk about when something will be done or finished. It means “at” or “before.”

“I will finish this report by 3pm.”

“Before” is used to talk about something that happens prior to something else or a certain time.

“I will finish work before 6 o’clock.”

“After” is used to refer to an event that follows another event.

“I’ll clean the tables after my break.”

“Since” is usually used with perfect tenses with reference to the past. It is not used with the present simple.

The present perfect continuous is often used with since.

“Tim has been working here since last year.”

“Tim works here since last year.”

Since can’t be used with the present simple.

“Since” is usually used with perfect tenses with reference to the past. It is not used with the present simple.

COMMON MISTAKES TENSES WITH “SINCE”
Prepositions can be used to express relationships other than place and time, such as origin, ownership, and absence.

### 108.1 “BY”

“By” has several common uses in English.

**RESULT**

When used to talk about an action, it refers to something that is done to achieve a certain result.

I fixed my television by hitting it.

**ACTION**

It is used to say who wrote or made something.

I’m reading 1984 by George Orwell.

It is used to talk about methods of travel.

I always go to work by train.

“On foot” is an exception to this rule.

This was painted by a famous artist.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

I broke my phone by dropping it in a puddle.

It’s too far to walk into town. It’s much easier to go by bus.

This show is based on a short story by Jane Austen.

That new building was designed by a famous architect.
“WITH” AND “WITHOUT”

“With” has several common uses in English.

It can mean “accompanied by.”

I went to a restaurant with my wife.

I want a job with a good salary.

I cut this apple with a knife.

It is used to talk about possession.

Vera came to the party without a gift.

It is used to talk about the thing used to perform an action.

“Without” is used to talk about the absence of something.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I need to move somewhere with better phone reception.

I need to hire someone with excellent computer skills.

Christina paid for the dress with her credit card.

Wait! Don’t leave without me!

“ABOUT”

“About” is mainly used to mean “on the subject of.”

I’m watching a documentary about Ancient Greece.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I’m going to call the bank about their bad service.

I’m sorry, but I have no idea what you’re talking about.
Dependent prepositions

Some words must be followed by a specific preposition, called a dependent preposition. These words can be adjectives, verbs, or nouns.

109.1 ADJECTIVES WITH DEPENDENT PREPOSITIONS

Some adjectives are always followed by the same preposition when used in a sentence.

ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION

It was good of my friend to offer to babysit last night.

Some adjectives can take one of a choice of prepositions in the same sentence without changing their meaning.

You seemed surprised \{at \by\} their behavior.

“Surprised” can be followed by either “at” or “by” without a change in meaning.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

The babysitter was angry about looking after naughty children.

The children are impressed by practical jokes.

My parents are annoyed with me for not cleaning my room.

Janine is tired of watching children’s shows on TV.

My friends are getting ready for their new baby.

She is excited about going hiking in the mountains.

See also:
Types of verbs 49  Singular and plural nouns 69
Adjectives 92  Prepositions 105
109.2 VERBS WITH DEPENDENT PREPOSITIONS

Some verbs are followed by a specific preposition before an object. Different verbs are followed by different prepositions.

The head chef used to **shout at** the staff to encourage them to work harder.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The café was **counting on** the new menu to impress its customers.

The café **advertised for** another chef to join the team.

The head chef **spoke to** the manager about hiring more kitchen staff.

What do you **think about** leaving early on Fridays?

109.3 VERBS WITH “TO” OR “FOR”

Some verbs can take either “to” or “for,” depending on the context. “To” is usually used when there is a transfer of something, whereas “for” is used when someone benefits from something.

He **sold** the house **to** the family.

[The family bought the house.]

He **sold** the house **for** the family.

[He sold the house on behalf of the family.]
Some nouns are always followed by the same preposition when used in a sentence.

**I always keep a photograph of my family on my desk.**

Some nouns can take one of a choice of prepositions in the same sentence without changing their meaning.

“There are advantages {in to} moving away to study.”

---

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- **It is important to have a positive attitude toward studying.**
- **The cause of traffic jams is often bad town planning.**
- **I’ve been working hard to find a solution to this problem.**
- **There has been a steady increase in students passing their exams.**
- **The demand for public buses increases every year.**
- **Take your time planning a response to the essay question.**
Some adjectives, verbs, and nouns can be followed by a choice of prepositions. The meaning of the phrase is dependent on which preposition the adjective, verb, or noun is paired with.

I’m anxious for my vacation to start.
   [I’m excited for my vacation.]
I’m anxious about being late for my flight.
   [I’m worried I’m going to miss my flight.]

He talked to the teacher.
   [He had a conversation with the teacher.]
He talked about the teacher.
   [He had a conversation with someone else, discussing the teacher.]

I have a good relationship with my parents.
   [The relationship between me and my parents is good.]
The relationship between family members is important.
   [It’s important that family members have a good relationship.]

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I’m upset about how badly my exams went.
I’m upset with myself for failing my exams.

The charity needs to appeal for more volunteers.
The campaigns appeal to students.

Pests are a serious problem for farmers.
Farmers have a serious problem with pests.
Coordinating conjunctions are words that link words, phrases, or clauses of equal importance. There are special rules for using commas with coordinating conjunctions.

### 110.1 USING “AND” TO JOIN SENTENCES

“**And**” is used to join two sentences together in order to avoid repeating words that appear in both, and to link ideas.

**There’s a library. There’s a restaurant.**

There’s a library **and** a restaurant.

“**There’s**” is the same as “There is.”

The second “there’s” can be dropped when joining sentences using “and.”

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- Jazmin’s sister lives and works in Paris.
- My father and brother are both engineers.
- Simon plays video games and watches TV every night.
- I bought a dress and some shoes for the party tonight.
- My sister called earlier, and she told me she’s pregnant!
- I feel sick, I ate two sandwiches and a large slice of cake for lunch.

### 110.2 USING A COMMA INSTEAD OF “AND”

For lists of more than two items, a comma can replace “and.”

**There’s a library, a store, and a café.**

This comma is replacing “and” in the list.

Another comma is used before the “and.”

The “and” is kept between the final two nouns.
“**OR**”

“Or” is most often used to list two or more choices or alternatives.

**Do you want to go to Germany or France?**

“Or” can also be used to talk about the consequences (usually negative) of an action.

**Don’t be late, or you will miss the train.**

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- Should we go out or should we stay at home instead?
  - I can’t decide whether to get a dog or a cat.

- Should we paint the kitchen blue or green?
  - Be careful when cooking, or you might burn yourself.

---

“**NOR**”

“Nor” shows that two or more things are not true or do not happen. After “nor,” use a positive form of the verb, and invert the verb as for a question.

**I’ve never eaten lobster, nor do I want to.**

- The subject comes after the verb.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- He can’t play the guitar, nor can he sing.
- Fiona didn’t turn up to dinner, nor did she answer my calls.
- My television doesn’t work, nor does my stereo.

---

**TIP**

“Nor” is uncommon in informal English.
"BUT"

"But" is used to join a positive statement to a negative statement, or to show a contrast between two clauses.

There’s a hotel. There isn’t a store.

There’s a hotel, **but** there isn’t a store.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- My daughter likes to eat apples, **but** she doesn’t like pears.
- I went to the supermarket, **but** I forgot my purse.
- My friend does tap dancing, **but** she doesn’t do ballet.
- I wanted to be an architect, **but** I didn’t pass my exams.
- I’m on a diet, **but** I find it hard to avoid chocolate.
- My friends invited me out tonight, **but** I don’t feel well enough to go.

"YET"

"Yet" has a similar meaning to "but." It is used when something happens in spite of something else, or when something is true, even though it seems to contradict something else.

It’s a warm day, **yet** Raymond’s wearing a coat.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- George lives in the countryside, **yet** he works in a nearby city.
- There was a school near my house, **yet** I went to one on the other side of town.
- I’ve asked him to be quiet and **yet** he continues to talk during lessons.
“SO”
When “so” is a conjunction, it is used to show that something happens as a consequence of something else.

It was a lovely day, so we went for a walk.

FURTHER EXAMPLES
My house was a mess, so I spent the weekend cleaning.

The cathedral is very famous, so it attracts a lot of tourists.

I don’t like pasta, so I rarely go to Italian restaurants.

I work outside, so I have to be careful that I don’t get sunburned.

Stephen moved to London, so he speaks English quite well now.

I ate before I came out, so I will only have a coffee.

USING COMMAS WITH COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS
If a coordinating conjunction is joining two main clauses, a comma usually goes before the conjunction.

It was raining, and there was lightning.

I’m going to wear jeans and a shirt.

I need eggs, flour, and milk.

Would you like tea, coffee, or juice?
Subordinating conjunctions are used to connect words, phrases, and clauses of unequal importance. They’re used to say why, where, or when something happens.

**111.1 SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS FOR PURPOSE**

“So that” can be used to talk about the purpose of an action. It is followed by another clause.

He complained **so that** he’d get a refund.

“In order to” has a similar meaning to “so that,” but it’s followed by a verb in its base form.

He called the company **in order to** complain.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

She went back to the store **in order to** show them her receipt.

The assistant took the receipt **to process the refund**.

She reported the problem **so that** it could be fixed.

They check everything **so that** customers don’t receive broken items.

In informal speech, “in order” is often dropped.

See also:
Present simple 1  Modal verbs 56  Defining relative clauses 81
“Because” is used to talk about why something happens or the reasons behind a decision.

He got a refund because he complained.

- This is the main clause.
- “Because” is used before giving the reason.
- This is the reason.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

It’s a noisy town because there are lots of cars.

My village is quiet because there are only a few families here.

I decided to move to the country because it’s beautiful.

“Although” is used to talk about something that is unexpectedly true.

“Even though” means the same thing as “although,” and it’s more common in speech.

Although I’ve done it before, I found the run very difficult.

Even though I have two cousins, I’ve never met them.

I’m going to the beach this weekend, even though I can’t swim.
English uses “when” as a conjunction to talk about events or actions in the future that must happen before another event or action can take place. These phrases are called subordinate time clauses and are usually used with the present simple.

