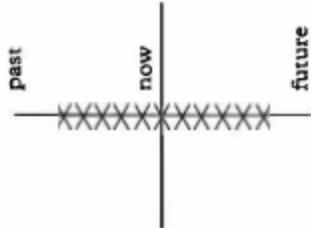


1-1 Simple Present and Present Progressive

Simple Present



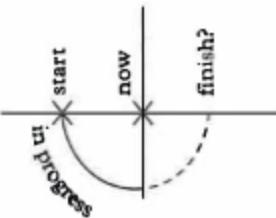
- (a) Ann **takes** a shower **every day**.
- (b) I **usually read** the newspaper in the morning.
- (c) Babies **cry**. Birds **fly**.
- (d) NEGATIVE:
It **doesn't snow** in Bangkok.
- (e) QUESTION:
Does the teacher **speak** slowly?

The SIMPLE PRESENT expresses **daily habits** or **usual activities**, as in (a) and (b).

The simple present expresses **general statements of fact**, as in (c).

In general, the simple present is used for events or situations that exist always, usually, or habitually in the past, present, and future.

Present Progressive



- (f) Ann can't come to the phone **right now** because she **is taking** a shower.
- (g) I **am reading** my grammar book **right now**.
- (h) Jimmy and Susie are babies. They **are crying**. I can hear them **right now**. Maybe they are hungry.
- (i) NEGATIVE:
It **isn't snowing** **right now**.
- (j) QUESTION:
Is the teacher **speaking** **right now**?

The PRESENT PROGRESSIVE expresses **an activity that is in progress (is occurring, is happening) right now**.

The event is in progress at the time the speaker is saying the sentence. The event began in the past, is in progress now, and will probably continue into the future.

FORM: **am, is, are + -ing**

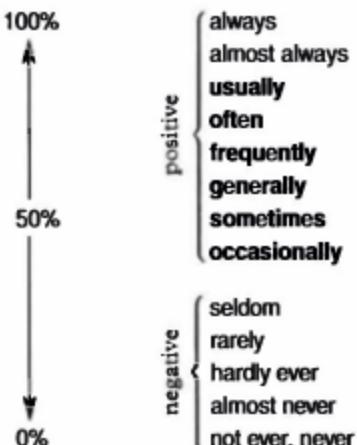
1-2 Forms of the Simple Present and the Present Progressive

	Simple Present				Present Progressive			
STATEMENT	I	work.			I	am	working.	
	You	work.			You	are	working.	
	He, She, It	works.			He, She, It	is	working.	
	We	work.			We	are	working.	
	They	work.			They	are	working.	
NEGATIVE	I	do	not	work.	I	am	not	working.
	You	do	not	work.	You	are	not	working.
	He, She, It	does	not	work.	He, She, It	is	not	working.
	We	do	not	work.	We	are	not	working.
	They	do	not	work.	They	are	not	working.
QUESTION	Do	I		work?	Am	I		working?
	Do	you		work?	Are	you		working?
	Does	he, she, it		work?	Is	he, she, it		working?
	Do	we		work?	Are	we		working?
	Do	they		work?	Are	they		working?

Contractions

pronoun + be	<i>I</i> + <i>am</i> = <i>I'm</i> working. <i>you, we, they</i> + <i>are</i> = <i>You're, We're, They're</i> working. <i>he, she, it</i> + <i>is</i> = <i>He's, She's, It's</i> working.			
do + not	<i>does</i> + <i>not</i> = <i>doesn't</i> <i>She doesn't work.</i> <i>do</i> + <i>not</i> = <i>don't</i> <i>I don't work.</i>			
be + not	<i>is</i> + <i>not</i> = <i>isn't</i> <i>He isn't working.</i> <i>are</i> + <i>not</i> = <i>aren't</i> <i>They aren't working.</i> <i>(am</i> + <i>not</i> = <i>am not*</i>) <i>I am not working.)</i>			

1-3 Frequency Adverbs



Frequency adverbs usually occur in the middle of a sentence and have special positions, as shown in examples (a) through (e) below.

The adverbs in **boldface** may also occur at the beginning or the end of a sentence.

I sometimes get up at 6:30.

Sometimes I get up at 6:30.

I get up at 6:30 sometimes.

The other adverbs in the list (not in boldface) rarely occur at the beginning or the end of a sentence. Their usual position is in the middle of a sentence.

s + FREQ ADV + v
(a) Karen **always** tells the truth.

Frequency adverbs usually come between the subject and the simple present verb except main verb *be*.

INCORRECT: Always Karen tells the truth.

s + BE + FREQ ADV
(b) Karen **is** **always** on time.

Frequency adverbs follow *be* in the simple present (*am, is, are*) and simple past (*was, were*).

(c) Do **you always** eat breakfast?

In a question, frequency adverbs come directly after the subject.

(d) Ann **usually doesn't eat** breakfast.

In a negative sentence, most frequency adverbs come in front of a negative verb (except *always* and *ever*).

(e) Sue **doesn't always eat** breakfast.

Always follows a negative helping verb, as in (e), or a negative form of *be*.

(f) **CORRECT:** Anna **never eats** meat.

Negative adverbs (*seldom, rarely, hardly ever, never*) are NOT used with a negative verb.

INCORRECT: Anna **doesn't never eat meat**.

(g) — **Do you ever take** the bus to work?

Ever is used in questions about frequency, as in (g). It means "at any time."

— Yes, I do. I often take the bus.

(h) I **don't ever walk** to work.

Ever is also used with **not**, as in (h).

INCORRECT: I **ever walk to work**.

Ever is NOT used in statements.

1-4 Singular/Plural

(a) SINGULAR: <i>one bird</i>	SINGULAR = one, not two or more
(b) PLURAL: <i>two birds</i> , <i>three birds</i> , <i>many birds</i> , <i>all birds</i> , etc.	PLURAL = two, three, or more
(c) Birds sing.	A plural noun ends in -s, as in (c).
(d) A bird sings.	A singular verb ends in -s, as in (d).
(e) A <i>bird</i> <i>sings</i> outside my window. <i>It</i> <i>sings</i> loudly. <i>Ann</i> <i>sings</i> beautifully. <i>She</i> <i>sings</i> songs to her children. <i>Tom</i> <i>sings</i> very well. <i>He</i> <i>sings</i> professionally.	A singular verb follows a singular subject. Add -s to the simple present verb if the subject is (1) a singular noun (e.g., <i>a bird</i> , <i>Ann</i> , <i>Tom</i>) or (2) <i>he</i> , <i>she</i> , or <i>it</i> .*

**He*, *she*, and *it* are third person singular personal pronouns. See Chart 6-10, p. 164, for more information about personal pronouns.

1-5 Spelling of Final -s/-es

(a) visit → <i>visits</i>	Final -s , not -es , is added to most verbs. <i>INCORRECT:</i> <i>visites, speaks</i>
(b) ride → <i>rides</i>	Many verbs end in -e . Final -s is simply added.
(c) catch → <i>catches</i>	Final -es is added to words that end in -ch , -sh , -s , -x , and -z .
wash → <i>washes</i>	PRONUNCIATION NOTE: Final -es is pronounced /əz/ and adds a syllable.*
miss → <i>misses</i>	
fix → <i>fixes</i>	
buzz → <i>buzzes</i>	
(d) fly → <i>flies</i>	If a word ends in a consonant + -y , change the -y to -i and add -es , as in (d). <i>INCORRECT:</i> <i>flys</i>
(e) pay → <i>pays</i>	If a word ends in a vowel + -y , simply add -s ,** as in (e). <i>INCORRECT:</i> <i>paies or payes</i>
(f) go → <i>goes</i>	The singular forms of the verbs go , do , and have are irregular.
do → <i>does</i>	
have → <i>has</i>	

*See Chart 6-1, p. 147, for more information about the pronunciation of final **-s/-es**.

**Vowels = a, e, i, o, u. Consonants = all other letters in the alphabet.

1-6 Non-Action Verbs

(a) I **know** Ms. Chen.

INCORRECT: I am knowing Ms. Chen.

(b) I'm hungry. I **want** a sandwich.

INCORRECT: I am wanting a sandwich.

(c) This book **belongs** to Mikhail.

INCORRECT: This book is belonging to Mikhail.

Some verbs are generally not used in progressive tenses. These verbs are called "non-action verbs."* They express a situation that exists, not an action in progress.

Non-action Verbs

hear	believe	be	own	need	like	forget
see	think	exist	have	want	love	remember
sound	understand		possess	prefer	hate	
	know	seem	belong			agree
	mean	look like				disagree

COMPARE:

(d) I **think** that grammar is easy.

Think and **have** can be used in the progressive.

(e) I **am thinking** about grammar right now.

In (d): When **think** means "believe," it is non-progressive.

(f) Tom **has** a car.

In (e): When **think** expresses thoughts that are going through a person's mind, it can be progressive.

(g) I'm **having** a good time.

In (f): When **have** means "own" or expresses possession, it is not used in the progressive.

In (g): In expressions where **have** does not mean "own" (e.g., *have a good time*, *have a bad time*, *have trouble*, *have a problem*, *have lunch*, *have a snack*, *have company*, *have an operation*), **have** can be used in the progressive.

*Non-action verbs are also called "non-progressive" or "stative" verbs.

1-7 Present Verbs: Short Answers to Yes/No Questions

	Question	Short Answer	Long Answer
QUESTIONS WITH DO/DOES	Does Bob <i>like</i> tea?	Yes, he does . No, he doesn't .	Yes, he likes tea. No, he doesn't like tea.
	<i>Do you like</i> tea?	Yes, I do .	Yes, I like tea.
		No, I don't .	No, I don't like tea.
	Are you <i>studying</i> ?	Yes, I am .*	Yes, I am (I'm) studying.
		No, I 'm not .	No, I'm not studying.
		Yes, she is .* No, she 's not . OR No, she isn't .	Yes, she is (she's) a student. No, she's not a student. OR No, she isn't a student.
	Are they <i>studying</i> ?	Yes, they are * No, they 're not . OR No, they aren't .	Yes, they are (they're) studying. No, they're not studying. OR No, they aren't studying.

**Am*, *is*, and *are* are NOT contracted with pronouns in short answers.

INCORRECT SHORT ANSWERS: Yes, I'm. Yes, she's. Yes, they're.

2-1 Expressing Past Time: The Simple Past

(a) Mary walked downtown <i>yesterday</i> . (b) I slept for eight hours <i>last night</i> .	The simple past is used to talk about activities or situations that began and ended in the past (e.g., <i>yesterday</i> , <i>last night</i> , two days ago, in 2010).
(c) Bob stayed home yesterday morning. (d) Our plane landed on time last night.	Most simple past verbs are formed by adding -ed to a verb, as in (a), (c), and (d).
(e) I ate breakfast this morning. (f) Sue took a taxi to the airport yesterday.	Some verbs have irregular past forms, as in (b), (e), and (f). See Chart 2-4.
(g) I was busy yesterday. (h) They were at home last night.	The simple past forms of be are was and were .

Forms of the Simple Past: Regular Verbs

STATEMENT	I, You, She, He, It, We, They worked yesterday.
NEGATIVE	I, You, She, He, It, We, They did not (didn't) work yesterday.
QUESTION	Did I, you, she, he, it, we, they work yesterday?
SHORT ANSWER	Yes, I, you, she, he, it, we, they did . OR No, I, you, she, he, it, we, they didn't .

Forms of the Simple Past: Be

STATEMENT	I, She, He, It was in class yesterday. We, You, They were in class yesterday.
NEGATIVE	I, She, He, It was not (wasn't) in class yesterday. We, You, They were not (weren't) in class yesterday.
QUESTION	Was I, she, he, it in class yesterday? Were we, you, they in class yesterday?
SHORT ANSWER	Yes, I, she, he, it was . Yes, we, you, they were . No, I, she, he, it wasn't . No, we, you, they weren't .

