
ENGLISH NOTES

FROM A1 TO C2

EDITED BY

MAXIMILIANO PONCE

*My notes from
Langpill english grammar course from Udemy, and internet*

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MAXIMILIANO PONCE

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1 Introduction

This document was written for me to understand the English grammar from a beginner to an advanced level. Because I find that I can understand better if I take notes for myself while I'm watching English lessons, and I decided to make my notes with L^AT_EX because it is a useful and cool tool for writing awesome documents.

I know that I need to improve my English writing and as I improve it I will update this document. I hope my notes become useful to other people so this document is divided in the main topics of English grammar, so that you can go directly to the topic that you want to learn.

Remember that is important to practice on your own to master the English language, another advice for you is to speak with a friend of you who wants to learn English or already knows it, or even to your self, about any topic you like and if you are stuck to explain something then you can search on Internet or ask to your friend to get feedback.

2 Nouns

A **noun** is a word that is used to name a person, animal, place, action or thing either generally (**common noun**) or specifically (**proper noun**).

Common noun Proper noun
*You can buy a **pencil** at **Office Depot**.*

2.1 Plural Form

There are rules to form plural forms, but remember that some nouns are irregular so that you can't use those rules to form the plural form.

- Generally we can use \Rightarrow Noun + S, to get the plural form
 e.g. *cat-cats, dog-dogs, pencil-pencils*
- Singular noun ending in s, ss, sh, ch, x, z, o + *es*, \Rightarrow Plural form
 e.g. *tax-taxes, bus-buses, box-boxes*
- In some cases, singular nouns ending in s or z \Rightarrow Double s or z
 e.g. *fez-fezzes, gas-gasses*
- Noun ending in f, fe \Rightarrow Change *f* into *ve* + s
 e.g. *life-lives, wolf-wolves, wife-wives* (Exceptions: *roof-roofs, belief-beliefs, chef-chefs*)
- Noun ending in *y* and the letter before is a consonant \Rightarrow Change the ending to *ies*
 e.g. *city-cities, puppy-puppies*
- Noun ending in *y* and the letter before is a vowel \Rightarrow Add s
 e.g. *ray-rays, boy-boys*
- Noun ending in *o* \Rightarrow Add *es*
 e.g. *potato-potatoes, tomato-tomatoes* (Exceptions: *photo-photos, piano-pianos, halo-halos*)
- Noun ending in *us* \Rightarrow Frequently change *us* to *i*
 e.g. *cactus-cacti, focus-foci*
- Noun ending in *is* \Rightarrow Change *is* to *es*
 e.g. *analysis-analyses, ellipsis-ellipses*
- Noun ending in *on* \Rightarrow Change *on* to *a*
 e.g. *phenomenon-phenomena, criterion-criteria*
- Some nouns don't change
 e.g. *sheep-sheep, series-series, species-species*

Here we have some **irregular nouns**, they don't follow specific rules

Singular	Plural
man	men
woman	women
person	people
child	children
tooth	teeth
foot	feet
mouse	mice

Table 1: Some irregular nouns

2.2 Common Nouns

Common nouns refer to classes or categories of people, animals, places, things, or a concept, as opposed to a particular individual.

*I have a **computer**, a **keyboard**, a **mouse** and many **books**.*

Common nouns are **not capitalized** unless they begin a sentence or are part of a title.

***Apples** are delicious fruits
I don't like **apples***

2.3 Proper Nouns

Proper nouns are used to name to specific items rather than refer to a category or a class, such as names, names of cities, countries, etc.

*I'm from **Mexico***

Note that proper nouns are unique names. **They are capitalized**

*My friend **George** is from **Brazil***

We should also capitalize:

- a) Festivals
e.g. ***Christmas** and **Thanksgiving** are my two favourite holidays!*
- b) People's titles
e.g. *Everything depends on **President** Trump and his decisions.*
- c) The names of books, films, plays, paintings. We use capital letters for the nouns, adjectives, and verbs in the title.
e.g. *I've just finished reading '**The Old Man and the Sea**'*

Sometimes we use a person's name to refer to something they have created.

*We were listening to **Mozart** the other day.
I'm reading **an Iris Murdoch** now.*

When you use a word about a family member (e.g. *mom, dad, uncle*), capitalize it only if the word is being used exactly as you would use a name, i.e. if you were addressing the person directly. If the word is not being used as a name, it is not capitalized.

*Please ask **Dad** if he can buy wine on his way home.
Is your **dad** coming over for dinner?*

Whenever you see a capitalized word, question whether or not it is a proper noun. Make sure that the capitalized word is in fact a noun as there are also proper adjectives.