**FIRST EVENT**

**SECOND EVENT**

When it gets dark, he’ll light the fire.

“When” indicates that the first event has not happened yet.

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- When I finish my report, I’ll call you.
- I’ll put up shelves when the paint dries.
- When you get home, will you make dinner?
- When it stops raining, I’ll go out.

**ANOTHER WAY TO SAY IT**

UK English sometimes uses the present perfect instead of the present simple in subordinate time clauses.

- When it has stopped raining, we’ll go outside.
- We’ll go outside when it has stopped raining.
- We won’t go outside until it has stopped raining.

The present perfect still describes a future event.
111.5 “AS SOON AS”

“As soon as” has a similar meaning to “when,” but it implies that the second event will take place immediately once the first event is complete.

I’ll call you as soon as I leave work.  
[I’ll call you immediately when I leave work.]

111.6 “WHILE”

“While” is used to connect two clauses that are happening at the same time.

I watered the plants while my husband mowed the lawn.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I chopped the vegetables while Ted washed the potatoes.

I didn’t get any sleep while the owl was hooting outside.

I read the newspaper while I waited for the kettle to boil.
Some words can be used to show a relationship between two sentences, or parts of a sentence. This can be cause, effect, emphasis, contrast, or comparison.

112.1 FORMAL LINKING WORDS
Some linking words are used most often in formal writing and speaking situations.

The castle was built in 1272, **whereas** the town is modern.

His talk was popular and his book was **similarly** well-liked.

Video calls are popular **due to** global internet access.

It’s free to visit the museum. **Hence** it’s very popular.

He is known for his research, **primarily** into royal families.

See also:
Coordinating conjunctions 110
Subordinating conjunctions 111
Some linking words are mostly used in informal writing and speech.

**TIP**
Stress can be added to the linking word to emphasize the relationship between words when speaking.

1. I like listening to music, **but** my mother hates it. (Shows contrast)
2. He’s a talented swimmer, **like** his great-grandfather was. (Shows comparison)
3. The elderly can get around easily, **because of** local bus services. (Shows reason)
4. Staying in touch is easy, **because** we all have smartphones. (Shows result)
5. We grew up together, **so** we tell each other everything. We are very close. **As a result**, we know everything about each other. (Shows effect)
6. All my siblings are tall, **especially** my older sister. (Shows emphasis)
CONJUNCTIONS

Coordinating conjunctions join together two words, phrases, or clauses of equal importance.

I like roses and sunflowers.

I like gardening, but I hate mowing the lawn.

A comma is used before a conjunction to link two main clauses with different subjects. The comma shows where one main clause ends and another begins.

Flora tried to water her flowers, but the hose burst.

USES OF CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions can be used to describe a variety of relationships between two words, phrases, or clauses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>if in case</td>
<td>after after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unless</td>
<td>until until</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as long as</td>
<td>when when</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so long as</td>
<td>before before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>even if</td>
<td>while while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as soon as</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conjunctions are linking words that describe the relationship between two parts of a sentence. They can be coordinating or subordinating.

Subordinating conjunctions join together two words, phrases, or clauses of unequal importance. A subordinate clause adds more information about the main clause.

**Subordinating conjunction**

**MAIN CLAUSE**

She had to cut the tree down **because** it was too tall.

**SUBORDINATE CLAUSE**

**MAIN CLAUSE**

Before she started, she put on gloves.

**SUBORDINATE CLAUSE**

The subordinate clause can also go at the start of a sentence.

**contrast**

although  
but  
however  
even though  
whereas  
yet

**cause**

as  
because  
since

**reason**

in order to  
in order that  
so  
so that  
since

See also:
“Either / neither / both” 68  
Linking words R25
Prefixes are small groups of letters which can be added to the start of many words to give them different meanings.

### 114.1 PREFIXES

Prefixes attach to the start of a word to change its meaning. Prefixes usually give the same change in meaning to each word they attach to.

- **im-** = *not*
  
  Polly thought her boss was very rude and **impolite**.

- **mis-** = *wrongly*
  
  Leona was worried that she had **misunderstood** the recipe.

- **re-** = *again*
  
  Tom was **rewriting** his essay because his teacher gave him a low grade.

- **un-** = *not*
  
  Jane is **unlikely** to study history because she prefers science.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- This exercise is too hard. It’s completely **impossible**! Brendan had **misplaced** his passport. He couldn’t find it anywhere.

- I didn’t work very hard this year. I’ll have to **re-take** my exams. Please clean up your desk. It’s very **untidy**.

- A fear of ghosts is totally **irrational**, they don’t exist! You should go to see the new exhibit. It’s absolutely **outstanding**.
Some words can take more than one kind of prefix to give different meanings.

The fish is **cooked** perfectly. It’s delicious!

The fish is **undercooked**. It tastes terrible.

The fish is **overcooked**. It’s totally burned.

# 114.3 COMMON PREFIXES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREFIX</th>
<th>MEANING</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anti-</td>
<td>against</td>
<td>It’s always safer to use an <strong>antibacterial</strong> handwash.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-</td>
<td>together</td>
<td>Erika loves her job because her <strong>coworkers</strong> are so nice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>My parents <strong>disapprove</strong> of my career decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex-</td>
<td>former</td>
<td>Clara is an <strong>ex-soldier</strong>. She used to be in the army.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>im-, in-, ir-</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>Unfortunately, most of my answers were <strong>incorrect</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inter-</td>
<td>between, among</td>
<td>Matteo’s band had become an <strong>international</strong> success.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mid-</td>
<td>middle</td>
<td>Jo’s essay got a low grade because it finished <strong>mid-sentence</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mis-</td>
<td>wrongly</td>
<td>I think the referee <strong>misjudged</strong> the situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>I don’t like this book at all. The plot is complete <strong>nonsense</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out-</td>
<td>better than others</td>
<td>Yue’s work is fantastic. She’s <strong>outperforming</strong> everyone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over-</td>
<td>too much</td>
<td>It’s okay to work hard, but make sure you don’t <strong>overdo</strong> it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-</td>
<td>after</td>
<td>New mothers should receive good <strong>postnatal</strong> care.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>The experiment will go ahead at a <strong>prearranged</strong> time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>again</td>
<td>If you don’t get into the school, you could <strong>reapply</strong> next year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-</td>
<td>oneself</td>
<td>Ronda can be a little bit too <strong>self-confident</strong> sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub-</td>
<td>under</td>
<td>Mark’s work this year has been <strong>substandard</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super-, sur-</td>
<td>above, over</td>
<td>There’s a small <strong>surcharge</strong> if you want to use a credit card.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>reverse, cancel, not</td>
<td>Stacy couldn’t find the right key to <strong>unlock</strong> the safe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under-</td>
<td>beneath, below</td>
<td>I think the waiter has <strong>undercharged</strong> us for this meal.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Suffixes are small groups of letters which can be added to the end of many words to give them different meanings.

### 115.1 SUFFIXES

Suffixes attach to the end of a word to change its meaning. Suffixes usually give the same change in meaning to each word they attach to.

- **-able** = possible to be  
  It’s useful to set yourself achievable targets at work.

- **-ful** = full of  
  The principal was so pleased that the play was successful.

- **-ist** = someone who  
  My friend Jamie is the best artist I know.

- **-less** = without  
  I don’t like the food in the cafeteria. It is tasteless.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- Hugo is very funny and kind. He’s a really likeable guy.
- I can paint the house in a day. It’s definitely doable.
- Sarah is a violinist. She plays in her local orchestra.
- Now that I’ve passed my exams, I am hopeful for the future.
- What a boring lecture. Being there was pointless.
- I am a perfectionist. My work takes me a long time.
### 115.2 USING SUFFIXES
Some words can take more than one kind of suffix to give different meanings.

- The best jokes are in good **taste**.
- That joke was hilarious. It was very **tasteful**.
- That joke was offensive. It was very **tasteless**.

### 115.3 COMMON SUFFIXES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
<th>MEANING</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-able, -ible</td>
<td>able to be</td>
<td>It is perfectly acceptable to submit your essays online.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al, -ial</td>
<td>having characteristics of</td>
<td>The verdict was based entirely on circumstantial evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ance, -ence</td>
<td>state of</td>
<td>Male lions fight each other to assert their dominance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ate</td>
<td>become</td>
<td>You need to activate your credit card before you can use it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dom</td>
<td>place or state of being</td>
<td>Older children can be given a greater amount of freedom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>become</td>
<td>They are planning to widen the roads to reduce congestion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er, -or</td>
<td>person who performs an action</td>
<td>Shakespeare is probably the most famous English writer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>full of</td>
<td>The computer is one of the most useful inventions ever.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ic, -tic, -ical</td>
<td>having characteristics of</td>
<td>Running is a great form of physical exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ism</td>
<td>an action, state, or system</td>
<td>Surrealism was a major art movement of the 20th century.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ist, -ian</td>
<td>someone who plays or does</td>
<td>A pianist is somebody who can play the piano.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ity, -ty</td>
<td>quality of</td>
<td>Equality is the belief that everybody should be equal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ize</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>I’m trying to maximize our profits by selling more stock.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-less</td>
<td>without</td>
<td>The possibilities of technology are limitless.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>condition of, act of</td>
<td>Buying property can be a very good investment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>state of</td>
<td>Lots of people today are interested in health and fitness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ous</td>
<td>having qualities of</td>
<td>The inland taipan is the most venomous snake in the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-sion, -tion</td>
<td>state of being or act of</td>
<td>All essays should end with a good conclusion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-y</td>
<td>characterized by</td>
<td>The weather’s terrible today. It’s very cloudy outside.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Certain suffixes are only used for specific types of words. The suffix of a word can sometimes show what part of speech the word is.