2-2 Spelling of -ing and -ed Forms

End of Verb	Double the Consonant?	Simple Form	-ing	-ed	
-e	NO	(a) smile hope	smiling hoping	smiled hoped	-ing form: Drop the -e, add -ing. -ed form: Just add -d.
Two Consonants	NO	(b) help learn	helping learning	helped learned	If the verb ends in two consonants, just add -ing or -ed.
Two Vowels + One Consonant	NO	(c) rain heat	raining heating	rained heated	If the verb ends in two vowels + a consonant, just add -ing or -ed.
One Vowel + One Consonant	YES	ONE-SYLLABLE VERBS			If the verb has one syllable and ends in one vowel + one consonant, double the consonant to make the -ing or -ed form.*
		(d) stop plan	stopping planning	stopped planned	
	NO	TWO-SYLLABLE VERBS			If the first syllable of a two-syllable verb is stressed, do not double the consonant.
-y	NO	(e) visit offer	visiting offering	visited offered	If the second syllable of a two-syllable verb is stressed, double the consonant.
		(f) prefer admit	preferring admitting	preferred admitted	
	YES				
-ie	NO	(g) play enjoy	playing enjoying	played enjoyed	If the verb ends in a vowel + -y, keep the -y. Do not change the -y to -i.
		(h) worry study	worrying studying	worried studied	If the verb ends in a consonant + -y, keep the -y for the -ing form, but change the -y to -i to make the -ed form.
-ie		(i) die tie	dying tying	died tied	-ing form: Change the -ie to -y and add -ing. -ed form: Just add -d.

*EXCEPTIONS: Do not double "w" or "x": snow, snowing, snowed, fix, fixing, fixed.

2-3 The Principal Parts of a Verb

Regular Verbs

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
finish	finished	finished	finishing
stop	stopped	stopped	stopping
hope	hoped	hoped	hoping
wait	waited	waited	waiting
play	played	played	playing
try	tried	tried	trying

Irregular Verbs

see	saw	seen	seeing
make	made	made	making
sing	sang	sung	singing
eat	ate	eaten	eating
put	put	put	putting
go	went	gone	going

Principal Parts of a Verb

(1) THE SIMPLE FORM

English verbs have four principal forms, or "parts." **The simple form** is the form that is found in a dictionary. It is the base form with no endings on it (no final **-s**, **-ed**, or **-ing**).

(2) THE SIMPLE PAST

The simple past ends in **-ed** for regular verbs. Most verbs are regular, but many common verbs have irregular past forms. See the reference list of irregular verbs that follows in Chart 2-4.

(3) THE PAST PARTICIPLE

The past participle also ends in **-ed** for regular verbs. Some verbs are irregular. It is used in perfect tenses (Chapter 4) and the passive (Chapter 10).

(4) THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE

The present participle ends in **-ing** (for both regular and irregular verbs). It is used in progressive tenses (e.g., the present progressive and the past progressive).

2-4 Common Irregular Verbs: A Reference List

SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	SIMPLE FORM	SIMPLE PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
be	was, were	been	lend	lent	lent
beat	beat	beaten	let	let	let
become	became	become	lie	lay	lain
begin	began	begun	light	lit/lighted	lit/lighted
bend	bent	bent	lose	lost	lost
bite	bit	bitten	make	made	made
blow	blew	blown	mean	meant	meant
break	broke	broken	meet	met	met
bring	brought	brought	pay	paid	paid
build	built	built	put	put	put
burn	burned/burnt	burned/burnt	quit	quit	quit
buy	bought	bought	read	read	read
catch	caught	caught	ride	rode	ridden
choose	chose	chosen	ring	rang	rung
come	came	come	rise	rose	risen
cost	cost	cost	run	ran	run
cut	cut	cut	say	said	said
dig	dug	dug	see	saw	seen
do	did	done	sell	sold	sold
draw	drew	drawn	send	sent	sent
dream	dreamed/dreamt	dreamed/dreamt	set	set	set
drink	drank	drunk	shake	shook	shaken
drive	drove	driven	shoot	shot	shot
eat	ate	eaten	shut	shut	shut
fall	fell	fallen	sing	sang	sung
feed	fed	fed	sink	sank	sunk
feel	felt	felt	sit	sat	sat
fight	fought	fought	sleep	slept	slept
find	found	found	slide	slid	slid
fit	fit	fit	speak	spoke	spoken
fly	flew	flown	spend	spent	spent
forget	forgot	forgotten	spread	spread	spread
forgive	forgave	forgiven	stand	stood	stood
freeze	froze	frozen	steal	stole	stolen

get	got	got/gotten	stick	stuck	stuck
give	gave	given	swim	swam	swum
go	went	gone	take	took	taken
grow	grew	grown	teach	taught	taught
hang	hung	hung	tear	tore	torn
have	had	had	tell	told	told
hear	heard	heard	think	thought	thought
hide	hid	hidden	throw	threw	thrown
hit	hit	hit	understand	understood	understood
hold	held	held	upset	upset	upset
hurt	hurt	hurt	wake	woke/waked	woken/waked
keep	kept	kept	wear	wore	worn
know	knew	known	win	won	won
leave	left	left	write	wrote	written

2-5 Regular Verbs: Pronunciation of -ed Endings

(a)	talked	= talk/t/
	stopped	= stop/t/
	hissed	= hiss/t/
	watched	= watch/t/
	washed	= wash/t/

Final **-ed** is pronounced /t/ after voiceless sounds.
You make a **voiceless** sound by pushing air through your mouth.
No sound comes from your throat.
Examples of voiceless sounds: /k/, /p/, /s/, /ch/, /sh/.

(b)	called	= call/d/
	rained	= rain/d/
	lived	= live/d/
	robbed	= rob/d/
	stayed	= stay/d/

Final **-ed** is pronounced /d/ after voiced sounds.
You make a **voiced** sound from your throat. Your voice box vibrates.
Examples of voiced sounds: /V/, /n/, /v/, /b/, and all vowel sounds.

(c)	waited	= wait/əd/
	needed	= need/əd/

Final **-ed** is pronounced /əd/ after "t" and "d" sounds.
Adding /əd/ adds a syllable to a word.

2-6 Simple Past and Past Progressive

Simple Past



- (a) Mary **walked** downtown yesterday.
 (b) I **slept** for eight hours last night.

The SIMPLE PAST is used to talk about an activity or situation that began and ended at a particular time in the past (e.g., *yesterday*, *last night*, *two days ago*, *in 2007*), as in (a) and (b).

Past Progressive



- (c) I sat down at the dinner table at 6:00 P.M. yesterday. Tom came to my house at 6:10 P.M.
I was eating dinner when Tom came.
- (d) I went to bed at 10:00. The phone rang at 11:00.
I was sleeping when the phone rang.

The PAST PROGRESSIVE expresses an activity that was in progress (was occurring, was happening) at a point of time in the past (e.g., at 6:10) or at the time of another action (e.g., when Tom came).

In (c): eating was in progress at 6:10; eating was in progress when Tom came.

FORM: **was/were + -ing**

(e) **When the phone rang**, I was sleeping.

when = at that time

(f) The phone rang **while I was sleeping**.

while = during that time

Examples (e) and (f) have the same meaning.

Forms of the Past Progressive

STATEMENT	I, She, He, It	was working.
	You, We, They	were working.
NEGATIVE	I, She, He, It	was not (wasn't) working.
	You, We, They	were not (weren't) working.
QUESTION	Was	I, she, he, it working?
	Were	you, we, they working?
SHORT ANSWER	Yes,	I, she, he, it was.
	No,	I, she, he, it wasn't.
	Yes,	you, we, they were.
	No,	you, we, they weren't.

2-7 Expressing Past Time: Using Time Clauses

time clause main clause
(a) **After I finished my work**, **I went to bed.**

main clause time clause
(b) **I went to bed** **after I finished my work.**

(c) I went to bed **after I finished my work.**

(d) **Before I went to bed**, I finished my work.

(e) I stayed up **until I finished my work.**

(f) **As soon as I finished my work**, I went to bed.

(g) The phone rang **while I was watching TV.**

(h) **When the phone rang**, I was watching TV.

(i) When the phone **rang**, I **answered** it.

(j) While I **was doing** my homework, my roommate **was watching** TV.

After I finished my work = a time clause*

I went to bed = a main clause

Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning.

A time clause can

- (1) come in front of a main clause, as in (a).
- (2) follow a main clause, as in (b).

These words introduce time clauses:

after

before

until

as soon as

while

when

+ subject and verb = a time clause

In (e): **until** = to that time and then no longer**

In (f): **as soon as** = immediately after

PUNCTUATION: Put a comma at the end of a time clause when the time clause comes first in a sentence (comes in front of the main clause):

time clause + comma + main clause
main clause + no comma + time clause

In a sentence with a time clause introduced by **when**, both the time clause verb and the main verb can be simple past. In this case, the action in the **when**-clause happened first.

In (i): First: **The phone rang.**
Then: **I answered it.**

In (j): When two actions are in progress at the same time, the past progressive can be used in both parts of the sentence.

2-8 Expressing Past Habit: *Used To*

- (a) I *used to live* with my parents. Now I live in my own apartment.
- (b) Ann *used to be* afraid of dogs, but now she likes dogs.
- (c) Al *used to smoke*, but he doesn't anymore.

- (d) *Did you used to live* in Paris?
(OR *Did you use to live* in Paris?)

- (e) I *didn't used to drink* coffee at breakfast, but now I always have coffee in the morning.
(OR I *didn't use to drink* coffee.)

- (f) I *never used to drink* coffee at breakfast, but now I always have coffee in the morning.

Used to expresses a past situation or habit that no longer exists at present.

FORM: *used to + the simple form of a verb*

QUESTION FORM: *did + subject + used to*
(OR *did + subject + use to*)*

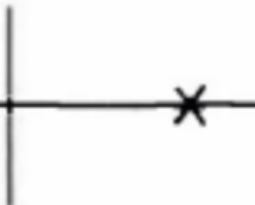
NEGATIVE FORM: *didn't used to*
(OR *didn't use to*)*

Didn't use(d) to occurs infrequently. More commonly, people use *never* to express a negative idea with *used to*, as in (f).

*Both forms (*used to* and *use to*) are possible in questions and negatives. English language authorities do not agree on which is preferable. This book uses both forms.

3-1 Expressing Future Time: *Be Going To* and *Will*

Future



- (a) *I am going to leave* at nine tomorrow morning.
- (b) *I will leave* at nine tomorrow morning.

Be going to and *will* are used to express future time.

Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning.

Sometimes *will* and *be going to* express different meanings. The differences are discussed in Chart 3-5.

(c) Sam *is* in his office *this morning*.

Today, *tonight*, and *this* + *morning*, *afternoon*, *evening*, *week*, etc., can express present, past, or future time, as in (c) through (e).

(d) Ann *was* in her office *this morning* at eight, but now she's at a meeting.

(e) Bob *is going to be* in his office *this morning* after his dentist appointment.

NOTE: The use of *shall* (with *I* or *we*) to express future time is possible but is infrequent and quite formal; for example: *I shall leave at nine tomorrow morning*. *We shall leave at ten tomorrow morning*.

3-10 Parallel Verbs

V and V

- (a) Jim **makes** his bed **and** **cleans** up his room every morning.
- (b) Anita **called** and **told** me about her new job.

Often a subject has two verbs that are connected by **and**. We say that the two verbs are parallel:

V + and + V

makes and cleans = parallel verbs

- (c) Ann **is cooking** dinner **and** **(is) talking** on the phone at the same time.
- (d) I **will stay** home **and** **(will) study** tonight.
- (e) I **am going to stay** home **and** **(am going to) study** tonight.

It is not necessary to repeat a helping verb (an auxiliary verb) when two verbs are the same tense and are connected by **and**.

3-2 Forms with *Be Going To*

(a) We are going to belate.

(b) She's going to come tomorrow.

INCORRECT: She's going to comes tomorrow.

(c) Am I
Is he, she, it
Are they, we, you } going to belate?

Be going to is followed by the simple form of the verb, as in (a) and (b).

(d) I am not
He, She, It is not
They, We, You are not } going to belate.

QUESTION FORM: ***be + subject + going to***

NEGATIVE FORM: ***be + not + going to***

(e) "Hurry up! We're gonnabe late!"