***Asia** is one of the continents of the world. (proper noun)
I don't like **Asian** food. (proper adjective).*

2.4 Material Nouns

Material nouns denote a material or substance from which things are made of.

*a **plastic** bottle, a **diamond** ring, etc.*

Material nouns are uncountable, thus they do not have a plural form. Generally, articles are not used with material nouns as they are uncountable.

*~~I really want to buy these cottons pants.~~
I really want to buy these **cotton** pants.*

Material nouns fall into several categories:

- a) Related to nature
e.g. air, salt, coal, silver, gold, etc.
- b) Related to animals
e.g. meat, milk, egg, wool, etc.
- c) Related to plants
e.g. cotton, coffee, tea, wood, etc.
- d) Artificial or man-made materials
e.g. alcohol, cheese, brick, steel, etc.

2.5 Compound Nouns

A **compound noun** contains two or more words which are joined together and form a single noun. Compound nouns can be words written together, words that are hyphenated, or separate words. The first word usually describes or modifies the second word, denoting its type or purpose. Consequently, the second word identifies the item itself.

*I need to buy a new **toothbrush**.* (a brush used for cleaning one's teeth)

There is no exact rule as to when we should write compound nouns together, hyphenated, or as separate words. If you are not sure how to write a compound noun, **consult a dictionary**.

*Could you go with me to the **bus stop**?*

*My **in-laws** are incredible people.*

*I love your new **haircut**! You look fantastic!*

Note that the stress usually falls on the first syllable in compound nouns. As a result, the word stress helps to differentiate between a compound noun and an adjective + noun.

*A **greenhouse** is a glass building used for growing plants that need warmth, light, and protection.*
(compound noun)

*A **green house** is a building that someone lives in. This building is painted green.* (adjective + noun)

2.6 Countable vs Uncountable Nouns

Countable Nouns (e.g. apple, song, house, etc.)	Uncountable Nouns (e.g. tea, money, love, etc.)
Things that can be counted , even if the number might be extremely high (<i>e.g. all the people in the world</i>).	Things that we cannot count with numbers. They may be the names for abstract ideas or qualities or for physical objects that are too small to count or shapeless (<i>e.g. liquids, gases, etc.</i>).
Can be singular or plural. <i>I have an apple and you have three apples.</i>	No plural form. <i>We're going to have rice for lunch.</i>
You can use <i>a/an</i> with singular countable nouns. <i>There is a girl outside. She is wearing a beautiful dress.</i>	You can't use <i>a/an</i> with uncountable nouns. But you can often use the phrase <i>a (bag, cup, etc.) of</i> . <i>There is a bowl of rice and a bottle of juice on the table.</i>
If you want to ask about the quantity of a countable noun, you ask 'How many?' combined with the plural countable noun. <i>How many dogs are there? - There are five dogs.</i>	If you want to ask about the quantity of an uncountable noun, you ask 'How much?' combined with the uncountable noun. <i>How much coffee do we have left? - We don't have much coffee left.</i>
You can use <i>many, a few, few</i> with plural countable nouns. <i>Sorry, but I didn't take many pictures. I've got a few relatives leaving here.</i>	You can use <i>much, a little, little</i> with uncountable nouns. <i>We didn't do much shopping there. We have a little sugar left.</i>
You can use <i>some, any, a lot of, both</i> with plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns.	
<i>We like singing some crazy songs at karaoke.</i>	<i>We listened to some music there.</i>
<i>Did you buy any oranges?</i>	<i>I didn't buy any orange juice.</i>
<i>She showed a lot of signs of affection.</i>	<i>There is a lot of love in the air.</i>

Table 2: Countable vs Uncountable Nouns

2.7 Collective Nouns

A collective noun is used to refer to an entire group of people, animals, or things. Therefore it includes more than one member.

*My **family** is very big.*

Collective nouns can refer to:

- a) People
e.g. *family, class, committee, staff, etc.*
- b) Animals
e.g. *a pack of dogs, a swarm of flies, a herd of horses, a litter of puppies, etc.*
- c) Things
e.g. *pack, set, bunch, stack, etc.*

When the members within one group behave in the same manner, they are part of a collective noun, thus this noun becomes singular and requires a singular verb.

*Every day **the football team** follows its coach out to the field for practice.*

When the members are acting as individuals, the collective noun is plural and requires a plural verb. In many cases, it may sound more natural to make the subject plural in form by adding words like *members, mates, etc.*

*After the practice **the team(mates)** shower, change into their casual clothes, and head to their homes.*

2.8 Concrete and Abstract Nouns

Nouns can be concrete or abstract.

Concrete Nouns are tangible and you can experience them with your five senses.

Abstract nouns refer to intangible things, like *actions, feelings, ideals, concepts, and qualities*.