### ADJECTIVES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-able, -ible</td>
<td>comfortable, manageable, sensible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al, -ial</td>
<td>accidental, controversial, seasonal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>golden, wooden, woolen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>powerful, useful, wonderful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ic, -tic, -ical</td>
<td>historic, poetic, radical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-less</td>
<td>harmless, powerless, tasteless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ous</td>
<td>continuous, famous, outrageous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-y</td>
<td>cloudy, funny, stormy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### NOUNS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-acy</td>
<td>conspiracy, diplomacy, literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>accusal, betrayal, denial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ance, -ence</td>
<td>competence, defiance, dominance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ant, -ent</td>
<td>accountant, defendant, student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ism</td>
<td>capitalism, modernism, realism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ist</td>
<td>optimist, pessimist, pianist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ity, -ty</td>
<td>equality, royalty, society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>employment, entertainment, government</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### SUFFIX SPELLING RULES

#### VERBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Example Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ate</td>
<td>activate, debate, inflate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>brighten, sweeten, widen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ify</td>
<td>classify, mystify, simplify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ize</td>
<td>energize, immunize, minimize</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### If the suffix starts with a vowel, and the root ends with a stressed final syllable ending consonant-vowel-consonant, the last letter of the root is doubled before adding the suffix.

- **occur** → **occurrence**

#### If the suffix starts with a vowel and the root ends with an “-e,” the final “-e” is dropped from the root before adding the suffix. Roots ending “-ge” or “-ce” are an exception.

- **debate** → **debatable**
- **manage** → **manageable**

The “e” stays in the word.

#### If the root ends consonant plus “-y,” the “y” changes to an “i” before any suffix is added. The exception is “-ing.”

- **plenty** → **plentiful**
- **apply** → **applying**

“-y” doesn’t change before “-ing.”

#### If the root ends vowel plus “-y,” the final “-y” does not change.

- **employ** → **employable**

The “-y” does not change to an “i.”
In English, there are several phrases which sound or look similar, but have different meanings. It is important not to get these confused.

### 116.1 “GET USED TO” AND “BE USED TO”

To “get used to (doing) something” describes the process of adapting to new or different situations until they become familiar or normal.

Waking up early for my new job was difficult at first, but eventually I *got used to it*.

I’ve lived in the city for years, so I am *used to* the bad pollution.

To “be used to (doing) something” means that something has been done for long enough that it is normal and familiar.

### FURTHER EXAMPLES

- **When I travel, I get used to different customs very quickly.**
  
  [I find it easy to adapt to different customs when I travel.]

- **I got used to the cold weather within a couple of weeks.**
  
  [I adapted to the cold weather within two weeks.]

- **I am used to spicy food as I’ve always eaten it.**
  
  [I am accustomed to eating spicy food.]

- **We were used to the old teacher, so it was a shame when she left.**
  
  [We were accustomed to our previous teacher, but then she left.]
“HAVE / GET SOMETHING DONE”

“Have” and “get” can be used with a noun and the past participle to talk about something someone does for someone else. “Get” is less formal than “have.”

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

The structure is used with “should” to give advice.

**You should get your connection checked.**
[I think you should arrange for someone to check your connection.]

**They haven’t had the locks changed yet.**
[They haven’t arranged for somebody to change the locks for them.]

**Will you get the oven fixed soon?**
[Will somebody fix the oven for you soon?]

**The store has its produce checked daily.**
[Somebody checks the store’s produce each day.]

**I need to get my hair cut.**
[I need someone to cut my hair.]

**Most people have burglar alarms installed.**
[Most people have someone fit them a burglar alarm.]

**HOW TO FORM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>“HAVE / GET”</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The company</td>
<td>has / gets is having / is getting had / got</td>
<td>the computers</td>
<td>updated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Have” and “get” can appear in different tenses. The action happens to the object.
Sequencing and organizing

There are a number of words and phrases in English which help to explain the order of events. They can also be used to organize text and make it easier to understand.

117.1 SEQUENCING PHRASES

Certain words and phrases indicate at what point in a sequence something happens.

First, he woke up.  Then he ate breakfast.  Next, he had a shower.  After that, he got dressed.  Finally, he went to work.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

In the morning, we watched the sun rise over the Serengeti.  Meanwhile, we got ready to go on safari.  Finally, we saw some lions.

First, I got some money out of the bank.  Second, I bought some food from the supermarket.  After that, I had some coffee.

First of all, the chef mixed together butter and sugar.  After that, she added eggs and flour.  Finally, she put the mix in the oven.

See also:
More linking words 112
Making conversation 120
Some discourse markers show what is coming next. They help organize paragraphs and longer passages of formal text.

**Sequencing markers** can help put information in order.

- **First of all, To begin with,** it is important to consider which courses you want to study.

- **Additionally, Furthermore,** you should keep in mind where you want to study.

- **Moreover,** you should consider whether you want to study abroad.

- **For example, For instance,** you can also look at other activities, a **club or society.**

- **“Such as”** can only be used in the middle of a sentence to introduce examples.

**Conclusion markers** are used when summing up.

- **In conclusion, Overall,** several factors will affect your choice of college.

**TIP**

These organizing words often go at the beginning of a clause or sentence.
Correcting and changing the subject

Set words and phrases can be used to correct someone, disagree, change the subject, or concede a point. They often come at the beginning of the sentence.

118.1 CORRECTING AND DISAGREEING

Certain words can be used to show you disagree with someone or to correct a misunderstanding.

I don’t think this painting is worth that much.

Actually, it sold at auction for $2 million.

Wow! Do you like it?

I don’t, actually. It’s not very impressive.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

That play was really good, wasn’t it?

Well, I found the plot quite hard to follow, to be honest.

But the actors were excellent!

I’m afraid I don’t think so. I thought they were terrible.

Did you enjoy the book I gave you?

Really? It’s so well written!

Actually, I found it quite boring.

I don’t agree. I prefer thrillers.

See also:
More linking words 112  Deciding and hedging 119  Making conversation 120

TIP
These phrases can appear impolite if spoken with heavy emphasis.
118.2 CHANGING SUBJECT

“By the way” shows a change of subject.

I think this gallery is fantastic. Oh, by the way, did you read the article about this exhibit in The Times?

“As I was saying” returns to a previous subject after a change of subject or an interruption.

As I was saying, this is a fantastic exhibit. I really like the range of artwork.

“Anyway” returns to a subject after an interruption or a change in subject. It can also end a subject or a conversation.

Anyway, I should say goodbye. I want to visit the gallery shop before it closes.

118.3 CONCEDING A POINT

Certain words can be used to agree to, or concede, a point, particularly after first doubting it to be true.

I told you this museum is very expensive.

You’re right! I expected it to be cheaper.

FURTHER EXAMPLES

I think this sculpture is made of stone.

You have a good point. At first I thought it was metal.

This painting could be by Picasso.

I see your point. The style is similar.
English uses a number of words and phrases to discuss the different sides of an argument or to make sentences sound less definite.

**119.1 DISCUSSING ARGUMENTS**

There are specific words and phrases which are used to discuss or compare the good and bad sides of an argument.

*I’m not sure whether to go to the party tonight.*

*On the one hand, I’d have a great time. On the other hand, I have work to do.*

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

Although my friends will be at the party, I don’t want to stay up late.

I could go to the party. **Alternatively** I could stay in and study.

**Of course,** there is going to be good music and lots of food.

I don’t want to study Art. **However,** my teacher thinks I’m good at it.

**Despite** my reservations, I think I’ll go to the party anyway.
119.2 HEDGING

Hedging words and phrases can be added to a sentence to make its meaning less definite, direct, or strong.

Polls \{ suggest, indicate \} that locals dislike the new statue.

Hedging verbs.

It is \{ arguably, potentially \} the strangest statue around.

Hedging adverbs.

To a certain degree, To some extent, \} locals feel their views are being ignored.

Hedging phrases.

119.3 “SEEM” AND “APPEAR”

“Seem” and “appear” are words used to distance oneself from a statement. This is useful when it is not certain if the statement is true.

The prisoners \{ seem, appear \} to have vanished.

“Seem” and “appear” are often followed by another verb in the infinitive.

It \{ seems, appears \} that the prison cell was left unguarded.

“It seems” or “It appears” can be followed by a “that” clause.

It would \{ seem, appear \} that a file was used to break the bars.

“Would” adds even more distance or uncertainty.
Many words and phrases are used in English to ease the flow of conversation. These techniques are often called organizing, backchanneling, or stalling.

**120.1 INFORMAL ORGANIZING WORDS**

A number of general words can be used to move from one topic to another in conversational English.

- "Right" gets attention before saying something important.
  
  **Right, let’s get started...**

- "OK" acknowledges that the other speaker has been heard.
  
  **...OK, and are you happy with your choice?**

- "So" indicates that a conclusion is being reached.
  
  **...So, I think we agree overall.**

**120.2 BACKCHANNELING**

When listening to another speaker, it’s common to use words to show you agree and are paying attention. This is known as backchanneling.

- I’m thinking about doing a course. **Really?**
- My company has funding... **Wow!**
- ...and I’m really tempted to apply. **OK.**
- I’ve just moved house and my commute is very long. **Uh-huh.**
- The problem is, I don’t have much spare time. **Oh right.**
- The scheme is very competitive. I’ll have to see what happens. **Of course.**
If extra time is needed to think about a difficult question before answering it, a response can be started with a stalling phrase to indicate that the question is being considered.