Be going to is more common in speaking and informal writing than in formal writing. In informal speaking, it is sometimes pronounced "gonna" /gənə/. "Gonna" is not usually a written form.

3-3 Forms with *Will*

STATEMENT	I, You, She, He, It, We, They <i>will come</i> tomorrow.		
NEGATIVE	I, You, She, He, It, We, They <i>will not (won't) come</i> tomorrow.		
QUESTION	<i>Will</i> I, you, she, he, it, we, they <i>come</i> tomorrow?		
SHORT ANSWER	Yes, } I, you, she, he, it, we, they { <i>will.*</i> No, } { <i>won't.</i>		
CONTRACTIONS	I'll you'll it'll	she'll he'll they'll	<i>Will</i> is usually contracted with pronouns in both speech and informal writing.
	Bob + <i>will</i> = "Bob'll" the teacher + <i>will</i> = "the teacher'll"		<i>Will</i> is often contracted with nouns in speech, but usually not in writing.

*Pronouns are NOT contracted with helping verbs in short answers.

CORRECT: Yes, I ***will*.**

INCORRECT: Yes, I'll.

3-4 Certainty About the Future

100% sure	(a) I <i>will be</i> in class tomorrow. OR <i>I am going to be</i> in class tomorrow.	In (a): The speaker uses <i>will</i> or <i>be going to</i> because he feels sure about his future activity. He is stating a fact about the future.
90% sure	(b) Po <i>will probably be</i> in class tomorrow. OR <i>Po is probably going to be</i> in class tomorrow. (c) Anna <i>probably won't be</i> in class tomorrow. OR <i>Anna probably isn't going to be</i> in class tomorrow.	In (b): The speaker uses <i>probably</i> to say that he expects Po to be in class tomorrow, but he is not 100% sure. He's almost sure, but not completely sure. Word order with <i>probably</i> :* (1) in a statement, as in (b): <i>helping verb + probably</i> (2) with a negative verb, as in (c): <i>probably + helping verb</i>
50% sure	(d) Ali <i>may come</i> to class tomorrow. OR <i>Ali may not come</i> to class tomorrow. I don't know what he's going to do.	<i>May</i> expresses a future possibility: maybe something will happen, and maybe it won't happen.** In (d): The speaker is saying that maybe Ali will come to class, or maybe he won't come to class. The speaker is guessing.
	(e) <i>Maybe Ali will come</i> to class, and <i>maybe he won't</i> . OR <i>Maybe Ali is going to come</i> to class, and <i>maybe he isn't</i> .	<i>Maybe + will/be going to</i> gives the same meaning as <i>may</i> . Examples (d) and (e) have the same meaning. <i>Maybe</i> comes at the beginning of a sentence.

****Probably*** is a midsentence adverb. See Chart 1-3, p. 10, for more information about the placement of midsentence adverbs.

See Chart 7-3, p. 182, for more information about *may***.

3-5 Be Going To vs. Will

(a) She *is going to succeed* because she works hard.

(b) She *will succeed* because she works hard.

(c) I bought some wood because I *am going to build* a bookcase for my apartment.

(d) This chair is too heavy for you to carry alone.
I'll help you.

Be going to and ***will*** mean the same when they are used to make predictions about the future.

Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning.

Be going to (but not ***will***) is used to express a prior plan (i.e., a plan made before the moment of speaking).

In (c): The speaker plans to build a bookcase.

Will (but not ***be going to***) is used to express a decision the speaker makes at the moment of speaking.

In (d): The speaker decides or volunteers to help at the immediate present moment; he did not have a prior plan or intention to help.

3-6 Expressing the Future in Time Clauses and If-Clauses

time clause

- (a) Before I go to class tomorrow, I'm going to eat breakfast.

time clause

- (b) I'm going to eat breakfast before I go to class tomorrow.

In (a) and (b): *before I go to class tomorrow* is a future time clause.

before

after

when

as soon as

until

while

+ subject and verb = a time clause

- (c) *Before I go home tonight*, I'm going to stop at the market.

- (d) I'm going to eat dinner at 6:00 tonight. *After I eat dinner*, I'm going to study in my room.

- (e) I'll give Rita your message *when I see her*.

- (f) It's raining right now. *As soon as the rain stops*, I'm going to walk downtown.

- (g) I'll stay home *until the rain stops*.

- (h) *While you're at school tomorrow*, I'll be at work.

The simple present is used in a future time clause.

Will and *be going to* are NOT used in a future time clause.

INCORRECT: *Before I will go to class*, I'm going to eat breakfast.

INCORRECT: *Before I am going to go to class tomorrow*, I'm going to eat breakfast.

All of the example sentences (c) through (h) contain future time clauses.

- (i) Maybe it will rain tomorrow. *If it rains tomorrow*, I'm going to stay home.

In (i): *If it rains tomorrow* is an if-clause.
if + subject and verb = an if-clause

When the meaning is future, the simple present (not *will* or *be going to*) is used in an if-clause.

3-7 Using the Present Progressive to Express Future Time

- (a) Tim ***is going to come*** to the party tomorrow.
- (b) Tim ***is coming*** to the party tomorrow.
- (c) We ***'re going to go*** to a movie tonight.
- (d) We ***'re going*** to a movie tonight.
- (e) I ***'m going to stay*** home this evening.
- (f) I ***'m staying*** home this evening.
- (g) Ann ***is going to fly*** to Chicago next week.
- (h) Ann ***is flying*** to Chicago next week.

The present progressive can be used to express future time. Each pair of example sentences has the same meaning.

The present progressive describes *definite plans for the future, plans that were made before the moment of speaking.*

A future meaning for the present progressive is indicated either by future time words (e.g., *tomorrow*) or by the situation.*

- (i) You ***'re going to laugh*** when you hear this joke.
- (j) INCORRECT: You're laughing when you hear this joke.

The present progressive is NOT used for predictions about the future.

In (i): The speaker is predicting a future event.

In (j): The present progressive is not possible; laughing is a prediction, not a planned future event.

*COMPARE: Present situation: *Look! Mary's coming. Do you see her?*

Future situation: *Are you planning to come to the party? Mary's coming. So is Alex.*

3-8 Using the Simple Present to Express Future Time

- (a) My plane **arrives** at 7:35 *tomorrow evening*.
- (b) Tim's new job **starts** *next week*.
- (c) The semester **ends** *in two more weeks*.
- (d) There **is** a meeting at ten *tomorrow morning*.

The simple present can express future time when events are on a definite schedule or timetable.

Only a few verbs are used in the simple present to express future time. The most common are **arrive**, **leave**, **start**, **begin**, **end**, **finish**, **open**, **close**, **be**.

- (e) **INCORRECT:** *I wear my new suit to the wedding next week.*

Most verbs CANNOT be used in the simple present to express future time. For example, in (e): The verb **wear** does not express an event on a schedule or timetable. It cannot be used in the simple present to express future time.

CORRECT: *I am wearing/am going to wear my new suit to the wedding next week.*

3-9 Immediate Future: Using *Be About To*

- (a) Ann's bags are packed, and she is wearing her coat. She *is about to leave* for the airport.
- (b) Shhh. The movie *is about to begin*.

The idiom ***be about to do something*** expresses an activity that will happen *in the immediate future*, usually within minutes or seconds.

In (a): Ann is going to leave sometime in the next few minutes.

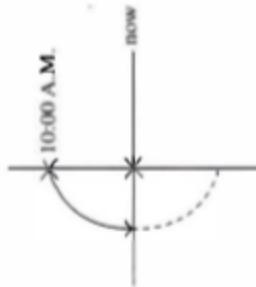
In (b): The movie is going to start in the next few minutes.

4-1 Past Participle

	Simple Form	Simple Past	Past Participle	
REGULAR VERBS	finish stop wait	finished stopped waited	finished stopped waited	<p>The past participle is one of the principal parts of a verb. (See Chart 2-3, p. 31.)</p> <p>The past participle is used in the PRESENT PERFECT tense and the PAST PERFECT tense.*</p> <p>The past participle of regular verbs is the same as the simple past form: both end in -ed.</p>
IRREGULAR VERBS	see make put	saw made put	seen made put	<p>See Chart 2-4, p. 32, or the inside front and back covers for a list of irregular verbs.</p>

*The past participle is also used in the passive. See Chapter 10.

4-2 Present Perfect with Since and For



- (a) I've been in class **since ten o'clock this morning.**
 (b) We have known Ben **for ten years.**
 We met him ten years ago. We still know him today. We are friends.

The present perfect tense is used in sentences with **since** and **for** to express situations that began in the past and continue to the present.

In (a): Class started at ten. I am still in class now, at the moment of speaking.

INCORRECT: I am in class since ten o'clock this morning.

- (c) I have
 You have
 She, He, It has
 We have
 They have } been here for one hour.

FORM: **have/has + past participle**

CONTRACTED FORMS: I've, You've, He's, She's, It's, We've, They've.

Since

- (d) I have been here } since eight o'clock.
 } since Tuesday.
 } since 2009
 } since yesterday.
 } since last month.

Since is followed by the mention of a specific point in time: an hour, a day, a month, a year, etc.

Since expresses the idea that something began at a specific time in the past and continues to the present.

- (e) **CORRECT:** I have lived here since May.*
CORRECT: I have been here since May.
 (f) **INCORRECT:** I am living here since May.
 (g) **INCORRECT:** I live here since May.
 (h) **INCORRECT:** I lived here since May.
 (i) **INCORRECT:** I was here since May.

Notice the incorrect sentences:

In (f): The present progressive is not used.

In (g): The simple present is not used.

In (h) and (i): The simple past is not used.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| MAIN CLAUSE
(present perfect) | SINCE-CLAUSE
(simple past) |
| (j) I have lived here | since I was a child. |
| (k) Al has met many people | since he came here. |

Since may also introduce a time clause (i.e., a subject and verb may follow **since**). Notice in the examples: The present perfect is used in the main clause; the simple past is used in the **since-clause**.

Since

(d) I have been here	{ since eight o'clock. since Tuesday. since 2009 since yesterday. since last month.	<p>Since is followed by the mention of a <i>specific point in time</i>: an hour, a day, a month, a year, etc.</p> <p>Since expresses the idea that something began at a specific time in the past and continues to the present.</p>
(e) CORRECT: I have lived here since May.* CORRECT: I have been here since May.		Notice the incorrect sentences:
(f) INCORRECT: I am living here since May.		In (f): The present progressive is NOT used.
(g) INCORRECT: I live here since May.		In (g): The simple present is NOT used.
(h) INCORRECT: I lived here since May.		In (h) and (i): The simple past is NOT used.
(i) INCORRECT: I was here since May.		
MAIN CLAUSE (present perfect) (j) I have lived here	SINCE-CLAUSE (simple past) since I was a child.	<p>Since may also introduce a time clause (i.e., a subject and verb may follow since).</p> <p>Notice in the examples: The present perfect is used in the main clause; the simple past is used in the <i>since</i>-clause.</p>
(k) Al has met many people	since he came here.	

For

(l) I have been here	{ for ten minutes. for two hours. for five days. for about three weeks. for almost six months. for many years. for a long time.	<p>For is followed by the mention of a <i>length of time</i>: two minutes, three hours, four days, five weeks, etc.).</p> <p>NOTE: If the noun ends in -s (<i>hours, days, weeks, etc.</i>), use for in the time expression, not since.</p>
----------------------	---	--

*Also correct: I have been living here since May. See Chart 4-6 for a discussion of the present perfect progressive.

4-3 Negative, Question, and Short-Answer Forms

Negative

- (a) I **have not (haven't)** seen Tom since lunch.
(b) Ann **has not (hasn't)** eaten for several hours.

NEGATIVE: **have/has + not + past participle**

NEGATIVE CONTRACTIONS: **have + not = haven't**
has + not = hasn't

Question

- (c) **Have you seen Tom?**
(d) **Has Ann eaten?**
(e) How long **have you lived** here?

QUESTION: **have/has + subject + past participle**

- (f) — Have you **ever** met a famous person?
— No, I've **never** met a famous person.