***Food** is great. But **love** is even greater.*

2.8.1 Concrete nouns

A **concrete noun** is a noun that can be identified through one of the five senses: *touch, sight, hearing, smell, or taste*.

*Who turned off the **TV**?* (The noun *TV* is a concrete noun)

*What is that **noise**?* (Even though *nose* can't be touched, you can hear it, so it's a concrete noun)

Concrete nouns fall into several categories:

- a) People
e.g. *mother, friend, teacher, stranger, etc.*
- b) Places
e.g. *school, McDonald's, Las Vegas, India, etc.*
- c) Things you can touch and see
e.g. *plane, cup, lamp, book, etc.*
- d) Things you can hear
e.g. *music, noise, someone's voice, song, etc.*
- e) Things you can smell and taste
e.g. *herbs, cookies, bread, wine, etc.*

2.8.2 Abstract Nouns

Remember that **abstract nouns** refer to a intangible things, like *actions, feelings, ideals, concepts, and qualities*.

Abstract nouns fall into several categories:

- a) Emotions and feelings
e.g. *anger, sadness, love, grief, etc.*
- b) Human qualities and characteristics
e.g. *beauty, maturity, humour, patience, etc.*
- c) Ideas and concepts
e.g. *knowledge, freedom, luxury, comfort, etc.*
- d) Events
e.g. *marriage, birthday, career, adventure, etc.*

Many abstract nouns are formed from adjectives, verbs, or nouns. Sometimes you can add a suffix to the concrete noun or alter the word root to form abstract nouns.

(Concrete noun)	(abstract noun)
<i>child</i>	<i>childhood</i>

Nouns with the following suffixes are often abstract:

-tion e.g. <i>devotion</i>	-ism e.g. <i>pessimism</i>	-ity e.g. <i>hospitality</i>
-ment e.g. <i>movement</i>	-ness e.g. <i>restlessness</i>	-age e.g. <i>marriage</i>
-ance e.g. <i>brilliance</i>	-ence e.g. <i>indifference</i>	-ship e.g. <i>relationship</i>
-ability e.g. <i>availability</i>	-acy e.g. <i>bureaucracy</i>	

Table 3: Common suffixes for abstract nouns

2.9 Possessive Nouns

The **Possessive** form is used with **nouns** referring to people, groups of people, countries, and animals. It shows a relationship of belonging between one thing and another.

Leslie's aunt is a doctor.

To form the possessive, add an **apostrophe + -s** to the noun.

My brother's computer was stolen a week ago.
Children's toys were on the ground.

If the noun already **ends in -s**, just add an **apostrophe**.

Student's homework will be assessed later.

For names **ending in -s**, you can either add an **apostrophe + -s**, or just an **apostrophe**. The first option is more common.

They want to sell Jame's car.

Study some of the fixed expressions where the possessive form is used.

a day's work, a month's pay, in a year's time, for God's sake

Note that the possessive is also used to refer to *shops, restaurants, churches, universities, etc.*, using the name or job title of the owner.

I want to go to Luigi's for dinner.
Peter has an appointment at the dentist's at 10 a.m.

3 Pronouns

A **pronoun** is a word that replaces a noun in a sentence, making the subject a person or a thing

3.1 Subject Pronouns

A **subject** is the person or thing that performs the action in the clause or sentence.

A **subject pronoun** is a pronoun that takes the place of a noun as the subject of a sentence

She told me about her worries.

Subject pronouns replace nouns that are the subject of their clause.

	Singular	Plural
1 st person	I	we
2 nd person	you	you
3 rd person	he/she/it	they

Table 4: Singular and plural forms for subject pronouns

We should replace the subject with a subject pronoun to avoid repetition.

~~Mary is a student and Mary is very hard working.~~
Mary is a student and **she** is very hard working.

We use the subject pronoun *it* when we refer to objects, things, animals, or ideas.

Love is eternal. **It** will last forever.

Sometimes when we don't know the sex of a baby, we can use *it*'.

Their baby is so small. **It** only weights 2 kilos.

We use *it* when we talk about *time, weather, or temperature*.

What time is **it**? - **It**'s 7 o'clock.
It's quite cold today.

3.2 Object Pronouns

An **object** is the person or thing that receives the action in the clause or sentence.

An **object pronoun** is a pronoun that takes the place of a noun as the object of a sentence.

She told **me** about her worries.

Object pronouns are used to replace nouns that are the direct or indirect object of a clause.

Subject	Object
I	me
you	you
he	him
she	her
it	it
we	us
they	them

Table 5: Subject and Object Pronouns

Object pronouns come either after a verb or a preposition.

Ethan asked **me** to talk to **them**.

Note that the subject pronoun *it* and the object pronoun *it* look the same.