**STALLING TECHNIQUES**

**FURTHER EXAMPLES**

- **Would you be happy to work weekends?**
  
  **Well, I do have two children.**

- **What are your strengths?**
  
  **I have excellent computer skills.**

- **Why should we hire you?**
  
  **Let’s see... I think my experience would be very useful.**

- **So, I’m thinking of quitting my job.**
  
  **You know, that might be a bad idea.**

- **I mean, the change would be good.**

- **Sort of, but you’ve always wanted to work where you are now.**

- **Now, I didn’t think of it that way.**

- **I kind of think in the long run you’d be much happier staying where you are.**
PARTS OF SPEECH

The different types of words that make up sentences are called parts of speech. Only nouns and verbs are essential elements of a sentence, but other parts of speech, such as adjectives and adverbs, can make a sentence more descriptive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART OF SPEECH</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
<th>EXAMPLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>a name, object, concept or person</td>
<td>cat, Evie, girl, house, water, happiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjective</td>
<td>describes a noun or pronoun</td>
<td>big, funny, light, red, young</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>shows an action or a state of being</td>
<td>be, go, read, speak, swim, walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adverb</td>
<td>describes verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, giving information on how, where, when, or how much</td>
<td>briskly, easily, happily, here, loudly, quite, rather, soon, together, very</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pronoun</td>
<td>takes the place of a noun</td>
<td>he, she, you, we, them, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preposition</td>
<td>describes the relationship between a noun or pronoun and another word in the sentence</td>
<td>about, above, from, in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conjunction</td>
<td>a joining word, used to link words, phrases, or clauses</td>
<td>and, because, but, while, yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interjection</td>
<td>an exclamation or remark</td>
<td>ah, hey, hi, hmm, wow, yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>article</td>
<td>used with a noun to specify whether the noun is a particular person or thing, or something general</td>
<td>a, an, the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determiner</td>
<td>precedes a noun and puts the noun in context</td>
<td>all, her, my, their, your</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE ALPHABET

The English alphabet has 26 letters. “A,” “E,” “I,” “O,” and “U” are vowels, and the rest are consonants.

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff Gg Hh Ii Jj Kk Ll Mm Nn Oo Pp Qq Rr Ss Tt Uu Vv Ww Xx Yy Zz
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PUNCTUATION MARK</th>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>USE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| .                | period (US) | • marks the end of a complete statement  
                  | full stop (UK) | • marks the end of an abbreviated word |
| ...              | ellipsis | • marks where text has been omitted or a sentence is unfinished |
| ,                | comma  | • follows an introductory word, phrase, or clause  
                  |          | • can separate a non-essential part of a sentence  
                  |          | • can be used with a conjunction to join two main clauses  
                  |          | • separates words or phrases in a list  
                  |          | • represents omitted words to avoid repetition in a sentence  
                  |          | • can be used between an introduction to speech and direct speech |
| ;                | semi-colon | • separates two main clauses that are closely related  
                  |          | • separates items in a complex list |
| :                | colon   | • connects a main clause to a clause, phrase, or word that is an explanation of the main clause, or that emphasizes a point in the main clause  
                  |          | • introduces a list after a complete statement  
                  |          | • introduces quoted text |
| ’                | apostrophe | • marks missing letters  
                  |          | • indicates possession |
| -                | hyphen  | • links two words in compound modifiers and some compound nouns  
                  |          | • can be used in fractions and in numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine  
                  |          | • can join certain prefixes to other words |
| “ “             | inverted commas | • can be used before and after direct speech and quoted text  
                  |          | • pick out a word or phrase in a sentence  
                  |          | • can be used around titles of short works |
| ?                | question mark | • marks the end of a sentence that is a question |
| !                | exclamation mark | • marks the end of a sentence that expresses strong emotions  
                  |          | • can be used at the end of an interruption to add emphasis |
| ( )             | parentheses (US) | • can be used around non-essential information in a sentence  
                  | brackets (UK) | • can be used around information that provides clarification |
| —                | dash    | • can be used in pairs around interruptions  
                  |          | • marks a range of numbers (5–6 hours)  
                  |          | • indicates start and end of a route (Paris–Dover rally) |
| •                | bullet point | • indicates a point in a list |
| /                | slash   | • can be used to show an alternative instead of using the word “or” |
**R4 PRESENT TENSES**

The **present simple** is used to make simple statements of fact, to talk about things that happen repeatedly, and to describe things that are always true.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / We / They</td>
<td>play</td>
<td>tennis every day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She</td>
<td>plays</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The **present continuous** is used to talk about ongoing actions that are happening in or around the present moment. It is formed with “be” and a present participle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;BE&quot;</th>
<th>PRESENT PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>wearing</td>
<td>jeans today.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She</td>
<td>is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You / We / They</td>
<td>are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**R5 THE IMPERATIVE**

**Imperatives** are used to give commands or to make requests. They are formed using the base form of the verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turn</td>
<td>right.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Add “do not” or “don’t” to make an imperative negative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&quot;DON'T&quot;</th>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Don't</td>
<td>turn</td>
<td>right.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**The past simple** describes single, completed actions in the past. It is the most commonly used past tense in English.

**The past continuous** is used in English to talk about actions or events that were ongoing at some time in the past. It is formed with “was” or “were” and a present participle.

**The present perfect simple** is used to talk about events in the past that still have an effect on the present moment. It is formed with “have” and a past participle.

**The present perfect continuous** describes an activity that took place over a period of time in the recent past. The activity might just have stopped or might still be happening.
**R8 PAST PERFECT TENSES**

The past perfect simple is used to talk about a completed action that took place before another completed action in the past.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;HAD&quot;</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / He</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>gone</td>
<td>to work already.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She / We / They</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The past perfect continuous describes a repeated action or ongoing activity that was taking place before another completed event in the past.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;HAD BEEN&quot;</th>
<th>PRESENT PARTICIPLE</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / He</td>
<td>had been</td>
<td>studying</td>
<td>English for two years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She / We / They</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**R9 "USED TO" AND "WOULD"**

"Used to" is used with the base form of a verb to talk about past habits or past states. "Would" can also be used in this way, but only to talk about past habits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;USED TO / WOULD&quot;</th>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I / You / He</td>
<td>used to</td>
<td>play</td>
<td>tennis every day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She / We / They</td>
<td>would</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**R10 FUTURE FORMS**

The future with "going to" is used to talk about decisions that have already been made, or to make predictions when there is evidence in the present moment to support them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>&quot;BE&quot;</th>
<th>&quot;GOING TO&quot;</th>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>REST OF SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>going to</td>
<td>buy</td>
<td>a new car.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He / She</td>
<td>is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You / We / They</td>
<td>are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The future with "will" is used to talk about decisions made at the time of speaking, to make predictions not supported by evidence, to offer to do something, or to make promises.

**The future continuous** uses "will" or "going to" and "be" with a present participle to describe an event or situation that will be in progress at some point in the future.

**FUTURE PERFECT**

The future perfect is used to talk about an event that will overlap with, or finish before, another event or point in the future.

The future perfect continuous is used to predict the length of an activity. This tense looks back from that imagined time in the future.
## FORMING NEGATIVES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TENSE</th>
<th>POSITIVE STATEMENT</th>
<th>NEGATIVE STATEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present simple with “be”</td>
<td>I am interested in politics.</td>
<td>I am not interested in politics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present simple with other verbs</td>
<td>I play tennis every day.</td>
<td>I do not play tennis every day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present continuous</td>
<td>He is wearing jeans today.</td>
<td>He is not wearing jeans today.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past simple with “be”</td>
<td>She was at the lecture yesterday.</td>
<td>She was not at the lecture yesterday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past simple with other verbs</td>
<td>We cooked enough food last night.</td>
<td>We did not cook enough food last night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past continuous</td>
<td>It was raining this morning.</td>
<td>It was not raining this morning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect simple</td>
<td>I have seen the new movie.</td>
<td>I have not seen the new movie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect continuous</td>
<td>I have been waiting for a long time.</td>
<td>I have not been waiting for a long time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect simple</td>
<td>Sam had cooked dinner for me.</td>
<td>Sam had not cooked dinner for me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect continuous</td>
<td>Fey had been looking for a new job.</td>
<td>Fey had not been looking for a new job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future with “going to”</td>
<td>It is going to be sunny tomorrow.</td>
<td>It is not going to be sunny tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future with “will”</td>
<td>They will be here before 5pm.</td>
<td>They will not be here before 5pm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future continuous</td>
<td>Tania will be arriving soon.</td>
<td>Tania will not be arriving soon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future perfect simple</td>
<td>The play will have finished by 7pm.</td>
<td>The play will not have finished by 7pm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future perfect continuous</td>
<td>I will have been working for a long time.</td>
<td>I will not have been working for a long time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### MODAL VERB

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODAL VERB</th>
<th>POSITIVE STATEMENT</th>
<th>NEGATIVE STATEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Can”</td>
<td>I can play the piano.</td>
<td>I cannot play the piano.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Could”</td>
<td>I could sing when I was younger.</td>
<td>I could not sing when I was younger.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Should”</td>
<td>We should buy a new house.</td>
<td>We should not buy a new house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Might”</td>
<td>He might come to the party tonight.</td>
<td>He might not come to the party tonight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Must”</td>
<td>You must write in pencil.</td>
<td>You must not write in pencil.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### CONTRACTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRONOUN</th>
<th>“BE”</th>
<th>“WILL”</th>
<th>“WOULD”</th>
<th>“HAVE”</th>
<th>“HAD”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>I am</td>
<td>I’m</td>
<td>I will</td>
<td>I would</td>
<td>I have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>you are</td>
<td>you’re</td>
<td>you will</td>
<td>you would</td>
<td>you have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>he is</td>
<td>he’s</td>
<td>he will</td>
<td>he would</td>
<td>he has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>she is</td>
<td>she’s</td>
<td>she will</td>
<td>she would</td>
<td>she has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>it is</td>
<td>it’s</td>
<td>it will</td>
<td>it would</td>
<td>it has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>we are</td>
<td>we’re</td>
<td>we will</td>
<td>we would</td>
<td>we have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>they are</td>
<td>they’re</td>
<td>they will</td>
<td>they would</td>
<td>they have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>that is</td>
<td>that’s</td>
<td>that will</td>
<td>that would</td>
<td>that has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who</td>
<td>who is</td>
<td>who’s</td>
<td>who will</td>
<td>who would</td>
<td>who has</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### COMMON MISTAKES CONTRACTIONS

These contractions are often spelled incorrectly because they look and sound very similar to other words. Contracted forms always use an apostrophe.