In (f): **ever** = in your lifetime; from the time you were born to the present moment. Questions with **ever** frequently use the present perfect.

When answering questions with **ever**, speakers often use **never**. **Never** is frequently used with the present perfect.

In the answer to (f), the speaker is saying: "No, I haven't met a famous person from the time I was born to the present moment."

Short Answer

- (g) — Have you seen Tom?
— Yes, I **have**. OR No, I **haven't**.
(h) — Has Ann eaten lunch?
— Yes, she **has**. OR No, she **hasn't**.

SHORT ANSWER: **have/haven't or has/hasn't**

NOTE: The helping verb in the short answer is not contracted with the pronoun.

INCORRECT: Yes, I've. OR Yes, he's.

4-4 Present Perfect with Unspecified Time



Toshi has already eaten lunch.



Eva hasn't eaten lunch yet.

 before now time? X now before now XXX X now	<p>(a) Toshi <i>has just eaten</i> lunch. (b) Jim <i>has recently changed</i> jobs.</p>	<p>The PRESENT PERFECT expresses an activity or situation that occurred (or did not occur) before now, at some unspecified or unknown time in the past.</p> <p>Common time words that express this idea are <i>just</i>, <i>recently</i>, <i>already</i>, <i>yet</i>, <i>ever</i>, <i>never</i>.</p> <p>In (a): Toshi's lunch occurred before the present time. The exact time is not mentioned; it is unimportant or unknown.</p>
 before now XXX X now	<p>(c) Pete <i>has eaten</i> at that restaurant <i>many times</i>. (d) I <i>have eaten</i> there <i>twice</i>.</p>	<p>An activity may be repeated two, several, or more times before now, at unspecified times in the past, as in (c) and (d).</p>
 before now XXX X now	<p>(e) Pete <i>has already left</i> OR <i>Pete has left already</i>. (f) Min <i>hasn't left yet</i>. (g) <i>Have you already left?</i> <i>Have you left already?</i> <i>Have you left yet?</i></p>	<p>In (e): <i>Already</i> is used in affirmative statements. It can come after the helping verb or at the end of the sentence.</p> <p>Idea of <i>already</i>: Something happened before now, before this time.</p> <p>In (f): <i>Yet</i> is used in negative statements and comes at the end of the sentence.</p> <p>Idea of <i>yet</i>: Something did not happen before now (up to this time), but it may happen in the future.</p> <p>In (g): Both <i>yet</i> and <i>already</i> can be used in questions.</p>

4-5 Simple Past vs. Present Perfect

SIMPLE PAST

- (a) I **finished** my work *two hours ago*.

PRESENT PERFECT

- (b) I **have** already **finished** my work.

In (a): I finished my work at a specific time in the past (*two hours ago*).

In (b): I finished my work at an unspecified time in the past (*sometime before now*).

SIMPLE PAST

- (c) I **was** in Europe *last year / three years ago / in 2006 / in 2008 and 2010 / when I was ten years old*.

PRESENT PERFECT

- (d) I **have been** in Europe *many times / several times / a couple of times / once / (no mention of time)*.

The SIMPLE PAST expresses an activity that occurred at a specific time (or times) in the past, as in (a) and (c).

The PRESENT PERFECT expresses an activity that occurred at an unspecified time (or times) in the past, as in (b) and (d).

SIMPLE PAST

- (e) Ann **was** in Miami *for two weeks*.

PRESENT PERFECT

- (f) Bob **has been** in Miami *for two weeks / since May 1st*.

In (e): In sentences where **for** is used in a time expression, the simple past expresses an activity that began and ended in the past.

In (f): In sentences with **for** or **since**, the present perfect expresses an activity that began in the past and continues to the present.

4-6 Present Perfect Progressive



Al and Ann are in their car right now. They are driving home. It is now four o'clock.

- (a) They **have been driving** since two o'clock.
- (b) They **have been driving** for two hours.
They will be home soon.

The PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE talks about *how long* an activity has been in progress before now.

NOTE: Time expressions with **since**, as in (a), and **for**, as in (b), are frequently used with this tense.

STATEMENT:

have/has + been + -ing

- (c) How long **have they been driving?**

QUESTION:

have/has + subject + been + -ing

Present Progressive vs. Present Perfect Progressive

Present Progressive

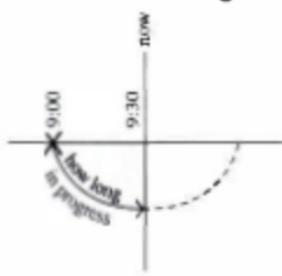


- (d) Po *is sitting* in class right now.

The PRESENT PROGRESSIVE describes an activity that is in progress right now, as in (d). It does not discuss duration (length of time).

INCORRECT: Po *has been sitting in class right now.*

Present Perfect Progressive



Po is sitting at his desk in class. He sat down at nine o'clock. It is now nine-thirty.

- (e) Po *has been sitting* in class since nine o'clock.
 (f) Po *has been sitting* in class for thirty minutes.

The PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE expresses the **duration** (length of time) of an activity that began in the past and is in progress right now.

INCORRECT: Po *is sitting in class since nine o'clock.*

- (g) CORRECT: I *know* Yoko.

- (h) INCORRECT: I *am knowing* Yoko.

- (i) CORRECT: I *have known* Yoko **for** two years.

- (j) INCORRECT: I *have been knowing* Yoko **for** two years.

NOTE: Non-action verbs (e.g., *know, like, own, belong*) are generally not used in the progressive tenses.*

In (i): With non-action verbs, the present perfect is used with **since** or **for** to express the duration of a situation that began in the past and continues to the present.

4-7 Present Perfect Progressive vs. Present Perfect



Present Perfect Progressive

- (a) Gina and Tarik are talking on the phone.
They **have been talking** on the phone for
20 minutes.

The PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE expresses the **duration of present activities**, using action verbs, as in (a). The activity began in the past and is still in progress.

Present Perfect

- (b) Gina **has talked** to Tarik on the phone many times
(before now).
- (c) **INCORRECT:** *Gina has been talking to Tarik on the phone many times.*
- (d) Gina **has known** Tarik for two years.
- (e) **INCORRECT:** *Gina has been knowing Tarik for two years.*

The PRESENT PERFECT expresses

- (1) repeated activities that occur at **unspecified times in the past**, as in (b), OR
- (2) the **duration of present situations**, as in (d), using non-action verbs.

Present Perfect Progressive and Present Perfect

- (f) I **have been living** here for six months. OR
(g) I **have lived** here for six months.
- (h) Ed **has been wearing** glasses since he was ten. OR
Ed **has worn** glasses since he was ten.
- (i) I've **been going** to school ever since I was five years old. OR
I've **gone** to school ever since I was five years old.

For some (not all) verbs, duration can be expressed by either the present perfect or the present perfect progressive.

Examples (f) and (g) have essentially the same meaning, and both are correct.

Often either tense can be used with verbs that express the **duration of usual or habitual activities/situations** (things that happen daily or regularly), e.g., *live, work, teach, smoke, wear glasses, play chess, go to school, read the same newspaper every morning, etc.*

4-8 Past Perfect

Situation:

Jack left his apartment at 2:00. Sue arrived at his apartment at 2:15 and knocked on the door.

- (a) When Sue arrived, Jack wasn't there. He **had left**.

The PAST PERFECT is used when the speaker is talking about two different events at two different times in the past; one event ends before the second event happens.

In (a): There are two events, and both happened in the past: *Jack left his apartment. Sue arrived at his apartment.*

To show the time relationship between the two events, we use the past perfect (**had left**) to say that the first event (Jack leaving his apartment) was completed before the second event (Sue arriving at his apartment) occurred.



- (b) Jack **had left** his apartment when Sue arrived.

FORM: **had** – past participle

- (c) **He'd left. I'd left. They'd left. Etc.**

CONTRACTION: I / you / she / he / it / we / they + 'd

(b) Jack **had left** his apartment when Sue arrived.

FORM: **had** – past participle

(c) He'd left. I'd left. They'd left. Etc.

CONTRACTION: I / you / she / he / it / we / they + 'd

(d) Jack **had left before** Sue arrived.

When **before** and **after** are used in a sentence, the time relationship is already clear so the past perfect is often not necessary. The simple past may be used, as in (e) and (g).

(e) Jack **left before** Sue arrived.

Examples (d) and (e) have the same meaning.

(f) Sue **arrived after** Jack had left.

Examples (f) and (g) have the same meaning.

(g) Sue **arrived after** Jack left.

(h) Stella was alone in a strange city. She walked down the avenue slowly, looking in shop windows. Suddenly, she turned her head and looked behind her. Someone **had called** her name.

The past perfect is more common in formal writing such as fiction, as in (h).

5-1 Yes/No Questions and Short Answers

Yes/No Question	Short Answer (+ Long Answer)	
(a) Do you like tea?	Yes, I do. (I like tea.) No, I don't. (I don't like tea.)	A yes/no question is a question that can be answered by yes or no.
(b) Did Sue call?	Yes, she did. (Sue called.) No, she didn't. (Sue didn't call.)	In an affirmative short answer (yes), a helping verb is NOT contracted with the subject.
(c) Have you met Al?	Yes, I have. (I have met Al.) No, I haven't. (I haven't met Al.)	In (c): INCORRECT: Yes, I've. In (d): INCORRECT: Yes, it's. In (e): INCORRECT: Yes, he'll.
(d) Is it raining?	Yes, it is. (It's raining.) No, it isn't. (It isn't raining.)	The spoken emphasis in a short answer is on the verb.
(e) Will Rob be here?	Yes, he will. (Rob will be here.) No, he won't. (Rob won't be here.)	

5-10 Using *How Far*

- (a) ***It is*** 489 miles ***from*** Oslo ***to*** Helsinki by air.*
from Moscow ***to*** Beijing.
from Beijing ***to*** Moscow.
to Beijing ***from*** Moscow.
to Moscow ***from*** Beijing.
- (b) ***It is*** 3,605 miles

The most common way of expressing distance:

It is + distance + from/to + to/from

In (b): All four expressions with ***from*** and ***to*** have the same meaning.

- (c) — ***How far is it*** from Mumbai to Delhi?
— 725 miles.

How far is used to ask questions about distance.

- (d) — ***How far do you live*** from school?
— Four blocks.

- (e) ***How many miles*** is it from London to Paris?
(f) ***How many kilometers*** is it to Montreal from here?
(g) ***How many blocks*** is it to the post office?

Other ways to ask ***how far***:

- ***how many miles***
- ***how many kilometers***
- ***how many blocks***

*1 mile = 1.60 kilometers; 1 kilometer = 0.614 mile

5-11 Length of Time: *It + Take* and *How Long*

IT + TAKE + (SOMEONE) + LENGTH OF TIME + INFINITIVE

- (a) *It takes 20 minutes to cook rice.*
(b) *It took Al two hours to drive to work.*
- (c) *How long does it take to cook rice?* Twenty minutes.
(d) *How long did it take Al to drive to work today?* Two hours.
(e) *How long did you study last night?* Four hours.
(f) *How long will you be in Hong Kong?* Ten days.
- (g) *How many days will you be in Hong Kong?*

It + take is often used with time words and an infinitive to express **length of time**, as in (a) and (b).

An infinitive = *to + the simple form of a verb.**

In (a): *to cook* is an infinitive.

How long asks about **length of time**.

Other ways of asking **how long**:

how many +

{ minutes
hours
days
weeks
months
years

5-12 Spoken and Written Contractions with Question Words

Spoken Only

is	(a) "When's he coming?" "Why's she late?"	<i>Is, are, does, did, has, have, and will</i> are usually contracted with question words in speaking.
are	(b) "What're these?" "Who're they talking to?"	
does	(c) "When's the movie start?" "Where's he live?"	
did	(d) "Who'd you see?" "What'd you do?"	
has	(e) "What's she done?" "Where's he gone?"	
have	(f) "How've you been?" "What've I done?"	
will	(g) "Where'll you be?" "When'll they be here?"	
	(h) What do you → Whaddaya think? (i) What are you → Whaddaya thinking?	What do you and What are you both can be reduced to "Whaddaya" in spoken English.