Do you know the movie 'Pretty Lady'? *it* is my favourite! (subject pronoun)
I've seen *it* many times. (object pronoun)

Remember that object nouns are always the recipients of the action in sentence.

~~He and me went to the movies.~~ **He and I** went to the movies.
~~Mrs. Keith called her and I.~~ Mrs. Keith called **her and me**.

We should replace the object with an object pronoun to avoid repetition.

I can't stop thinking about Amy. ~~I can't stop imagining my future with Amy.~~ I can't stop imagining my future with **her**.

3.3 Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns are pronouns that demonstrate ownership.

This car is **mine**.

Possessive pronouns are used instead of a possessive adjective and noun. Study the following table:

Subject	Object	Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun
I	me	my	mine
you	you	your	yours
he	him	his	his
she	her	her	hers
it	it	its	its
they	them	their	theirs

Table 6: Possessive Adjectives & Possessive Pronouns

4 Articles

Articles are words that define a noun as specific or unspecific. English has two types of articles:

- Indefinite: *a/an*
- Definite: *the*

*I'm **a** nurse. **The** hospital I'm working in is huge.*

4.1 Indefinite Article

The **indefinite article** takes two forms: **a/an**. Use the indefinite article **a** when it precedes a word that **begin** with a **consonant**. Use the indefinite article **an** when it precedes a word that **begins** with a **vowel**.

***a** table, **an** umbrella, **a** university, **an** honest person.*

The indefinite article **a/an** indicates that a noun refers to a general idea rather than a particular thing.

*What does **a** fox say?*

We use **a/an** when the listener does not know which person or thing we are talking about.

*Helen's brother works in **a** factory. I don't know which factory exactly.*

If we refer to something for the first time, it will be new information for the listener so we use **a/an**. When referencing to the same thing again use **the** because now the listener knows what we are talking about.

*I bought **a** new computer. It's really great! **The** computer is much better than my previous one.*

4.2 Definite Article

The **definite article** is the word **the**. It limits the meaning of a noun to one particular thing. We use **the** when it is clear which thing or person we are talking about.

***The** cake is in the fridge. I know that Kate made it.*

We use the definite article **the** with:

- Nationalities and other groups
e.g. ***the** French, **the** Italians, **the** old, **the** poor.*
- Time
e.g. *in **the** past, in **the** future (but: **at present**.)*
- Superlatives
e.g. *You are **the** first one!*

- d) Musical instruments
e.g. *I played **the** piano as a kid.*
- e) Countries which are a group or plural
e.g. ***the** U.S. , **the** U.K., **the** United Arab Emirates, **the** Netherlands*
- f) Names of ship.
e.g. *We sailed on **the** Claudia*
- g) Oceans
e.g. ***the** Pacific, **the** Atlantic*
- h) Rivers
e.g. ***the** Amazon, **the** Nile*

Note that we use **zero article** with **plurals** and **uncountable nouns** when we are generally talking about something.

***Dogs** are not allowed in that shop.* (We are talking about dogs in general.)
***The dogs** next door were barking at night.* (We are talking about the particular dogs.)

5 Demonstratives

Demonstratives are words that show which person or thing is being referred to. Demonstratives show where an object, event, or person is in relation to the speaker. They can refer to a physical or a psychological closeness or distance.

***This** is Hugh, and **that** is Kevin.*

	Near the speaker	Far from the speaker
Adverbs	here	there
Demonstratives with singular and uncountable nouns	this	that
Demonstratives with plural countable nouns	these	those

Table 7: Demonstratives

Demonstratives can be placed before the noun or the adjective that modifies the noun.

***That old man** stole my purse!*
***These oranges** are delicious!*

Demonstratives can also appear before a number by itself when the noun is understood from the context.

*I'll take **this one**, please. = I'll take this watermelon, please.*

Demonstratives can be used by themselves when the noun they modify is understood from the context.

***Those** aren't yours. Put them back. = Those shoes aren't yours. Put them back.*

When talking about events, the **near demonstratives** are often used to refer to the **present** while the **far demonstratives** often refer to the **past**.

***This situation** is quite unstable.*
***That event** made me realise how important my family is to me.*

6 Distributives

Distributive determiners or simply **distributives** refer to a group of people or things, and to individual members of the group.

They show different ways of looking at the individuals within a group, and they express how something is distributed, shared, or divided.

***All people** want to love and to be loved.*
***Each person** is unique. **Every** person is unique.*
***Both of us** like Mexican food.*

6.1 All

The distributive determiner **all** is used to talk about a whole group, with a special emphasis on the fact that nothing has been left out.

All can be used with uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns by itself. In this usage, it refers to the group as a concept rather than as individuals.