- **You are** → **You’re**
- **They are** → **They’re**
- **Your** → **Your**
- **Their** → **Their**
- **There** → **There**
Prepositions are words that are used to create or show relationships between different parts of a clause, for example time, place, or reason. They can only be followed by a noun, pronoun, noun phrase, or gerund.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREPOSITION</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>about</td>
<td>Today’s lecture is about the Cold War.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above</td>
<td>The balloon flew above the city.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>We can go to the park after lunch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>against</td>
<td>I’m against building new houses here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>among</td>
<td>The document is among these papers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at</td>
<td>Let’s meet at the bus stop later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because of</td>
<td>I’m late because of the train’s delays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>Could you get here before lunchtime?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>behind</td>
<td>The park is behind that hedge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>below</td>
<td>He lives in the apartment below mine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beneath</td>
<td>Potatoes grow beneath the ground.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between</td>
<td>I live between Vancouver and Calgary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between... and</td>
<td>They’ll arrive between 7pm and 8pm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by</td>
<td>Please pay by the end of the month.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>despite</td>
<td>The café is busy despite the high prices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>during</td>
<td>Turn off your phone during the show.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due to</td>
<td>Due to the rain, the game was canceled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>except (for)</td>
<td>Everyone had arrived except for Liam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>following</td>
<td>Following losses, the store closed down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for</td>
<td>I haven’t been back to Delhi for years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from</td>
<td>Our new colleague is from Lithuania.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from ... to</td>
<td>I work from 9am to 5pm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>There’s plenty of food in the cupboard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in front of</td>
<td>Don’t stand in front of the television!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instead of</td>
<td>Can we have pizza instead of pasta?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like</td>
<td>This tastes like butter, but it has less fat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>near</td>
<td>We live quite near the airport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>next to</td>
<td>The supermarket is next to the bank.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on</td>
<td>I have piano lessons on Tuesdays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on top of</td>
<td>Put the vase on top of the bookcase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out of</td>
<td>Don’t let the cat out of her box yet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over</td>
<td>Lots of planes fly over my village.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past</td>
<td>It’s ten past nine. You’re late!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regarding</td>
<td>Let’s talk regarding your new job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>since</td>
<td>I haven’t been to Las Vegas since 2007.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thanks to</td>
<td>Thanks to your efforts, we won a prize.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through</td>
<td>Shall we walk through the park?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>throughout</td>
<td>I laughed throughout the whole movie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>When are you going to Canada?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toward</td>
<td>The child just ran toward his mother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unlike</td>
<td>It’s unlike Karen to be so rude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>until</td>
<td>We’ll be in Portugal until Friday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under(n)ath</td>
<td>I think the ball’s under(n)ath the bush.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with</td>
<td>Will you come with us to the concert?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>within</td>
<td>I ran the marathon within four hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>without</td>
<td>I’ve come out without my phone.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## ADJECTIVES AND PREPOSITIONS

Some adjectives have to be followed by a specific preposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>PREPOSITION</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>afraid</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>It’s surprising how many adults are afraid of the dark.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ashamed</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>You should be ashamed of that remark. It was very hurtful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bored</td>
<td>with</td>
<td>If you’re bored with that book, read a different one instead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>I’m very close to my cousins because we’re all similar ages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crazy</td>
<td>about</td>
<td>All the children at the school are crazy about the same TV show.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>different</td>
<td>from (UK) / than (US)</td>
<td>He’s always been different from / than other boys of his age.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excited</td>
<td>about</td>
<td>Max was very excited about his first football game.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>famous</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>She was mainly famous for her career in politics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good / bad</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>I’ve always been very good at geography, but bad at history.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good / bad</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>Too much sugar is bad for us and should be avoided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guilty</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>The vandal was found guilty of criminal damage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impressed</td>
<td>by</td>
<td>I’ve always been impressed by your ability to forgive people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interested</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>More and more students are interested in media studies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jealous</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>Older children are often jealous of their younger brothers or sisters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keen</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>My parents aren’t very keen on classical music.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nervous</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>I’ve been nervous of dogs since one bit me when I was a child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pleased</td>
<td>at / with</td>
<td>Most of the voters were pleased at / with the result of the election.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proud</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>The coach felt very proud of his team when they lifted the trophy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsible</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>I’m responsible for ensuring that everything runs smoothly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>similar</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>Don’t you think she looks very similar to her cousin?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surprised</td>
<td>at / by</td>
<td>We were all surprised at / by the news of your resignation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suitable</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>The village roads aren’t suitable for heavy trucks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tired</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>We’re tired of city life and would like to move to the country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wrong</td>
<td>with</td>
<td>Can you tell me what’s wrong with my answer?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some nouns have to be followed by a specific preposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOUN</th>
<th>PREPOSITION</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advantage</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>The advantage in going last is that you know the target time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aim</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>The aim of this lesson is to understand algebra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amazement</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>I gasped in amazement at the price tag!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anger</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>Sally felt a flash of anger at the suggestion that she hadn't tried.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apology</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>The referee gave a public apology for his bad decision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>belief</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>We share a strong belief in the goodness of people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>Political disagreement is the cause of many family arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>danger</td>
<td>of / in</td>
<td>The danger in / of trying to please everyone is that you please no one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demand</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>There is always an increased demand for ice cream in hot weather.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difficulty</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>If you experience any difficulty in breathing, call the doctor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excitement</td>
<td>about / at</td>
<td>There was great excitement about / at the treasure they had found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fear</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>Many people experience a fear of flying at some point.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hope</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>The hope of a cure for cancer is growing all the time now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interest</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>Several teachers have expressed an interest in the new course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>The building project will not go ahead because of a lack of money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>photograph</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>Have you seen this photograph of my grandmother's wedding?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>point</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>There's no point in arguing; we won't change our minds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possibility</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>With this grade, there is the possibility of postgraduate study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>problem</td>
<td>with</td>
<td>There was a problem with the delivery of the package.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reason</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>The customer gave poor quality as the reason for her complaint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>response</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>We had a terrific response to our survey about salaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solution</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>I can offer you a simple solution to this problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>success</td>
<td>in / at</td>
<td>He said that his success in / at the sport was down to his training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surprise</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>There was huge surprise at the result of the election.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>way</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>The best way of removing stains is with warm, soapy water.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some verbs have to be followed by a specific preposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>PREPOSITION</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accuse (someone)</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>The security guard accused the girl of shoplifting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apologize</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>I’d like to apologize for that last comment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appeal</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>The magazine really needs to appeal to teenagers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apply</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>Are you going to apply for that job in the newspaper?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approve</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>Matt doesn’t approve of his daughter’s new boyfriend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask (someone)</td>
<td>about</td>
<td>Can you ask someone about the time of the next train?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>believe</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>This company doesn’t believe in asking you to work overtime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>belong</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>Does this coat belong to you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blame (someone)</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>Don’t blame me for being late.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compare (someone)</td>
<td>to / with</td>
<td>We shouldn’t compare the new teacher to / with Mr. Hockly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concentrate</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>I’m finding it difficult to concentrate on this homework.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>congratulate (someone)</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>Let me be the first to congratulate you on your new baby.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>count</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>We’re counting on everyone’s support for this new venture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>criticize (someone)</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>The politician was criticized for his extravagant lifestyle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deal</td>
<td>with</td>
<td>This training will help you to deal with difficult members of the public.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>against</td>
<td>We’ve decided against floor-to-ceiling closets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>We’ve decided on pale blue for the bedroom. It looks great.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happen</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>Accidents always seem to happen to Paul. He’s very unlucky.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insist</td>
<td>on</td>
<td>The club insists on its members dressing up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remind (someone)</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>Doesn’t Ellie remind you of her mother? She’s so like her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shout</td>
<td>at</td>
<td>There’s no point in shouting at the dog. He’s deaf!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stop (someone)</td>
<td>from</td>
<td>The yellow band is there to stop people from tripping over the step.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succeed</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>Fran succeeded in passing her driving test on the third try.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>about</td>
<td>Take time to think about the proposal. There’s no rush.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worry</td>
<td>about</td>
<td>It’s natural to worry about your children when they’re out.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some verbs are followed by an infinitive or a gerund. Some can be followed by either without changing their meaning.

### VERBS FOLLOWED BY AN INFINITIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advise</td>
<td>compel</td>
<td>hope</td>
<td>promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afford</td>
<td>dare</td>
<td>instruct</td>
<td>refuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>decide</td>
<td>intend</td>
<td>remind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aim</td>
<td>demand</td>
<td>invite</td>
<td>seem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allow</td>
<td>deserve</td>
<td>learn</td>
<td>teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appear</td>
<td>enable</td>
<td>manage</td>
<td>tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arrange</td>
<td>expect</td>
<td>offer</td>
<td>tend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ask</td>
<td>encourage</td>
<td>order</td>
<td>threaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beg</td>
<td>fail</td>
<td>persuade</td>
<td>wait</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
<td>forbid</td>
<td>plan</td>
<td>want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose</td>
<td>guarantee</td>
<td>prepare</td>
<td>warn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claim</td>
<td>help</td>
<td>pretend</td>
<td>wish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### VERBS FOLLOWED BY A GERUND

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>admit</td>
<td>discuss</td>
<td>involve</td>
<td>recommend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoid</td>
<td>dislike</td>
<td>justify</td>
<td>resent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciate</td>
<td>enjoy</td>
<td>keep</td>
<td>risk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complete</td>
<td>fancy</td>
<td>mind</td>
<td>see someone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consider</td>
<td>feel like</td>
<td>miss</td>
<td>spend time / money</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delay</td>
<td>finish</td>
<td>practice</td>
<td>suggest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deny</td>
<td>imagine</td>
<td>prevent</td>
<td>understand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### VERBS FOLLOWED BY AN INFINITIVE OR A GERUND (NO CHANGE IN MEANING)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>cease</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>prefer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can’t bear</td>
<td>continue</td>
<td>love</td>
<td>propose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can’t stand</td>
<td>hate</td>
<td>need</td>
<td>start</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### COMMON STATE VERBS