Written

is	(j) Where's Ed? What's that? Who's he?	Only contractions with where , what , or who + is are commonly used in writing, such as in letters to friends or emails. They are generally not appropriate in more formal writing, such as in magazine articles or reference material.
----	--	---

5-13 More Questions with *How*

Question	Answer	
(a) How do you spell "coming"?	C-O-M-I-N-G.	To answer (a): Spell the word.
(b) How do you say "yes" in Japanese?	Hai.	To answer (b): Say the word.
(c) How do you say/pronounce this word?	_____	To answer (c): Pronounce the word.
(d) How are you getting along? (e) How are you doing? (f) How's it going?	Great. Fine. Okay. So-so.	In (d), (e), and (f): How is your life? Is your life okay? Do you have any problems? NOTE: Example (f) is also used in greetings: <i>Hi, Bob. How's it going?</i>
(g) How do you feel? How are you feeling?	Terrific! Wonderful! Great! Fine. Okay. So-so. A bit under the weather. Not so good. Terrible! / Lousy! / Awful!	The questions in (g) ask about health or about general emotional state.
(h) How do you do?	How do you do?	How do you do? is used by two speakers when they meet each other for the first time in a somewhat formal situation, as in (h).*

*A: Dr. Erickson, I'd like to introduce you to a friend of mine, Rick Brown. Rick, this is my biology professor, Dr. Erickson.

B: **How do you do, Mr. Brown?**

C: **How do you do, Dr. Erickson? I'm pleased to meet you.**

5-14 Using *How About* and *What About*

- (a) A: We need one more player.
B: ***How about/What about Jack?***

Let's ask him if he wants to play.

- (b) A: What time should we meet?
B: ***How about/What about three o'clock?***

- (c) A: What should we do this afternoon?
B: ***How about going*** to the zoo?

- (d) A: ***What about asking*** Sally over for dinner next Sunday?
B: Okay. Good idea.

- (e) A: I'm tired. ***How about you?***
B: Yes, I'm tired too.

- (f) A: Are you hungry?
B: No. ***What about you?***
A: I'm a little hungry.

How about and ***what about*** have the same meaning and usage. They are used to make suggestions or offers.

How about and ***what about*** are followed by a noun (or pronoun) or the -ing form of a verb (gerund).

NOTE: ***How about*** and ***what about*** are frequently used in informal spoken English, but are usually not used in writing.

How about you? and ***What about you?*** are used to ask a question that refers to the information or question that immediately preceded it.

In (e): ***How about you?*** = ***Are you tired?***

In (f): ***What about you?*** = ***Are you hungry?***

5-15 Tag Questions

- (a) Jill is sick, *isn't she?*
- (b) You didn't know, *did you?*
- (c) There's enough time, *isn't there?*
- (d) I'm not late, *am I?*
- (e) I'm late, *aren't I?*

A tag question is a question that is added onto the end of a sentence. An auxiliary verb is used in a tag question.

Notice that *I am* becomes *aren't I* in a negative tag, as in (e). (*Am I not* is also possible, but it is very formal and rare.)

Affirmative (+)

Negative (-)

**Affirmative
Expected Answer**

- (d) *You know Bill,*
- (e) *Marie is from Paris,*

*don't you?
Isn't she?*

**Yes.
Yes.**

When the main verb is affirmative, the tag question is negative, and the expected answer agrees with the main verb.

Negative (-)

Affirmative (+)

**Negative
Expected Answer**

- (f) *You don't know Tom,*
- (g) *Marie isn't from Athens,*

*do you?
Is she?*

**No.
No.**

When the main verb is negative, the tag question is affirmative, and the expected answer agrees with the main verb.

THE SPEAKER'S QUESTION

THE SPEAKER'S IDEA

(h) It will be nice tomorrow, *won't it?*

Tag questions have two types of intonation: rising and falling. The intonation determines the meaning of the tag.

(i) It will be nice tomorrow, *won't it?*

A speaker uses rising intonation to make sure information is correct. In (h): the speaker has an idea; the speaker is checking to see if the idea is correct.

Falling intonation is used when the speaker is seeking agreement. In (i): the speaker thinks it will be nice tomorrow and is almost certain the listener will agree.

YES/NO QUESTIONS

- (j) — Will it be nice tomorrow?
— *Yes, it will.* OR *No, it won't.*

In (j): The speaker has no idea. The speaker is simply looking for information.

Compare (h) and (i) with (j).

5-2 Yes/No and Information Questions

A yes/no question = a question that can be answered by "yes" or "no"

A: *Does Ann live in Montreal?*

B: *Yes, she does.* OR *No, she doesn't.*

An information question = a question that asks for information by using a question word:

where, when, why, who, whom, what, which, whose, how

A: *Where does Ann live?*

B: *In Montreal.*

(Question Word)	Helping Verb	Subject	Main Verb	(Rest of Sentence)	
(a)	Does	Ann	live	in Montreal?	The same subject-verb word order is used in both yes/no and information questions: <i>Helping Verb + Subject + Main Verb</i>
(b) Where	does	Ann	live?		
(c)	Is	Sara	studying	at the library?	Example (a) is a yes/no question. Example (b) is an information question.
(d) Where	is	Sara	studying?		
(e)	Will	you	graduate	next year?	In (i) and (j): Main verb be in simple present and simple past (am, is, are, was, were) precedes the subject. It has the same position as a helping verb.
(f) When	will	you	graduate?		
(g)	Did	they	see	Jack?	
(h) Who(m)*	did	they	see?		
(i)	Is	Heidi		at home?	
(j) Where	is	Heidi?			
(k)		Who	came	to dinner?	When the question word (e.g., who or what) is the subject of the question, usual question word order is not used. Notice in (k) and (l) that no form of do is used.
(l)		What	happened	yesterday?	

*See Chart 5-4 for a discussion of **who(m)**.

5-3 Where, Why, When, What Time, How Come, What . . . For

Question	Answer	
(a) Where did he go?	Home.	Where asks about place.
(b) When did he leave?	{ Last night. Two days ago. Monday morning. Seven-thirty.	A question with when can be answered by any time expression, as in the sample answers in (b).
(c) What time did he leave?	{ Seven-thirty. Around five o'clock. A quarter past ten.	A question with what time asks about <i>time on a clock</i> .
(d) Why did he leave?	Because he didn't feel well.*	Why asks about reason.
(e) What did he leave for ?	Why can also be expressed with the phrases What . . . for and How come , as in (e) and (f).	Notice that with How come , usual question order is not used. The subject precedes the verb and no form of do is used.
(f) How come he left?		

*See Chart 8-6, p. 221, for the use of *because*. *Because I didn't feel well* is an adverb clause. It is not a complete sentence. In this example, it is the short answer to a question.

5-4 Questions With Who, Who(m), and What

Question	Answer	
(a) Who came? S Who came?	S Someone came.	In (a): Who is used as the subject (S) of a question. In (b): Who(m) is used as the object (O) in a question.
(b) Who(m) did you see? O Who(m) did you see?	S O <i>I saw someone.</i>	Whom is used in very formal English. In everyday spoken English, who is usually used instead of whom : UNCOMMON: Whom did you see? COMMON: Who did you see?
(c) What happened? S What happened?	S Something happened.	What can be used as either the subject or the object in a question. Notice in (a) and (c): When who or what is used as the subject of a question, usual question word order is not used; no form of do is used:
(d) What did you see? O What did you see?	S O <i>I saw something.</i>	 CORRECT: Who came? INCORRECT: Who did come?

5-5 Using *What* + a Form of *Do*

Question	Answer	
(a) <i>What does</i> Bob <i>do</i> every morning?	He <i>goes to class</i> .	<i>What</i> + a form of <i>do</i> is used to ask questions about activities.
(b) <i>What did</i> you <i>do</i> yesterday?	I <i>went downtown</i> .	
(c) <i>What is</i> Anna <i>doing</i> (right now)?	She's <i>studying</i> .	Examples of forms of <i>do</i> : <i>am doing</i> ,
(d) <i>What are</i> you <i>going to do</i> tomorrow?	I'm <i>going to go to the beach</i> .	<i>will do</i> , <i>are going to do</i> , <i>did</i> , etc.
(e) <i>What do</i> you <i>want to do</i> tonight?	I <i>want to go to a movie</i> .	
(f) <i>What would</i> you <i>like to do</i> tomorrow?	I <i>would like to visit Jim</i> .	

5-6 Using *Which* and *What Kind Of*

Which

<p>(a) TOM: May I borrow a pen from you? ANN: Sure. I have two pens. This pen has black ink. That pen has red ink. Which pen do you want? OR Which one do you want? OR Which do you want?</p>	<p>In (a): Ann uses which (not what) because she wants Tom to choose.</p>
<p>(b) SUE: I like these earrings, and I like those too. BOB: Which (earrings / ones) are you going to buy? SUE: I think I'll get these.</p>	<p>Which can be used with either singular or plural nouns.</p>
<p>(c) JIM: Here's a photo of my daughter's class. KIM: Very nice. Which one is your daughter?</p>	<p>Which can be used to ask about people as well as things.</p>
<p>(d) SUE: My aunt gave me some money for my birthday. I'm going to take it with me to the mall. BOB: What are you going to buy with it? SUE: I haven't decided yet.</p>	<p>In (d): The question doesn't involve choosing from a particular group of items, so Bob uses what, not which.</p>

What kind of

QUESTION	ANSWER									
(e) What kind of shoes did you buy?	Boots. Sandals. Tennis shoes. Loafers. Running shoes. High heels. Etc.	<p>What kind of asks for information about a specific type (a specific kind) in a general category.</p> <p>In (e): general category = shoes</p> <table style="margin-left: 100px;"> <tr> <td>specific kinds</td> <td>= boots</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>sandals</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>tennis shoes</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>etc.</td> </tr> </table>	specific kinds	= boots		sandals		tennis shoes		etc.
specific kinds	= boots									
	sandals									
	tennis shoes									
	etc.									
(f) What kind of fruit do you like best?	Apples. Bananas. Oranges. Grapefruit. Strawberries. Etc.	<p>In (f): general category = fruit</p> <table style="margin-left: 100px;"> <tr> <td>specific kinds</td> <td>= apples</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>bananas</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>oranges</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>etc.</td> </tr> </table>	specific kinds	= apples		bananas		oranges		etc.
specific kinds	= apples									
	bananas									
	oranges									
	etc.									

5-7 Using *Whose*

Question

Answer

(a) **Whose (book)** is this?

It's John's (book).

Whose asks about possession.*

(b) **Whose (books)** are those?

They're mine (OR my books).

Notice in (a): The speaker of the question may omit the noun (*book*) if the meaning is clear to the listener.

(c) **Whose car** did you borrow?

I borrowed Karen's (car).

COMPARE:

(d) **Who's** that?

Mary Smith.

Who's and **whose** have the same pronunciation.

(e) **Whose** is that?

Mary's.

Who's is a contraction of **who is**.
Whose asks about possession.

*See Charts 6-11, p. 166, and 6-12, p. 168, for ways of expressing possession.

5-8 Using *How*

Question	Answer	
(a) How did you get here?	I drove. / By car. I took a taxi. / By taxi. I took a bus. / By bus. I flew. / By plane. I took a train. / By train. I walked. / On foot.	How has many uses. One use of how is to ask about means (ways) of transportation.
(b) How old are you?	Twenty-one.	How is often used with adjectives (e.g., <i>old, big</i>) and adverbs (e.g., <i>well, quickly</i>).
(c) How tall is he?	About six feet.	
(d) How big is your apartment?	It has three rooms.	
(e) How sleepy are you?	Very sleepy.	
(f) How hungry are you?	I'm starving.	
(g) How soon will you be ready?	In five minutes.	
(h) How well does he speak English?	Very well.	
(i) How quickly can you get there?	I can get there in 30 minutes.	