***All parents** want the best for their children.*

All can be used with uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns preceded by **the** or a **possessive adjective**. In these uses, the word **of** can be added just after **all** with no change in meaning.

*Have you eaten **all the cookies** in the jar? = Have you eaten **all of the cookies** in the jar?.*

All can be used with **plural pronouns** preceded by **of**.

***All of us** are going to be there tonight.*

All can be used in questions and exclamations with **uncountable nouns** preceded by **this/that** or with **countable nouns** preceded by **these/those**. In these uses, the word **of** can be added just after **all** with no change in meaning.

*Look at **all this snow** out there!*

*What are **all these people** doing in our house?*

6.2 Half

The distributive determiner **half** is used to talk about a whole group divided in **two**. **Half** can be used as a distributive in several different patterns.

Half can refer to measurements if it is followed by an indefinite article **a/an** and a noun.

*I'll be back in **half an hour**.*

Half can be used with plural pronouns preceded by **of**.

***Only half of us** are going to be there tonight.*

Half can be used with nouns preceded by **the**, **a/b**, **a demonstrative**, or **a possessive adjective**. In this case, the meaning refers to a concrete, physical division. The word **of** can be added just after **half** with no change in meaning.

***Half the people** have already left the party.*

*Putting **half a kilo of sugar** into the topping will ruin the cake.*

*I want **half of that cake**!*

*Sorry, but I used **half of your eggs** making breakfast today.*

6.3 Each and Every

The distributives **each** and **every** are both related to describing the members of a group. These distributives can only be used with **countable nouns** by being placed before the nouns.

In many cases, they are interchangeable but there is a **subtle difference** between them.

6.3.1 Each

Each is used to describe and highlight an individual member of a group, or multiple individuals. By using **each** you recognise the item is a part of a group, but that it also needs to be pointed out as a singular item too.

***Each book** on the shelf had a unique cover.*

Each can be used with plural nouns and pronouns but **must** be followed by **of**.

***Each of the pupils** received a Christmas card.*

Each can be used after the subject or at the end of a sentence.

***My siblings each** have their own room.*

*My mother gave my sister and I \$20 **each**. = (gave \$20 to each of us.)*

6.3.2 Every

Every by contrast is a way of referring to the group as a collection of individual members. **Every** cannot be used with plural nouns.

~~*Every boys in my class wanted that computer game.*~~ *Every boy in my class wanted that computer game.*

Every can express different points in a series, especially with time expressions.

Every morning Phillip goes for a run.
And *every time* Ann would forgive him.

6.4 Both

Both refers to the whole pair and is equivalent to 'one and the other'. **Both** can be used with plural nouns on its own, or it can be followed by **of**, with **of** without an article. When followed by a plural pronoun, **both** must be separated from the pronoun by **of**.

Both (of) my parents approve of me going to college.
I told *both of them* to give me a call.

Both cannot be used with singular nouns, because it refers to two things.

~~*Both my sister likes traveling.*~~ *Both my sisters like traveling.*

6.5 Either

Either is positive and when used alone refers to one of the two members of the pair. It is equivalent to 'one or the other'. Because it refers to just one member of a pair, **either** must be used before a singular noun. It can also be used with a plural noun or pronoun if followed by **of**.

Either day is fine.
We could stay at *either of the hotels*.

Either can also be used with **or** in a construction that talks about each member of the pair in turn. The meaning remains the same, but in this case **either** is not functioning as a distributive. It is functioning as a **conjunction**.

You can have either ice cream or cake.

6.6 Neither

Neither is negative and when used alone refer to the whole pair. It is equivalent to 'not one or the other'. Because it refers to just one member of a pair, **neither** must be used before a singular noun. It can also be used with a plural noun or pronoun if followed by **of**.

Neither date is convenient for me.
Neither of these dresses suits her.

Neither can also be used with **nor** in a construction that talks about each member of the pair in turn. The meaning remains the same, but in this case **neither** is not functioning as a distributive. It is functioning as a **conjunction**.

It is neither snowing nor raining.

7 Quantifiers

We use **quantifiers** when we want to give someone information about the number of something, they are adjectives and adjectival phrases that give approximate or specific answers to the questions 'How much?' and 'How many?'

***Most** children start school at the age of five.*

*I ate some **rice**.*

*There are **a lot of** dogs.*

We can use **quantifiers** with both **count** and **uncountable** nouns:

*How **much** coffee do we have left.*

*How many **cookies** do you have?*

How much is used to ask about uncountable nouns and when we want to know the price of something.

***How much** this computer cost?*

7.1 A Few, Little

A (very) few, (very) little are generally used in affirmative statements, not negatives or questions.