State verbs describe states, such as emotions, possession, senses, or thoughts. They are not usually used in continuous tenses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MEANING</th>
<th>STATE VERB</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>feeling / wanting</td>
<td>like / love</td>
<td>I like / love Italian ice cream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>need</td>
<td>We really need to spend more time together as a family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>prefer</td>
<td>Most people prefer summer to winter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>want</td>
<td>The band wants to become famous and make money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>believe</td>
<td>I believe your story, but it is rather unlikely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>doubt</td>
<td>Lots of people doubt that he can do the job properly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>know</td>
<td>Do you know where we parked the car?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mean</td>
<td>What do you mean when you say you aren’t ready?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>think</td>
<td>What do you think about the proposed policy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>understand</td>
<td>Could you speak more slowly? I don’t understand you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>being / existing</td>
<td>appear / seem</td>
<td>It appears / seems that the house has already been sold.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>exist</td>
<td>Strange creatures exist at the bottom of the sea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>belong</td>
<td>Excuse me, that book belongs to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possessing</td>
<td>have / own</td>
<td>My neighbor has / owns three classic cars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>include</td>
<td>Did you include Lucy in the guest list?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feel</td>
<td>Does your leg feel better today?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sensing</td>
<td>hear</td>
<td>I can hear you, but I’m not sure what you’re saying.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hurt</td>
<td>My arm really hurts. I think I should go to see the doctor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>see</td>
<td>Can you see the blackbird in the bush over there?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>feel</td>
<td>This rug feels so soft. It would be lovely to walk on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>smell</td>
<td>Something smells delicious. Is it the soup?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sound</td>
<td>That sounds like thunder, or is it just fireworks?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>taste</td>
<td>This milk tastes a bit sour. I think it’s gone bad.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some phrasal verbs can be separated by the object of the verb. In these cases, the verb goes first, then the object, then the particle. This separation is usually optional. However, if the object of a separable phrasal verb is a pronoun, then the phrasal verb must be separated by the pronoun.

### Separable Phrasal Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHRASAL VERB</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bring up</td>
<td>look after a child until he / she is an adult</td>
<td>Samira’s grandparents brought her up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring up</td>
<td>mention something</td>
<td>You should bring any problems up with your manager.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carry out</td>
<td>perform an action</td>
<td>If you give me instructions, I’ll carry them out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clean up</td>
<td>clean something thoroughly</td>
<td>Can you help me clean the kitchen up please?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do up</td>
<td>restore / decorate something</td>
<td>We’ve bought an old house and we’re going to do it up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fill in / out</td>
<td>write information in a form</td>
<td>Could you just fill this short form in / out for me, sir?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fill up</td>
<td>make something completely full</td>
<td>I’m just going to the gas station to fill the car up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get back</td>
<td>find / get something after it has been lost / taken</td>
<td>The police got my car back after it had been stolen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give up</td>
<td>stop doing something</td>
<td>Smoking is really bad for you, You should give it up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hand out</td>
<td>distribute something</td>
<td>Be quiet! I’m about to hand the exam papers out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leave out</td>
<td>not include something / someone</td>
<td>I can’t believe that they left you out of the team!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let out</td>
<td>release something / someone</td>
<td>The school’s going to let the children out early today.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look up</td>
<td>find information, e.g. in a dictionary</td>
<td>When does the show start? Can you look it up for me?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make up</td>
<td>invent something</td>
<td>I didn’t believe Dave’s story. I think he made it up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pick up</td>
<td>take hold of something and lift it</td>
<td>Pick that paper bag up!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pull down</td>
<td>demolish / destroy something</td>
<td>They’re going to pull all those old apartments down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>put off</td>
<td>delay doing something</td>
<td>I’m going to put the party off until Dad feels better.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set up</td>
<td>arrange / organize something</td>
<td>We’re helping to set the music festival up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take up</td>
<td>start a new hobby</td>
<td>I never thought I’d take birdwatching up, but I love it!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>throw away</td>
<td>get rid of something</td>
<td>We never throw any food away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn down</td>
<td>refuse / reject something / someone</td>
<td>It was a great job offer but I turned it down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn on</td>
<td>start an electrical device</td>
<td>Quick! Turn the TV on. The final is about to start.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wake up</td>
<td>make someone stop sleeping</td>
<td>Will you wake me up at 8am if I oversleep?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write down</td>
<td>write something on paper</td>
<td>Could you write your email address down for me?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some phrasal verbs cannot be separated. Their object always comes after them, even if it is a pronoun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHRASAL VERB</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>check in / into</td>
<td>announce your arrival</td>
<td>Guests may check into the hotel from 4pm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come across</td>
<td>find by chance</td>
<td>I came across some old photographs while cleaning up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cut back on</td>
<td>reduce / decrease something</td>
<td>The government wants to cut back on spending.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deal with</td>
<td>handle / manage someone or something</td>
<td>We learned how to deal with difficult customers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do without</td>
<td>manage without something</td>
<td>We can do without a vacation this year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get along / on with</td>
<td>have a good relationship</td>
<td>I find it easy to get along / on with people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get on / off</td>
<td>walk / climb on or off a bus, train,</td>
<td>Please take care when you get off the plane.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>plane, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get out of</td>
<td>leave a car / taxi, etc.</td>
<td>Be careful when you get out of the car.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get over</td>
<td>recover (from an illness)</td>
<td>It took me a long time to get over the last cold I had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get through</td>
<td>finish something successfully</td>
<td>The trial was very stressful, but we got through it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go over</td>
<td>check or examine something</td>
<td>Remember to go over your answers carefully.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go with</td>
<td>match, suit</td>
<td>Does this scarf go with my jacket?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hear from</td>
<td>get news from somebody</td>
<td>Have you heard from your cousins recently?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep up with</td>
<td>keep the same pace as others</td>
<td>Slow down! I can’t keep up with you!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look after</td>
<td>take care of someone</td>
<td>Marie looks after her younger sister after school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look for</td>
<td>try to find, search</td>
<td>Peter is going to look for a job when he leaves school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look forward to</td>
<td>be excited about something in the future</td>
<td>My children are looking forward to the holidays.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look into</td>
<td>examine something carefully</td>
<td>The police are looking into the case.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look up to</td>
<td>respect and admire someone</td>
<td>Lots of young people look up to sports stars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run into</td>
<td>meet someone by chance</td>
<td>I ran into Dave earlier. I hadn’t seen him for ages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run out of</td>
<td>not have any left</td>
<td>We’ve run out of food. Let’s go to the store.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stand for</td>
<td>mean, represent</td>
<td>What do the initials UNICEF stand for?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take after</td>
<td>be similar to an older relative</td>
<td>Sally’s so stubborn. She really takes after her mother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn into</td>
<td>become something else</td>
<td>You can sleep here. The sofa turns into a bed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some words in English sound the same or very similar, but mean different things. It is essential to spell the words correctly to achieve the correct meaning in a sentence.

**accept / except**
I accept your apology. Everyone was on the list except for me.

**adverse / averse**
She was feeling unwell due to the adverse effects of her medication. He was lazy and averse to playing sport.

**aisle / isle**
The bride walked down the aisle. They visited an isle near the coast of Scotland.

**aloud / allowed**
She read the book aloud. He was allowed to choose which book to read.

**amoral / immoral**
Her amoral attitude meant that she didn’t care if her actions were wrong. He was fired from the firm for immoral conduct.

**appraise / apprise**
The manager needed to appraise the employee’s skills. The lawyer apprised the defendant of his rights.

**assent / ascent**
He nodded his assent. They watched the ascent of the balloon.

**aural / oral**
The aural test required her to listen. The dentist performed an oral examination.

**bare / bear**
The trees were stripped bare. The large bear roamed the woods.

**break / brake**
The chocolate was easy to break apart. The car didn’t brake fast enough.

**broach / brooch**
He decided to broach the subject for discussion. She wore a pretty brooch.

**cereal / serial**
He ate a bowl of cereal for breakfast. She found the serial number on her computer.

**complement / compliment**
The colors complement each other well. He paid her a compliment by telling her she was pretty.

**cue / queue**
The actor waited for his cue before walking on stage. The checkout queue was very long.

**desert / dessert**
The desert is extremely hot and dry. She decided to have cake for dessert.

**draught / draft**
There was a draught coming from under the door. He had written a draft of the letter.

**pore / pour**
I could see every pore on his nose. She helped pour the drinks at the party.

**principle / principal**
The man believed in strong principles. He was given the role of the principal character.

**stationary / stationery**
The aircraft landed and remained stationary. She looked in the stationery cupboard for a pen.
R23 SPELLING RULES

All present participles and gerunds are formed by adding “-ing” to the base form of the verb. The spelling of some base forms changes slightly before adding “-ing.”

Regular past participles are made with the base form of the verb plus “-ed.” The spelling of some of these base forms changes slightly before adding “-ed.”

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>RULE</th>
<th>GERUND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>choose</td>
<td>Remove the silent “-e” before adding “-ing.”</td>
<td>choosing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tie</td>
<td>Change “-ie” to “y” before adding “-ing.”</td>
<td>tying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>Double last letter if word ends with stressed syllable of consonant-vowel-consonant.</td>
<td>forgetting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BASE FORM</th>
<th>RULE</th>
<th>PAST PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>like</td>
<td>Last letter is “-e,” so just add “-d”</td>
<td>liked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cry</td>
<td>Change consonant plus “-y” to “-ied.”</td>
<td>cried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drop</td>
<td>Double last letter if word ends with stressed syllable of consonant-vowel-consonant.</td>
<td>dropped</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

R24 IRREGULAR PLURALS

Most plurals in English are formed by adding “-s” to the end of the singular noun. However, some plurals are irregular, either taking a different ending, or not changing at all.