5-9 Using *How Often*

Question	Answer	
(a) How often do you go shopping?	<p>Every day. Once a week. About twice a week. Every other day or so.* Three times a month.</p>	How often asks about frequency.
(b) How many times a day do you eat? <i>How many times a week</i> do you go shopping? <i>How many times a month</i> do you go to the post office? <i>How many times a year</i> do you take a vacation?	<p>Three or four. Two. Once. Once or twice.</p>	<p>Other ways of asking how often:</p> <p>how many times { <i>a day</i> <i>a week</i> <i>a month</i> <i>a year</i></p>

Frequency Expressions

a lot	every	day / week / month / year
occasionally	every other	
once in a while	once a	
not very often	twice a	
hardly ever	three times a	
almost never	ten times a	
never		

**Every other day* means "Monday yes, Tuesday no, Wednesday yes, Thursday no," etc.

Or so means "approximately."

6-1 Plural Forms of Nouns

Singular	Plural	
(a) one bird one street one rose	two birds two streets two roses	To make most nouns plural, add -s .
(b) one dish one match one class one box	two dishes two matches two classes two boxes	Add -es to nouns ending in -sh , -ch , -ss , and -x .
(c) one baby one city	two babies two cities	If a noun ends in a consonant + -y , change the y to i and add -es , as in (c).
(d) one toy one key	two toys two keys	If -y is preceded by a vowel, add only -s , as in (d).
(e) one knife one shelf	two knives two shelves	If a noun ends in -fe or -f , change the ending to -ves . EXCEPTIONS: beliefs, chiefs, roofs, cuffs, cliffs.
(f) one tomato one zoo one zero	two tomatoes two zoos two zeroes/zeros	The plural form of nouns that end in -o is sometimes -oes and sometimes -os . -oes: tomatoes, potatoes, heroes, echoes -os: zoos, radios, studios, pianos, solos, sopranos, photos, autos, videos -oes or -os: zeroes/zeros, volcanoes/volcanos, tornadoes/tornados, mosquitoes/mosquitos
(g) one child one foot one goose one man one mouse one tooth one woman	two children two feet two geese two men two mice two teeth two women two people	Some nouns have irregular plural forms. NOTE: The singular form of people can be person, woman, man, child. For example, one man and one child = two people. (Two persons is also possible.)
(h) one deer one fish one sheep	two deer two fish two sheep	The plural form of some nouns is the same as the singular form.
(i) one bacterium one crisis	two bacteria two crises	Some nouns that English has borrowed from other languages have foreign plurals.

6-10 Personal Pronouns: Subjects and Objects

Personal Pronouns

SUBJECT PRONOUNS:

I

we

you

he, she, it

they

OBJECT PRONOUNS:

me

us

you

him, her, it

them

- (a) *Kate* is married. *She* has two children.
- S

O

- (b) *Kate* is my friend. I know *her* well.
- T

O

- (c) Mike has *a new blue bike*.
He bought *it* yesterday.

- (d) *Eric and I* are good friends.
- S

O

- (e) Ann met *Eric and me* at the museum.
- O

O of PREP

- (f) Ann walked between *Eric and me*.

A pronoun refers to a noun.

In (a): *she* is a pronoun; it refers to *Kate*.

In (b): *her* is a pronoun; it refers to *Kate*.

In (a): *She* is a SUBJECT PRONOUN.

In (b): *her* is an OBJECT PRONOUN.

A pronoun can refer to a single noun (e.g., *Kate*) or to a noun phrase.

In (c): *it* refers to the whole noun phrase *a new blue bike*.

Guidelines for using pronouns following *and*:

If the pronoun is used as part of the subject, use a subject pronoun, as in (d).

If the pronoun is part of the object, use an object pronoun, as in (e) and (f).

INCORRECT: *Eric and me* are good friends.

INCORRECT: *Ann met Eric and I at the museum*.

SINGULAR PRONOUNS:

I

me

you

he, she, it

him, her

PLURAL PRONOUNS:

we

us

you

they

them

- (g) *Mike* is in class. *He* is taking a test.

- (h) The *students* are in class. *They* are taking a test.

- (i) *Kate and Tom* are married. *They* have two children.

Singular = one. Plural = more than one.

Singular pronouns refer to singular nouns; plural pronouns refer to plural nouns, as in the examples.

6-11 Possessive Nouns

SINGULAR: (a) I know the **student's** name.

PLURAL: (b) I know the **students'** names.

PLURAL: (c) I know the **children's** names.

An apostrophe ('') and an -s are used with nouns to show possession.

SINGULAR

- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|
| (d) the student | → the student's name |
| my baby | → my baby's name |
| a man | → a man's name |
| (e) James | → James? James's name |

SINGULAR POSSESSIVE NOUN:

noun + apostrophe ('') + -s

A singular noun that ends in -s has two possible possessive forms: *James'* OR *James's*.

PLURAL

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------------------|
| (f) the students | → the students' names |
| my babies | → my babies' names |
| (g) men | → men's names |
| the children | → the children's names |

PLURAL POSSESSIVE NOUN:

noun + -s + apostrophe ('')

IRREGULAR PLURAL POSSESSIVE NOUN:

noun + apostrophe ('') + -s

(An irregular plural noun is a plural noun that does not end in -s: *children, men, people, women*. See Chart 6-1.)

Compare:

(h) **Tom's** here.

(i) **Tom's** brother is here.

In (h): **Tom's** is not a possessive noun. It is a contraction of *Tom is*, used in informal writing.

In (i): **Tom's** is a possessive noun.

6-12 Possessive Pronouns and Adjectives

This pen belongs to me.

- (a) It's *mine*.
- (b) It is *my* pen.

Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning; they both show possession.

Mine is a possessive pronoun; *my* is a possessive adjective.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

- (c) I have *mine*.
- (d) You have *yours*.
- (e) She has *hers*.
- (f) He has *his*.
- (g) We have *ours*.
- (h) You have *yours*.
- (i) They have *theirs*.
- (j) ——————

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

- I have *my* pen.
- You have *your* pen.
- She has *her* pen.
- He has *his* pen.
- We have *our* pens.
- You have *your* pen.
- They have *their* pens.
- I have a book.
Its cover is black.

A POSSESSIVE PRONOUN is used alone, without a noun following it.

A POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE is used only with a noun following it.

INCORRECT: *I have mine pen.*

INCORRECT: *I have my.*

COMPARE *its* vs. *it's*:

- (k) Sue gave me a book. I don't remember *its* title.
- (l) Sue gave me a book. *It's* a novel.

In (k): *its* (no apostrophe) is a possessive adjective modifying the noun *title*.

In (l): *It's* (with an apostrophe) is a contraction of *it + is*.

COMPARE *their* vs. *there* vs. *they're*:

- (m) The students have *their* books.
- (n) My books are over *there*.
- (o) Where are the students? *They're* in class.

Their, *there*, and *they're* have the same pronunciation, but not the same meaning.

their = possessive adjective, as in (m)

there = an expression of place, as in (n)

they're = *they are*, as in (o)

6-13 Reflexive Pronouns

- | | |
|------------|--|
| myself | (a) <i>I saw myself</i> in the mirror. |
| yourself | (b) <i>You</i> (one person) saw <i>yourself</i> . |
| herself | (c) <i>She saw herself</i> . |
| himself | (d) <i>He saw himself</i> . |
| itself | (e) <i>It</i> (e.g., the kitten) saw <i>itself</i> . |
| ourselves | (f) <i>We saw ourselves</i> . |
| yourselves | (g) <i>You</i> (plural) saw <i>yourselves</i> . |
| themselves | (h) <i>They saw themselves</i> . |

Reflexive pronouns end in **-self/-selves**. They are used when the subject (e.g., *I*) and the object (e.g., *myself*) are the same person.

INCORRECT: *I saw me in the mirror.*



(i) Greg lives **by himself**.

By + a reflexive pronoun = alone

(j) I sat **by myself** on the park bench.

In (i): Greg lives alone, without family or roommates.

(k) I **enjoyed myself** at the fair.

Enjoy and a few other verbs are commonly followed by a reflexive pronoun. See the list below.

Common Expressions with Reflexive Pronouns

believe in yourself	help yourself	pinch yourself	tell yourself
blame yourself	hurt yourself	be proud of yourself	work for yourself
cut yourself	give yourself (something)	take care of yourself	wish yourself (luck)
enjoy yourself	introduce yourself	talk to yourself	
feel sorry for yourself	kill yourself	teach yourself	

6-14 Singular Forms of *Other*: *Another* vs. *The Other*

Another



- (a) There is a large bowl of apples on the table. Paul is going to eat one apple. If he is still hungry after that, he can eat **another** apple. There are many apples to choose from.

Another means "one more out of a group of similar items, one in addition to the one(s) already mentioned."

Another is a combination of *an* + *other*, written as one word.

The Other



- (b) There are two apples on the table. Paul is going to eat one of them. Sara is going to eat **the other** apple.

The other means "the last one in a specific group; the only one that remains from a given number of similar items."

- (c) Paul ate one apple. Then he ate { **another apple**.
another one.
another.

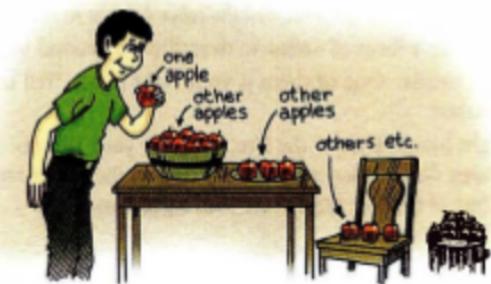
Another and **the other** can be used as adjectives in front of a noun (e.g., *apple*) or in front of the word *one*.

- (d) Paul ate one apple. Sara ate { **the other apple**.
the other one.
the other.

Another and **the other** can also be used alone as pronouns.

6-15 Plural Forms of *Other*: *Other(s)* vs. *The Other(s)*

Other(s)



There are many apples in Paul's kitchen. Paul is holding one apple.

- (a) There are **other** apples in a bowl.
(adjective) + (noun)
- (b) There are **other** ones on a plate.
(adjective) + ones
- (c) There are **others** on a chair.
(pronoun)

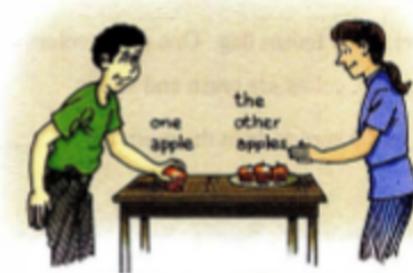
Other(s) (without *the*) means "several more out of a group of similar items, several in addition to the one(s) already mentioned."

The adjective **other** (without an -s) can be used with a plural noun (e.g., apples) or with the word **ones**.

Others (with an -s) is a plural pronoun; it is not used with a noun.

In (c): **others** = **other apples**

The Other(s)



There are four apples on the table. Paul is going to take one of them.

- (d) Sara is going to take **the other** apples.
(adjective) + (noun)
- (e) Sara is going to take **the other** ones.
(adjective) + ones
- (f) Sara is going to take **the others**.
(pronoun)

The other(s) means "the last ones in a specific group, the remains from a given number of similar items."

The other (without an -s) can be used as an adjective in front of a noun or the word **ones**, as in (d) and (e).

The others (with an -s) is a plural pronoun; it is not used with a noun.

In (f): **the others** = **the other apples**

6-16 Summary of Forms of *Other*

	Adjective	Pronoun	
SINGULAR	another apple	another	Notice that the word others (<i>other</i> + final -s) is used only as a
PLURAL	other apples	others	plural pronoun.
SINGULAR	the other apple	the other	
PLURAL	the other apples	the others	

6-2 Pronunciation of Final *-s/-es*

Final *-s/-es* has three different pronunciations: /s/, /z/, and /əz/.