With countable nouns	With uncountable nouns
(very) few = hardly any or not enough	(very) little = hardly any or not enough
<i>I have (very) few toys.</i>	<i>We have (very) little coffee left.</i>
a few = some or enough	a little = some or enough
<i>I have a few examples to show</i>	<i>I have a little coffee left but I can make me a cup of coffee</i>

Table 8: A few vs A little

7.2 Much and Many

Normally, we use **much** and **many** only in questions and negative clauses. But can be used in affirmative sentences in combination with *too* and *so*. In this case, they denote the excessive amount of something.

*How **much** money do you have left?*

*There are **too many** people.*

*You put **a lot of sugar** on my coffee!*

We use **much** to talk about the quantity of uncountable nouns or the price of something, while we use **many** when we talk about the quantity of countable nouns.

*I have **many** friends.*

*She has **too much** money*

7.3 A Lot, Most

Note that in spoken English and informal writing when we want to indicate a large quantity of something we tend to use **a lot**, **a lot of**, **lots of**.

A lot means very often or very much. It is used as an adverb. It often comes at the end of a sentence and **never** before a noun.

*My brother plays video games **a lot**.*

*She's **a lot** happier after quitting her job.*

We use the quantifier **most** to talk about quantities, amounts and degree. We can use it with a noun (as a determiner) or without a noun (as a pronoun).

We use **most** with nouns in the meaning **the majority of**. If there is no article, demonstrative or possessive pronoun, we use **most** right before the noun.

***Most tap water** is drinkable.*

When we are talking about the majority of a specific set of something, we use **most of the + noun**.

***Most cakes** are sweet.* (cakes in general)

*The party was amazing. Kate made **most of the cakes** herself.* (a specific set of cakes at the party)

We can leave out the noun with **most** when the noun is obvious from the context.

*Students can eat in the cafeteria but **most** bring food from home.* (=most students)

7.4 Some, Any and Enough

We use **some**, **any** when we are talking about limited but rather indefinite number of quantities.

In general, we use **some** for affirmative sentences, and **any** for negatives and questions. Both can be used with countable and uncountable nouns.

*Jane bought **some** flowers.*

*Did Jane buy **any** flowers? - No, she didn't buy **any**.*

Some can be used for questions, typically offers and requests, if we think the answer will be positive.

*Would you like **some** tea.*

Any can be used in the meaning 'it doesn't matter which'.

*You can't take **any** bus. They all go to the centre.* (=it doesn't matter which bus you take=)

We use **enough** to indicate sufficiency, while in negative sentences it means less than sufficient or less than necessary.

*I'll take your t-shirt. It's **big enough** to fit me.*

*Sorry, but I can't go with you. I don't have **enough money** for that.*

8 Verb Conjugation

Verb conjugation refer to how a verb changes to indicate a different person, number, tense, or mood. In other words, **conjugation** is the changing of a verb's form to express a different person, number, tense, aspect, or gender. In order to communicate in more than one tone, verbs must be conjugated. To conjugate something is to change a verb's form to express a different meaning.

I'm a student. (1st person, singular, present simple, indicative mood)

8.1 First, Second and Third Person

Verbs should be conjugated with regard to person. Depending on the subject, a verb can stand in the first, second, or third person.

	Singular	Plural
1 st person	I	we
2 nd person	you	you
3 rd person	he, she, it	they

Table 9: First, Second and Third Person (Singular and Plural).

As you can see, the pronouns **I**, **were** refer to the first person; **you**, to the second person; **he**, **she**, **it**, **they**, to the third person.

We work on Saturdays. (first person)
You need to take a break. (second person)
It is snowing outside. (third person)

Usually we assume the person of the verb in the sentence automatically as we almost always state a subject explicitly.

Sarah has signed up for a yoga class. (**Sarah** can be substituted with the pronoun **she**; the verb is in the third person)

Note that the verb **to be** is irregular and has three forms in present tenses and two forms in past tenses. These forms depend on the person expressed by the subject.

	Present		Past	
1 st person	I am	we are	I was	we were
2 nd person	you are	you are	you were	you were
3 rd person	he/she/it is	they are	he/she/it was	they were

Table 10: Verb To Be forms.

9 Simple Tense

9.1 Past Simple

The **past simple** is used to write and talk about completed actions that happened in a time before the present. It is the basic form of the past tense in English. We use the **past simple** when we talk about an action which happened at a definite time in the past.

This tense emphasizes that the action is finished.

We can also use this tense to talk about how someone felt about something.