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aircraft</td>
<td>aircraft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analysis</td>
<td>analyses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appendix</td>
<td>appendices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>axis</td>
<td>axes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bureau</td>
<td>bureaux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cactus</td>
<td>cacti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>child</td>
<td>children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crisis</td>
<td>crises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deer</td>
<td>deer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish</td>
<td>fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formula</td>
<td>formulae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fungus</td>
<td>fungi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leaf</td>
<td>leaves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loaf</td>
<td>loaves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medium</td>
<td>media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouse</td>
<td>mice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ox</td>
<td>oxen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phenomenon</td>
<td>phenomena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scarf</td>
<td>scarves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>series</td>
<td>series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sheep</td>
<td>sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>species</td>
<td>species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tooth</td>
<td>teeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertebra</td>
<td>vertebrae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wife</td>
<td>wives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wolf</td>
<td>wolves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>women</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**LINKING WORDS**

Linking words are used to link two or more words, phrases or clauses together. They are usually conjunctions, but can also be adverbial phrases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LINKING WORD</th>
<th>USE</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>although / even though</td>
<td>adds a contrast</td>
<td>The show went ahead, <strong>even though</strong> it was raining.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anyway</td>
<td>contrasts with something just said</td>
<td>I knew the climb would be hard, but I did it <strong>anyway.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and / both... and</td>
<td>links two similar words, phrases, or clauses</td>
<td>I can speak (both) French <strong>and</strong> English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as</td>
<td>gives a reason for an action</td>
<td>The experiment failed <strong>as</strong> the sample was too old.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as long as</td>
<td>adds a condition</td>
<td>You can go out <strong>as long as</strong> you come home by 11pm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as well as</td>
<td>adds further information</td>
<td>Mint is used in savory dishes <strong>as well as</strong> sweet ones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>gives a reason for an action</td>
<td>I was late again <strong>because</strong> the train was delayed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>links two contrasting words, phrases, or clauses</td>
<td>He’s quite heavy <strong>but</strong> he’s very fast on his feet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consequently</td>
<td>gives a result of a previous action</td>
<td>The vote was close. <strong>Consequently</strong>, there was a recount.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>furthermore</td>
<td>adds supporting information</td>
<td>I love this cream. <strong>Furthermore</strong>, it’s great for dry skin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>however</td>
<td>adds contrasting information</td>
<td>I’d love to come. <strong>However</strong>, I’m away that weekend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
<td>adds a condition</td>
<td>These plants will grow better <strong>if</strong> you water them daily.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in addition</td>
<td>adds information</td>
<td>I go to the gym a lot. <strong>In addition</strong>, I run 20km a week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in order to</td>
<td>gives a purpose for an action</td>
<td>We moved here <strong>in order to</strong> be closer to work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moreover</td>
<td>adds supporting information</td>
<td>It’s quicker to travel by plane. <strong>Moreover</strong>, it’s cheaper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neither... nor</td>
<td>links two things that are not true or possible</td>
<td>These instructions are <strong>neither</strong> helpful <strong>nor</strong> legible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or / either... or</td>
<td>links two alternatives</td>
<td>We can (either) <strong>go</strong> to the cinema <strong>or</strong> have a meal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>since</td>
<td>gives a reason for an action</td>
<td><strong>Since</strong> dessert is included, we might as well have one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>gives a reason for an action</td>
<td>It was raining, <strong>so</strong> we stayed indoors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so that</td>
<td>gives a purpose for an action</td>
<td>I’m saving money <strong>so that</strong> I can buy a house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>gives a result of an action</td>
<td>It’s a very clear night. <strong>Therefore</strong>, you can see the stars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unless</td>
<td>adds a condition</td>
<td>You won’t be able to travel <strong>unless</strong> you have a visa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whereas</td>
<td>adds a contrast</td>
<td>My mother likes tea, <strong>whereas</strong> my father prefers coffee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yet</td>
<td>adds a contrast</td>
<td>Dean is a good musician, <strong>yet</strong> he can’t read music.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
English has lots of words to talk about when things happen. They usually act as prepositions, conjunctions, or adverbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME WORD</th>
<th>USE</th>
<th>SAMPLE SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>about to</strong></td>
<td>shows an event will happen very soon</td>
<td>The train on platform 6 is <strong>about to</strong> leave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>after</strong></td>
<td>shows an event in the main clause follows another event</td>
<td>Wash your hands <strong>after</strong> you’ve been gardening.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>already</strong></td>
<td>shows an event has happened before another event or a particular time</td>
<td>Don’t worry, I’ve <strong>already</strong> ordered some food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>as</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event happens at the same time as another event</td>
<td>It started raining <strong>as</strong> we were leaving the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>as soon as</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event (in the main clause) happens straight after another event</td>
<td>Please call us <strong>as soon as</strong> you arrive in New York.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>before</strong></td>
<td>shows an event (in the main clause) precedes another event</td>
<td>I was a teacher <strong>before</strong> I became a politician.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>by the time</strong></td>
<td>shows an event precedes or happens at the same time as an event in the main clause</td>
<td><strong>By the time</strong> we arrived, the game had started.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>eventually</strong></td>
<td>shows an event happened after a long time</td>
<td>It was a long wait, but <strong>eventually</strong> our exam results arrived.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>finally</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event at the end of a list / sequence, or that happened after a long time</td>
<td>I’d like to thank my family, my team, and <strong>finally</strong> my fans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>in the end</strong></td>
<td>shows an event happened after a long time</td>
<td>Joe took the exam three times, but <strong>in the end</strong> he passed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>just</strong></td>
<td>shows an event happened very recently</td>
<td>Quick! I’ve <strong>just</strong> seen something really amazing!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>later</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event after the time of speaking or the time that is being talked about</td>
<td>I can’t take you to the mall now. We’ll go there <strong>later</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>meanwhile</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event happens at the same time as another event</td>
<td>The show started at 8. <strong>Meanwhile</strong>, we went for dinner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>next</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event in a sequence</td>
<td>Stir the melted chocolate. <strong>Next</strong>, pour it into the cake pan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>once</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event starts to happen (in the main clause) after another one</td>
<td><strong>Once</strong> you’ve cleaned the stove, wipe all the handles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>since</strong></td>
<td>shows an event continuing from a past time to the present</td>
<td>I haven’t seen you <strong>since</strong> we were in school!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>still</strong></td>
<td>shows an event at the time of speaking started in the past and is continuing</td>
<td>Are they <strong>still</strong> repairing the main road?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>then</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event in a sequence, or one event that happens after another</td>
<td><strong>We went to the cinema, then</strong> we went out for a meal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>until</strong></td>
<td>shows an event continues up to the time of another event</td>
<td>I won’t stop saving <strong>until</strong> I’ve bought a new car.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>when</strong></td>
<td>shows an event happens at the same time as or after another event</td>
<td><strong>Could you call me when</strong> all the salespeople have arrived?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>while</strong></td>
<td>indicates an event happens at the same time as another event</td>
<td>Please don’t interrupt me <strong>while</strong> I’m trying to concentrate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>yet</strong></td>
<td>shows an expected event has not happened, or asks whether it has happened</td>
<td>Have you finished the sales report <strong>yet</strong>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Glossary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **absolute adjective**  
A word that describes a quality which cannot be changed or modified, e.g. unique. |
| **abstract noun**  
A word that refers to a quality rather than a thing or person, e.g. beauty, hope. |
| **action verb** *(dynamic verb)*  
A type of verb that describes an action, e.g. run, and can be used in the simple and continuous tenses.  
see also **state verb** |
| **active voice**  
Indicates that the person or thing who is doing the action is the subject of the verb  
see also **passive voice** |
| **adjective**  
A word that describes a noun or pronoun, e.g. quick. |
| **adverb**  
A word that describes a verb, adjective, or another adverb, e.g. quickly. |
| **adverb of degree**  
An adverb that tells you “how much,” e.g. extremely. |
| **adverb of frequency**  
An adverb that tells you “how often,” e.g. usually. |
| **adverb of manner**  
An adverb that tells you “how,” e.g. badly. |
| **adverbial**  
A phrase that is used as an adverb, e.g. on the table (expressing place), tomorrow evening (expressing time). |
| **agent**  
The person or thing that does the action. The subject of the verb in an active clause, but not in a passive clause. |
| **agreement**  
When the verb form is correct for the subject, e.g. He is = singular subject + singular verb. |
| **apostrophe**  
The punctuation mark that shows either belonging, e.g. John’s cat, or a contraction e.g. I’m happy. |
| **article**  
The words a, an, and the, which show whether something is general or specific.  
see also **zero article** |
| **auxiliary verb**  
A verb which is used with another verb, e.g. to form tenses, most commonly be, do, and have.  
see also **main verb** |
| **backchanneling**  
The words and noises that a listener makes to show they are listening, e.g. Really? |
| **backshift**  
In reported speech, when the verb moves back one tense into the past, e.g. present simple to past simple. |
| **base form** *(bare infinitive)*  
The most basic form of a verb, e.g. be, run, write.  
see also **infinitive** |
| **cardinal number**  
The numbers used for counting, e.g. one, two.  
see also **ordinal number** |
| **classifying adjective**  
An adjective that describes the type of the noun that it defines, e.g. in medical student, “medical” describes the type of student. |
| **clause**  
A group of words that contains a verb. |
| **closed question**  
A question that can be answered with “yes” or “no,” e.g. Are you English?  
see also **open question** |
| **collective noun**  
A singular noun that refers to a group of people or things, e.g. family, team. |
| **comparative adjective**  
An adjective that compares one thing or group of things with another, e.g. better.  
see also **superlative adjective** |
| **complement**  
The word or phrase that comes after verbs such as be, become, seem, appear, e.g. “happy” in She’s happy.  
see also **linking verb** |
| **complex preposition**  
A preposition that contains two or more words, e.g. next to, because of. |
| **compound noun**  
A noun that contains two or more words, e.g. post office. |
| **compound tense**  
A tense which uses an auxiliary verb, e.g. the present perfect has done. |
| **concrete noun**  
A noun that refers to something you can touch, see, hear, smell, or taste, e.g. table, teacher. |
| **conditional**  
The verb structure used when one event or situation depends on another event or situation happening first. |
| **conjunction**  
A word that links two words or groups of words, e.g. and, because, if. |
| **consonant**  
Most letters / sounds in English, but not a, e, i, o, u, y can operate as a consonant or a vowel. |
| **continuous** *(progressive)*  
Continuous tenses express actions that are in progress at a specific time, e.g. I’m writing. |
| **contraction**  
Two words that are joined with an apostrophe to form one word, e.g. we’re. |
| **conversational ellipsis**  
When words are left out in informal conversation, e.g. [Do you] Want a cup of coffee? |
| **coordinating conjunction**  
A word that links two clauses of equal importance, e.g. and, but, or.  
see also **subordinating conjunction** |
| **countable**  
A noun that can be counted, e.g. one book, two books.  
see also **uncountable** |
| **defining relative clause**  
A clause that starts with a relative pronoun (such as who or which). It gives information that defines something in the main clause.  
see also **non-defining relative clause** |
| **definite article**  
The word the, which specifies which noun that follows it, e.g. the house in the woods.  
see also **indefinite article** |
| **demonstrative determiner / pronoun**  
Words that specify a noun as closer to (this, these) or more distant from (that, those) the speaker, e.g. This watch is cheaper than that one in the window. |
| **dependent preposition**  
A preposition that always follows a particular verb, noun, or adjective, e.g. afraid of. |
| **determiner**  
A word that comes before a noun and identifies it, e.g. the book, this book. |
direct object
The person or thing affected by the action of the verb, e.g. "him" in We followed him. see also indirect object