(a)	seats	=	seat/s/ maps	=	map/z/ lakes	=	lake/s/	Final -s is pronounced /s/ after voiceless sounds. In (a): /s/ is the sound of "s" in "bus." Examples of voiceless* sounds: /t/, /p/, /k/.						
(b)	seeds	=	seed/z/ stars	=	star/z/ holes	=	hole/z/ laws	Final -s is pronounced /z/ after voiced sounds. In (b): /z/ is the sound of "z" in "buzz." Examples of voiced* sounds: /d/, /h/, /v/, /m/, /b/, and all vowel sounds.						
(c)	dishes	=	dish/əz/ matches	=	match/əz/ classes	=	class/əz/ sizes	=	size/əz/ pages	=	page/əz/ judges	=	judge/əz/	Final <i>-s/-es</i> is pronounced /əz/ after -sh, -ch, -s, -z, -ge/-dge sounds. In (c): /əz/ adds a syllable to a word.

*See Chart 2-5, p. 39, for more information about voiceless and voiced sounds.

6-3 Subjects, Verbs, and Objects

	S	V
(a) The	sun (noun)	shines. (verb)

An English sentence has a SUBJECT (s) and a VERB (v).

The SUBJECT is a noun. In (a): **sun** is a noun; it is the subject of the verb **shines**.

	S	V
(b) Plants	grow. (noun)	

Sometimes a VERB is followed by an OBJECT (o).

The OBJECT of a verb is a noun. In (c): **water** is the object of the verb **need**.

	S	V	O
(d) Bob		is reading	a book.

6-4 Objects of Prepositions

S	V	O	PREP	O OF PREP
(a) Ann put her books		on	the	desk. (noun)

S	V	PREP	O OF PREP
(b) A leaf fell		to	the

Many English sentences have prepositional phrases.

In (a): **on the desk** is a prepositional phrase.

A prepositional phrase consists of a PREPOSITION (PREP) and an OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION (O of PREP). The object of a preposition is a NOUN.

Reference List of Prepositions

about	before	despite	of	to
above	behind	down	off	toward(s)
across	below	during	on	under
after	beneath	for	out	until
against	beside	from	over	up
along	besides	in	since	upon
among	between	into	through	with
around	beyond	like	throughout	within
at	by	near	till	without

6-5 Prepositions of Time

in

- (a) Please be on time *in the future*.
- (b) I usually watch TV *in the evening*.
- (c) I was born *in October*.
- (d) I was born *in 1995*.
- (e) I was born *in the 20th century*.
- (f) The weather is hot *in (the) summer*.

*in + the past, the present, the future**

in + the morning, the afternoon, the evening

in + {
 a month
 a year
 a century
 a season

on

- (g) I was born *on October 31st, 1995*.
- (h) I went to a movie *on Thursday*.
- (i) I have class *on Thursday morning(s)*.

on + a date

on + a weekday

on + (a) weekday morning(s), afternoon(s), evening(s)

at

- (j) We sleep at night. I was asleep *at midnight*.
- (k) I fell asleep *at 9:30 (nine-thirty)*.
- (l) He's busy *at the moment*. Can I take a message?

at + noon, night, midnight

at + "clock time"

at + the moment, the present time, present

*Possible in British English: *in future* (e.g., *Please be on time in future*.)

6-6 Word Order: Place and Time

S V PLACE TIME

- (a) Ann moved *to Paris* *in 2008*.
We went *to a movie* *yesterday*.

S V O P T

- (b) We bought *a house* *in Miami* *in 2005*.

In a typical English sentence, "place" comes before "time," as in (a).

INCORRECT: *Ann moved in 2008 to Paris*.

S-V-O-P-T = Subject-Verb-Object-Place-Time
(basic English sentence structure)

TIME S V PLACE

- (c) *In 2008*, Ann moved *to Paris*.
(d) *Yesterday* we went *to a movie*.

Expressions of time can also come at the beginning of a sentence,
as in (c) and (d).

A time phrase at the beginning of a sentence is often followed by a
comma, as in (c).

6-7 Subject-Verb Agreement

SINGULAR SINGULAR
(a) The sun shines.

PLURAL PLURAL
(b) Birds sing.

SINGULAR SINGULAR
(c) My brother lives in Jakarta.

PLURAL PLURAL
(d) My brother and sister live in Jakarta.

(e) The glasses over there under the window by the sink are clean.

(f) The information in those magazines about Vietnamese culture and customs is very interesting.

V S
(g) There is a book on the desk.

V S
(h) There are some books on the desk.

(i) Every student is sitting down.

(j) Everybody/Everyone hopes for peace.

(k) People in my country are friendly.

A singular subject takes a singular verb, as in (a).
A plural subject takes a plural verb, as in (b).

Notice: verb + -s = singular (shines)
noun + -s = plural (birds)

Two subjects connected by and take a plural verb, as in (d).

Sometimes phrases come between a subject and a verb. These phrases do not affect the agreement of the subject and verb.

There + be + subject expresses that something exists in a particular place. The verb agrees with the noun that follows **be**.

Every is a singular word. It is used with a singular, not plural, noun.

INCORRECT: Every students . . .

Subjects with **every** take singular verbs, as in (i) and (j).

People is a plural noun and takes a plural verb.

6-8 Using Adjectives to Describe Nouns

ADJECTIVE NOUN	Words that describe nouns are called ADJECTIVES. In (a): <i>good</i> is an adjective; it describes the book.
(a) Bob is reading a <i>good</i> book.	We say that adjectives "modify" nouns. <i>Modify</i> means "change a little." An adjective changes the meaning of a noun by giving more information about it.
(b) The <i>tall</i> woman wore a <i>new</i> dress. (c) The <i>short</i> woman wore an <i>old</i> dress. (d) The <i>young</i> woman wore a <i>short</i> dress.	We say that adjectives "modify" nouns. <i>Modify</i> means "change a little." An adjective changes the meaning of a noun by giving more information about it.
(e) Roses are <i>beautiful flowers</i> . <i>INCORRECT:</i> Roses are <i>beautifuls</i> flowers.	Adjectives are neither singular nor plural. They do NOT have a plural form.
(f) He wore a <i>white shirt</i> . <i>INCORRECT:</i> He wore a <i>shirt white</i> .	Adjectives usually come immediately before nouns, as in (f). Adjectives can also follow main verb <i>be</i> , as in (g) and (h).
(g) Roses are <i>beautiful</i> . (h) His shirt was <i>white</i> .	

6-9 Using Nouns as Adjectives

- (a) I have a *flower garden*.
- (b) The *shoe store* also sells socks.
- (c) **INCORRECT:** *a flowers garden*
- (d) **INCORRECT:** *the shoes store*

Sometimes words that are usually used as nouns are used as adjectives. For example, *flower* is usually a noun, but in (a), it's used as an adjective to modify *garden*.

When a noun is used as an adjective, it is singular in form, NOT plural.

7-1 The Form of Modal Auxiliaries

The verbs listed below are called "modal auxiliaries." They are helping verbs that express a wide range of meanings (ability, permission, possibility, necessity, etc.). Most of the modals have more than one meaning.

Auxiliary + the Simple Form of a Verb

can	(a) Olga can speak English.
could	(b) He couldn't come to class.
may	(c) It may rain tomorrow.
might	(d) It might rain tomorrow.
should	(e) Mary should study harder.
had better	(f) I had better study tonight.
must	(g) Billy! You must listen to me!
will	(h) I will be in class tomorrow.
would	(i) Would you please close the door?

Can, could, may, might, should, had better, must, will, and *would* are immediately followed by the simple form of a verb.

- They are not followed by *to*.
INCORRECT: Olga can to speak English.
- The main verb does not have a final *-s*.
INCORRECT: Olga can speaks English.
- The main verb is not in a past form.
INCORRECT: Olga can spoke English.
- The main verb is not in its *-ing* form.
INCORRECT: Olga can speaking English.

Auxiliary + *to* + the Simple Form of a Verb

have to	(j) I have to study tonight.
have got to	(k) I have got to study tonight.
be able to	(l) Kate is able to study harder.
ought to	(m) Kate ought to study harder.

To + the simple form is used with these auxiliaries: *have to, have got to, be able to, and ought to*.

7-10 Expressing Lack of Necessity: *Do Not Have To*; Expressing Prohibition: *Must Not*

(a) I finished all of my homework this afternoon.
I don't have to study tonight.

Don't/doesn't have to expresses the idea that something is *not necessary*.

(b) Tomorrow is a holiday. Mary *doesn't have to go* to class.

(c) Bus passengers *must not talk* to the driver.
(d) Children, you *must not play* with matches!

Must not expresses prohibition (DO NOT DO THIS!).

(e) You *mustn't play* with matches.

Must + not = mustn't
(NOTE: The first "t" is not pronounced.)

7-11 Making Logical Conclusions: *Must*

- (a) A: Nancy is yawning.
B: She ***must be*** sleepy.

In (a): Speaker B is making a logical guess. He bases his guess on the information that Nancy is yawning. His logical conclusion, his "best guess," is that Nancy is sleepy. He uses ***must*** to express his logical conclusion.

- (b) LOGICAL CONCLUSION: Amy plays tennis every day.
She ***must like*** to play tennis.

COMPARE: ***Must*** can express
• a logical conclusion, as in (b).

- (c) NECESSITY: If you want to get into the movie theater, you ***must buy*** a ticket.

• necessity, as in (c).

- (d) NEGATIVE LOGICAL CONCLUSION: Eric ate everything on his plate except the pickle. He ***must not like*** pickles.

COMPARE: ***Must not*** can express
• a negative logical conclusion, as in (d).

- (e) PROHIBITION: There are sharks in the ocean near our hotel. We ***must not go*** swimming there.

• prohibition, as in (e).

7-12 Tag Questions with Modal Auxiliaries

- (a) You *can* come, *can't you*?
- (b) She *won't* tell, *will she*?
- (c) He *should* help, *shouldn't he*?
- (d) They *couldn't* do it, *could they*?
- (e) We *would* like to help, *wouldn't we*?

Tag questions are common with these modal auxiliaries: *can*, *will*, *should*, *could*, and *would*.*

- (f) They *have to* leave, *don't they*?
- (g) They *don't have to* leave, *do they*?
- (h) He *has to* leave, *doesn't he*?
- (i) He *doesn't have to* leave, *does he*?
- (j) You *had to* leave, *didn't you*?
- (k) You *didn't have to* leave, *did you*?

Tag questions are also common with *have to*, *has to*, and *had to*.

Notice that forms of *do* are used for the tag in (f) through (k).

*See Chart 5-15, p. 140, for information on how to use tag questions.

7-13 Giving Instructions: Imperative Sentences

COMMAND:

- (a) Captain: **Open** the door!
Soldier: Yes, sir!

REQUEST:

- (b) Teacher: **Open the door, please.**
Student: Sure.

DIRECTIONS:

- (c) Barbara: Could you tell me how to get to the post office?
Stranger: Certainly. **Walk two blocks down this street. Turn left and walk three more blocks.** It's on the right-hand side of the street.

- (d) **Close** the window.
(e) Please **sit** down.
(f) **Be** quiet!
(g) **Don't walk** on the grass.
(h) Please **don't wait** for me.
(i) **Don't be** late.

Imperative sentences are used to give commands, make polite requests, and give directions. The difference between a command and a request lies in the speaker's tone of voice and the use of **please**.

Please can come at the beginning or end of a request:

Open the door, please.

Please open the door.

The simple form of a verb is used in imperative sentences. In (d): The understood subject of the sentence is **you** (meaning the person the speaker is talking to): **Close the window** = **You close the window**.

NEGATIVE FORM:

Don't + the simple form of a verb

7-14 Making Suggestions: *Let's* and *Why Don't*

- (a) — It's hot today. *Let's go to the beach.*
— Okay. Good idea.

- (b) — It's hot today. *Why don't we go to the beach?*
— Okay. Good idea.

- (c) — I'm tired.
— *Why don't you take a nap?*
— That's a good idea. I think I will.

Let's* and *Why don't we are used to make suggestions about activities for you and another person to do.

Examples (a) and (b) have the same meaning.

Let's* = *let us

In (c): ***Why don't you*** is used to make a friendly suggestion or to give friendly advice.