*I **solved** the puzzle.*
*I **was** happy for your success.*

9.1.1 How to form the past simple tense

- infinitive + (e)d
e.g. *He **worked** part-time as a waiter.*
*We **liked** our stay at the hotel.*
Note that all persons have the same form.
- cons + -y \Rightarrow cons + -ied
e.g. *cry-**cried**, try-**tried***
- vowel + const \Rightarrow vowel + double const + ed
e.g. *stop-**stopped**, regret-**regretted***

Remember that irregular verbs don't follow the rules above, use the past tense form of the irregular verbs to make sentences in the past simple.

*be-**was/were**, eat-**ate**, drink-**drank***

The **past tense** of the verb **to be** depends on the person of the subject. (Table - 10)

I was	We were
You were	You were
he/she/it was	They were

Table 11: Past forms of verb To Be

9.1.2 Positive, negative, and questions forms

Positive Negative
did / **did not** + Verb

- (+) *His sister **lived** in Sutton, London.*
- (-) *His sister **did not live** in Sutton. She **lived** in Harrow.*
- (?) ***Did** his sister **live** in Sutton?*
- (?) *Where **did** his sister **live** in London?*

9.1.3 Using time markers

Yesterday, last night, (not) a long time ago, two years ago, etc.

*Shakespeare died **in 1616**.*

*Ryan did not go to work **yesterday**. He got sick.*

***When** did you move to Spain? - I moved there **not a long time ago**.*

Note that we use **did/did not** with the verb **to have**.

*I **didn't** have enough money to buy a new computer.*

But we do **not use did** with the verb **to be** (was/were).

*- Why **were you** so angry?*

*- I **wasn't** angry. **This was** my usual self.*

9.2 Present Simple

The **present simple** also called *present indefinite* is a verb tense which is used to show repetition, habit or generalization. We use the **present simple** when we talk about things in general.

We use this tense to say that something:

- Happens all the time.
- Happens repeatedly.
- Is true in general.

*Jane **works** as a barista. Her shift **begins** at 7 a.m.*

9.2.1 How to form the present simple tense

The present tense is the **base form** of the verb

*I **work** in London.*

But with the third person singular (she/he/it), we add an -s

*She **works** in London*

and when the verb ends in -o, -s, -ch, -sh, -x, we add -es instead

*My sister **watches** TV in the evening and my brother **does** his homework.*

Remember that such verbs as **to be** and **to have** are irregular.

Note the difference between BrE and AmE:

(BrE) - *I have got a car.* (AmE) - *I have a car.*

To Be		To Have	
I am	we are	I have	we have
you are	you are	you have	you have
he/she/it is	they are	he/she/it has	they have

Table 12: Present simple: to be - to have

9.2.2 Positive, negative, and questions forms

Negative

do not/does not + verb

- (+) *He **gets up** at 6 o'clock every morning.*
- (-) *He **does not get up** at 6 o'clock every morning.*
*He **gets up** at 7.*
- (?) ***Does he get up** at 6 o'clock every morning?*
- (?) ***When does he get up?***

9.2.3 Using time markers

You can add time markers such as always, often, usually, sometimes, rarely, never, every day, etc.

*I **usually** cook at home but my friends **always** eat at the local cafe.*
*Kim is **always** late for classes.*

Notice where they are places in the sentences.

9.3 Subject-Verb Agreement

The **subject-verb agreement** is the correspondence of a verb with its subject in person (first, second, or third) and number (singular or plural).

***Liz is** an accountant and **she has** a typical 8-5 job.*

Subjects and verbs must agree with one another in person (first, second, or third).

Note that **subject-verb agreement** rules of the verb **to be** in present tenses.

	Singular	Plural
1 st person	I am	we are
2 nd person	you are	you are
3 rd person	he/she/it is	they are

Table 13: Subject-Verb Agreement: To Be

I am a student (1st person), my brother is a pupil (3rd person), and you are a teacher (2nd person).

Subjects and verbs must agree with one another in number (singular or plural). Thus, if a subject is singular, its verbs must also be singular; if a subject is plural, its verb must also be plural.

***She cooks** dinner, and **her brothers make** breakfast.*

When the subject of the sentence is composed of two or more nouns or pronouns connected by the conjunction **and**, use a plural verb.

Brothers and sisters don't often get along.

The words **each**, **each one**, **either**, **neither**, **everyone**, **everybody**, **anyone**, **anybody**, **nobody**, **somebody**, **someone**, and **no one** are singular and require a singular verb.

*Each of these suggestions is interesting.
Someone was standing at the door.*

When two or more singular nouns or pronouns are connected by **or** or **nor**, use a singular verb.

Either your mother or dad needs to contact me.

9.3.1 The Rule of Proximity

When a compound subject contains both a singular and a plural noun or pronouns joined by **or** or **nor**, the verb should agree with the part of the subject that is closer. (also called **the rule of proximity**).

The teacher or the students write homework on the board. The students or the teacher writes homework on the board.