direct question
A question without an introductory phrase, e.g. What time is it?

direct speech
The words that are actually said to make a statement or question, e.g. It's raining.

discourse marker
A word or phrase that is used in conversation to direct the discussion or add comment, e.g. Well, Right.

double object verb
A verb that has two objects, e.g. "me" and "the phone" in Give me the phone.

dummy subject
The word "it" used without referring to a noun, e.g. It's five o'clock.

-ed adjective
An adjective that describes how something is affected, e.g. bored, excited. see also -ing adjective

eclipse
When words or phrases are left out of a clause, usually because they don't need to be repeated, e.g. He got up and [he] had a shower.

emphasis
When a word is said more loudly because it is more important. see also stress

extreme adjective
An adjective that has a stronger meaning than a gradable adjective with a similar meaning, e.g. freezing is the extreme adjective for cold.

first conditional
A sentence with "if" that describes a possible future situation that depends on another situation, e.g. If it rains, I'll stay here.

focus
Part of a sentence that is moved to the beginning because it is more important.

future continuous
A tense that is formed will be and the present participle. It expresses an action that will be in progress at a point in the future.

future perfect
A tense that is formed with will have and the past participle, e.g. will have done. It expresses an action that will be complete at a point in the future.

future perfect continuous
A tense that is formed with will have been and the present participle, e.g. will have been doing. It expresses an ongoing action that will be complete at a point in the future.

gerund (verbal noun)
The -ing form of a verb, when it is used as a noun, e.g. No smoking.

gradable adjective
An adjective that can be used with adverbs of degree (such as very) and can be used in the comparative form. see also non-gradable adjective

grading adverb
An adverb of degree that can be used with gradable adjectives. see also non-grading adverb

hedging
Words or phrases that make a speaker seem less certain or direct, e.g. apparently, I think.

imperative
An order to someone, e.g. Stop! The imperative is often a verb on its own in its base form.

indefinite article
The words a and an, which come before nouns when it doesn't matter which noun is being referred to, or if it is being mentioned for the first time, e.g. Can I borrow a pen? see also definite article

indefinite pronoun
A pronoun that does not refer to a specific person or thing, e.g. someone, nothing.

indirect object
The person or thing affected, e.g. the dog in I gave the ball to the dog.

indirect question
A question that begins with a polite phrase, e.g. Can you tell me what time it is?

infinitive
The base form of a verb, often with the infinitive marker "to," e.g. to go, to run.

indefinite clause
A clause whose verb is in the infinitive form, e.g. It's important to complete the form in full.

inversion
When positions of two parts of a clause swap around, e.g. the subject and the verb in questions.

irregular
A word that behaves differently from most words like it, e.g. men is an irregular plural noun. see also regular

linking verb
A verb that links two parts of a clause (the subject and complement) rather than describing an action, such as be, seem, become, e.g. She is really angry.

main clause
A clause that could form a complete sentence on its own. see also subordinate clause

main verb
The verb in a group of verbs that carries the meaning, e.g. "ride" in I can ride a bike.

modal verb
A type of auxiliary verb that is used with a main verb to show ideas like ability and permission.

modifier
A word that adds information to another word, e.g. "really" in really interesting.

negative
A clause that contains a word like not or never.
noun
A word that refers to a person, place, or thing.

noun phrase
A noun, pronoun, or a number of words that are linked to a noun, e.g. the blue house.

object
A noun or pronoun that follows a verb or a preposition.

object pronoun
A pronoun that usually follows a verb or a preposition, e.g. me, them.

object question
A question where the question word is the object, e.g. “What” in What did you say?

open question
A question that cannot be answered with “yes” or “no” and starts with a question word (such as when or who).

prefix
Letters at the beginning of a word that change its meaning, e.g. “re-” in replace.

present
A form of a verb used to express current situations, e.g. smoke, eating.

present perfect
An action that happened before another action or state in the past.

present perfect continuous
A tense that is formed with had and the past participle, e.g. had been doing. It expresses an ongoing action that happened before another action or state in the past.

present perfect continuous
A tense that is formed with has/have been and the present participle, e.g. has/have been doing. It expresses an ongoing action that started in the past and is still continuing or that happened in the past but has a result in the present.

present simple
A tense that consists only of the present form of a verb, e.g. walk, say, eat. It expresses a general truth about the present.

pronoun
A word that replaces a noun, when the noun has already been mentioned, e.g. it, that.

proper noun
A noun that is the name of a person, place, day, etc., e.g. Maria, France, Sunday.

quantifier
A word that usually comes before a noun and expresses a quantity or amount, e.g. several, many, much.

question
A sentence that asks for something, usually information. The verb usually comes before the subject.
question word
A word is used to start open questions, e.g. What, Which, Who, Why, How.

question tag
A short phrase that makes a statement into a question, e.g. “isn’t it” in It’s hot today, isn’t it?

reflexive pronoun
A word that refers to the subject of the clause, when the subject and object are the same, e.g. myself.

regular
A word that behaves in the same way as most words like it, e.g. books is a regular plural noun and waited is a regular past simple form. see also irregular

relative clause
A clause that gives information about the subject or object of the main clause.

relative pronoun
A word that introduces a relative clause, e.g. who, that, which.

reported question
A question that is repeated after it was actually asked, often by another person, e.g. She asked if the bus was full.

reported speech
Statements and questions that are repeated after they were actually said, often by another person, e.g. He said the bus was full.

reporting verb
A verb that introduces reported speech, e.g. say, tell.

root
The part of a word to which a suffix or prefix is added, e.g. “employ” is the root of employable.

second conditional
A sentence with “if” that describes an imaginary future situation, or an impossible present situation, e.g. If I were you, I'd take an umbrella.

separable phrasal verb
A phrasal verb that can be used with the particle after a noun or pronoun, e.g. bring the subject up / bring it up. see also inseparable phrasal verb

short answer
An answer to a closed question that only uses the subject and auxiliary verb, e.g. Yes, I do.

short question
A question with just an auxiliary verb and subject, which is used to show interest in a conversation, e.g. Is it?

simple
Simple tenses are formed with a main verb only; they don’t need an auxiliary verb in their positive forms.

singular
The form of a word that is used to refer to just one person or thing, e.g. book. see also plural

stalling
Using words or short phrases in conversation to give yourself time to think about what to say, e.g. Let's see...

state verb (stative verb)
A type of verb that describes situations, thoughts, or feelings, e.g. seem, think, like. see also action verb

statement
A sentence that offers information, i.e. not a question or an imperative.

stress
Saying one syllable in a word, or one word in a sentence, more strongly than the others. see also emphasis

subject
The person / thing / place, etc. that usually comes before the verb in a clause.

subject pronoun
A word that replaces a noun as the subject of a clause, e.g. I, she, they.

subject question
A question where the question word is the subject, e.g. “Who” in Who invited you? see also object question

subordinate clause
A clause which is dependent on the main clause, usually introduced by a subordinating conjunction.

subordinating conjunction
A word that links two clauses that are not of equal importance, i.e. a subordinate clause to a main clause, e.g. because, if. see also coordinating conjunction

substitution
The use of a word to replace another, e.g. “He” in He's in the kitchen.

suffix
Letters at the end of a word that change its meaning, e.g. “-able” in enjoyable. see also prefix

superlative adjective
An adjective that indicates the most extreme of a group of things, e.g. best. see also comparative adjective

syllable
Every word is made up of a number of syllables, each of which contain a vowel sound, e.g. teach (one syllable), teacher (two syllables).

tense
The form of a verb that shows the time of the action, e.g. present simple, past simple.

third conditional
A sentence with “if” that describes an impossible past situation and its impossible result, e.g. If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam.

time marker
A word or phrase that indicates a time, e.g. now, at the moment, tomorrow.

transitive verb
A verb that takes a direct object. see also intransitive verb

uncountable
A noun that cannot be counted, e.g. water, money. see also countable

verb
A word that refers to a situation or an action, e.g. stay, write.

vowel
The English letters a, e, i, o, u see also consonant

word class
Shows the function of a word in a sentence, e.g. noun, verb, adjective are all word classes.

word order
The position that different words have in a clause, e.g. the subject usually comes before the verb, and adjectives of opinion come before adjectives of fact.

zero article
When there is no article before plural or uncountable nouns.

zero conditional
A sentence with “if” or “when” that describes a present situation or a regular action, e.g. If it rains, the roads flood.
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