7-15 Stating Preferences: *Prefer*, *Like* . . . *Better*, *Would Rather*

(a) I *prefer* apples **to** oranges.

prefer + noun + **to** + noun

(b) I *prefer* watching TV **to** studying.

prefer + -ing verb + **to** + -ing verb

(c) I *like* apples **better than** oranges.

like + noun + **better than** + noun

(d) I *like* watching TV **better than** studying.

like + -ing verb + **better than** + -ing verb

(e) Ann *would rather have* an apple than an orange.

Would rather is followed immediately by the simple form of a verb (e.g., *have*, *visit*, *live*), as in (e).

(f) *INCORRECT:* Ann *would rather has* an apple.

Verbs following **than** are also in the simple form, as

(g) I'd rather visit a big city **than live** there.

in (g).

(h) *INCORRECT:* I'd rather visit a big city **than to live** there.

INCORRECT: I'd rather visit a big city **than living** there.

(i) *I'd / You'd / She'd / He'd / We'd / They'd* rather have an apple.

Contraction of **would** = '**d**'

(j) *Would you rather* have an apple **or** an orange?

In (j): In a polite question, *would rather* can be followed by **or** to offer someone a choice.

7-2 Expressing Ability: *Can* and *Could*

- (a) Bob **can play** the piano.
- (b) You **can buy** a screwdriver at a hardware store.
- (c) I **can meet** you at Ted's tomorrow afternoon.

Can expresses ability in the present or future.

- (d) I $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{can't} \\ \text{cannot} \\ \text{can not} \end{array} \right\}$ understand that sentence.

The negative form of **can** may be written **can't**, **cannot**, or **can not**.

- (e) I **can go**.
- (f) I **can't go**

In spoken English, **can** is usually unstressed and pronounced /kən/ = "kun."

Can't is stressed and pronounced /kæn?/, with the final sound being a glottal stop.* The glottal stop replaces the /t/ in spoken English. Occasionally native speakers have trouble hearing the difference between **can** and **can't** and have to ask for clarification.

- (g) Our son **could walk** when he was one year old.

The past form of **can** is **could**.

- (h) He **couldn't walk** when he was six months old.

The negative of **could** is **couldn't** or **could not**.

- (i) He **can read**
- (j) He **is able to read**
- (k) She **could read**
- (l) She **was able to read**

Ability can also be expressed with a form of **be able to**. Examples (i) and (j) have the same meaning. Examples (k) and (l) have the same meaning.

*A glottal stop is the sound you hear in the negative "uh-uh." The air is stopped by the closing of your glottis in the back of your throat. The phonetic symbol for the glottal stop is /ʔ/.

7-3 Expressing Possibility: *May*, *Might*, and *Maybe*; Expressing Permission: *May* and *Can*

(a) It *may rain* tomorrow.

(b) It *might rain* tomorrow.

(c) — Why isn't John in class?

— I don't know. He { *may* *might* } be sick today.

May and *might* express possibility in the present or future. They have the same meaning. There is no difference in meaning between (a) and (b).

(d) It *may not rain* tomorrow.

(e) It *might not rain* tomorrow.

Negative: *may not* and *might not*
(Do not contract *may* and *might* with *not*.)

(f) *Maybe* it will rain tomorrow.

COMPARE:

(g) *Maybe* John is sick. (adverb)

(h) John *may be* sick. (verb)

In (f) and (g): *maybe* (spelled as one word) is an adverb. It means "possibly." It comes at the beginning of a sentence.

INCORRECT: *It will maybe rain tomorrow.*

In (h): *may be* (two words) is a verb form: the auxiliary *may* + the main verb *be*.

Examples (g) and (h) have the same meaning.

INCORRECT: *John maybe sick.*

(i) Yes, children, you *may have* a cookie after dinner.

(j) Okay, kids, you *can have* a cookie after dinner.

May is also used to give permission, as in (i).

Can is often used to give permission, too, as in (j).

NOTE: Examples (i) and (j) have the same meaning, but *may* is more formal than *can*.

(k) You *may not have* a cookie.

May not and *cannot* (*can't*) are used to deny permission (i.e., to say "no").

You *can't have* a cookie.

7-4 Using **Could** to Express Possibility

- (a) — How was the movie? **Could** you *understand* the English?
— Not very well. I **could** only *understand it* with the help of subtitles.
- (b) — Why isn't Greg in class?
— I don't know. He **could be** sick.
- (c) Look at those dark clouds. It **could start** raining any minute.

One meaning of **could** is *past ability*, as in (a).*

Another meaning of **could** is *possibility*.

In (b): **He could be sick** has the same meaning as **He may/might be sick**, i.e., **It is possible that he is sick**.

In (b): **could** expresses a *present possibility*.

In (c): **could** expresses a *future possibility*.

*See also Chart 7-2.

7-5 Polite Questions: *May I*, *Could I*, *Can I*

Polite Question	Possible Answers	
(a) May I please borrow your pen? (b) Could I please borrow your pen? (c) Can I please borrow your pen?	Yes. Yes. Of course. Yes. Certainly. Of course. Certainly. Sure. (<i>informal</i>) Okay. (<i>informal</i>) Uh-huh (<i>meaning "yes"</i>) I'm sorry, but I need to use it myself.	People use may I , could I ,* and can I to ask polite questions. The questions ask for someone's permission or agreement. Examples (a), (b), and (c) have basically the same meaning. NOTE: can I is less formal than may I and could I .
(d) Can I borrow your pen, please? (e) Can I borrow your pen?		Please can come at the end of the question, as in (d). Please can be omitted from the question, as in (e).

*In a polite question, **could** is NOT the past form of **can**.

7-6 Polite Questions: *Would You, Could You, Will You, Can You*

Polite Question	Possible Answers	
(a) <i>Would you</i> please open the door? (b) <i>Could you</i> please open the door? (c) <i>Will you</i> please open the door? (d) <i>Can you</i> please open the door?	Yes. Yes. Of course. Certainly. I'd be happy to. Of course. I'd be glad to. Sure. (informal) Okay. (informal) Uh-huh. (meaning "yes") I'm sorry. I'd like to help, but my hands are full.	People use <i>would you, could you, will you</i> , and <i>can you</i> to ask polite questions. The questions ask for someone's help or cooperation. Examples (a), (b), (c), and (d) have basically the same meaning. <i>Would</i> and <i>could</i> are generally considered more polite than <i>will</i> and <i>can</i> .
		NOTE: <i>May</i> is NOT used when <i>you</i> is the subject of a polite question. <i>INCORRECT:</i> <i>May you</i> please open the door?

7-7 Expressing Advice: *Should* and *Ought To*

(a) My clothes are dirty. I { **should**
ought to } wash them.

(b) INCORRECT: *I should to wash them.*

(c) INCORRECT: *I ought washing them.*

(d) You need your sleep. You **should not** (**shouldn't**) stay up late.

(e) A: I'm going to be late for the bus. **What should I do?**
B: Run!

(f) A: I'm tired today.
B: You **should/ought to** go home and take a nap.

(g) A: I'm tired today.
B: **Maybe** you **should/ought to** go home and take a nap.

Should and **ought to** have the same meaning:
"This is a good idea. This is good advice."

FORMS:

should + simple form of a verb (no **to**)
ought + **to** + simple form of a verb

NEGATIVE: **should** + **not** = **shouldn't**
(**Ought to** is usually not used in the negative.)

QUESTION: **should** + subject + main verb
(**Ought to** is usually not used in questions.)

The use of **maybe** with **should** and **ought to** "softens" advice.

COMPARE:

In (f): Speaker B is giving definite advice. He is stating clearly that he believes going home for a nap is a good idea and is the solution to Speaker A's problem.

In (g): Speaker B is making a suggestion: going home for a nap is one possible way to solve Speaker A's problem.

7-8 Expressing Advice: *Had Better*

- (a) My clothes are dirty. I **should**
ought to
had better wash them.

- (b) You're driving too fast! You **'d better** slow down.

- (c) You **'d better not** eat that meat. It looks spoiled.

- (d) I **'d better** send my boss an email right away.

Had better has the same basic meaning as **should** and **ought to**: "This is a good idea. This is good advice."

Had better has more of a sense of urgency than **should** or **ought to**. It often implies a warning about possible bad consequences. In (b): If you don't slow down, there could be a bad result. You could get a speeding ticket or have an accident.

NEGATIVE: **had better not**

In conversation, **had** is usually contracted: **'d**.

7-9 Expressing Necessity: *Have to*, *Have Got to*, *Must*

- (a) I have a very important test tomorrow.

I $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{have to} \\ \text{have got to} \\ \text{must} \end{array} \right\}$ study tonight.

Have to, **have got to**, and **must** have basically the same meaning. They express the idea that something is necessary.

- (b) I'd like to go with you to the movie this evening, but I can't. I **have to** go to a meeting.

Have to is used much more frequently in everyday speech and writing than **must**.

- (c) Bye now! I've **got to go**. My wife's waiting for me. I'll call you later.

Have got to is typically used in informal conversation, as in (c).

- (d) All passengers **must present** their passports at customs upon arrival.

Must is typically found in written instructions or rules, as in (d). Adults also use it when talking to younger children, as in (e). It sounds very strong.

- (e) Tommy, you **must hold** onto the railing when you go down the stairs.

- (f) **Do we have to bring** pencils to the test?

QUESTIONS: **Have to** is usually used in questions, not **must** or **have got to**. Forms of **do** are used with **have to** in questions.

- (g) Why **did he have to leave** so early?

- (h) I **had to** study last night.

The PAST form of **have to**, **have got to**, and **must** (meaning necessity) is **had to**.

- (i) I **have to** ("hafta") go downtown today.

Notice that **have to**, **has to**, and **have got to** are commonly reduced, as in (i) through (k).

- (j) Rita **has to** ("hasta") go to the bank.

- (k) I've **got to** ("gotta") study tonight.

8-1 Connecting Ideas with *And*

Connecting Items within a Sentence

(a) NO COMMA: I saw a cat **and** a mouse.

When **and** connects only TWO WORDS (or phrases) within a sentence, NO COMMA is used, as in (a).

(b) COMMAS: I saw a cat, a mouse, **and** a dog.

When **and** connects THREE OR MORE items within a sentence, COMMAS are used, as in (b).*

Connecting Two Sentences

(c) COMMA: I saw a cat, **and** you saw a mouse.

When **and** connects TWO COMPLETE SENTENCES (also called "independent" clauses), a COMMA is usually used, as in (c).

(d) PERIOD: I saw a cat. You saw a mouse.

Without **and**, two complete sentences are separated by a period, as in (d), *not* a comma.**

(e) INCORRECT: I saw a cat, you saw a mouse.

A complete sentence begins with a capital letter; note that **You** is capitalized in (d).

*In a series of three or more items, the comma before **and** is optional.

ALSO CORRECT: I saw a cat, a mouse **and** a dog.

**A "period" (the dot used at the end of a sentence) is called a "full stop" in British English.

8-2 Connecting Ideas with *But* and *Or*

- (a) I went to bed ***but*** couldn't sleep.
- (b) Is a lemon sweet ***or*** sour?
- (c) Did you order coffee, tea, ***or*** milk?

And*, *but*, and *or are called "coordinating conjunctions."

Like ***and***, ***but*** and ***or*** can connect items within a sentence.

Commas are used with a series of three or more items, as in (c).

I dropped the vase. = a sentence

It didn't break. = a sentence

- (d) I dropped the vase, ***but*** it didn't break.

A comma is usually used when ***but*** or ***or*** combines two complete (independent) sentences into one sentence, as in (d) and (e).

- (e) Do we have class on Monday, ***or*** is Monday a holiday?

A conjunction can also come at the beginning of a sentence, except in formal writing.

ALSO CORRECT: I dropped the vase. But it didn't break.
I saw a cat. And you saw a mouse.

8-3 Connecting Ideas with So

- (a) The room was dark, **so** I turned on a light.

So can be used as a conjunction, as in (a). It is preceded by a comma. It connects the ideas in two independent clauses.

So expresses results:

cause: *The room was dark.*

result: *I turned on a light.*

- (b) COMPARE:

The room was dark, **but** I didn't turn on a light.

But often expresses an unexpected result, as in (b).