9.3.2 The Inverted Subject

In sentences beginning with **there is** or **there are**, the subject follows the verb (also called **the inverted subject**). As **there** is not the subject, the verbs agrees with what follows.

There is a book on the table. There are books on the table.

9.3.3 More about subject-verb agreement

Note the **subject-verb agreement** with words that indicate portions (e.g. *a lot*, *a majority*, *some*, *all*): If the noun after **of** is singular, use a singular verb; if it is plural, use a plural verb.

There is a lot of fuss around his arrival. There are a lot of people in the room.

Use a singular verb with distances, periods of time, sums of money, etc. when considered as a unit.

*Ten dollars is a high price to pay for socks.
But: Ten dollars (i.e. dollar bills) were scattered on the floor.*

Collective nouns are words that imply more than one person but are considered singular and take a singular verb (e.g. *family*, *group*, *team*, *committee*, *class*, etc.).

My family is very big.

9.4 Future Simple

The **future simple tenses** is often called the "**will tense**" because we make the **future simple** with the modal auxiliary **will**.

We can refer to the future by using **will**, **be going to** or by using **present tenses**.

We use the **will** future when we want to talk generally about future beliefs, opinions, hopes and predictions.

I promised myself that once I start college I will do all my assignments on time.

9.4.1 Positive, negative, and questions forms

Positive Negative
will ('ll)/ will not (won't) + verb

- (+) *Sam will probably move to Canada next year.*
- (-) *Sam won't move to Canada next year. He'll move to the US.*
- (?) *Will Sam move to Canada next year?*
- (?) *Where will Sam move to?*

9.4.2 Using time and probability markers

Time markers - **tomorrow, next month, in a day, etc.**

Probability markers - **perhaps, probably, definitely, etc.**

***Perhaps** it'll snow **tomorrow**.
I'll **definitely** finish my essay **next month**.*

Pay attention to the word order.

(+)
(-)

*We'll **probably** do it tomorrow.
We **probably** won't do it tomorrow.*

Some speakers use **shall** to refer to the future in formal situations (with / and we).

Nowadays **shall** is used for suggestions only.

***Shall I** go or **shall we** leave together?*

10 The Gerund

The gerund looks exactly the same as a **present participle**, but it is useful to understand the difference between the two. **The gerund** always has the same **function as a noun** (although it looks like a verb).

***Hunting** tigers is dangerous.*

Some rule to form the gerund

- -e + ing
e.g. *make-making, write-writing*
- vowel + cons \Rightarrow double cons + -ing
e.g. *knit-knitting, swim-swimming*
- -ie \Rightarrow -y + -ing
e.g. *lie-lying, die-dying*

The gerund can be made negative by adding not.

*The best thing for your health is **not smoking**.*

The **gerund** can function as:

- (a) The subject of the sentence.
e.g. ***Smoking** causes lung cancer.*
- (b) The complement of the verb to be.
e.g. *The hardest thing about learning Russian is **memorizing** the verbs of movement.*

The **gerund** can be used:

- (a) After prepositions or as part of certain expressions. (there's no point in, in spite of, etc.)
e.g. *Can your brother count to ten **without looking** at his fingers?
There's no point in going back to his place now.*
- (b) After phrasal verbs. They are composed of a verb + preposition/adverb.
e.g. *I **ended up buying** a new computer. Rachel **gave up drinking** sugar drinks.*

11 Present Participle

Most commonly we use the **present participle -ing** as an element in all continuous verb forms (the present continuous, the past continuous, etc.).

The auxiliary verb indicates the tense, while the present participle remains unchanging.

*I **was playing** computer games **all night** (past continuous)*

11.1 How to form the present participle

- Verb ending in -e + -ing
e.g. *like-liking, write-writing*
- Verb ending with vowel + cons \Rightarrow double cons + -ing
e.g. *sit-sitting, swim, swimming*
- Verb ending in -ie \Rightarrow -y + -ing
e.g. *lie-lying, die-dying*

11.2 Uses

The present participle is used not only form verb tenses. It can be used:

- (a) After verbs of movement and position.
e.g. *She went **shopping**.*
*They came **running** towards me.*
- (b) After verbs of perception in the pattern verb + object + present participle to indicate the action being perceived.
e.g. *We saw him **mowing** the lawn. Liz heard someone **singing**.*
- (c) After verbs of movement, action, or position to indicate parallel activity.
e.g. *He sat **looking at** the pedestrians.*
*July walks **reading her newspaper**.*
- (d) As an adjective.
e.g. *Have you heard of that **amazing** movie? The family was trapped inside the **burning** barn.*
- (e) To explain the cause or reason. The present participle is used instead of a phrase starting with **as, since, because**.
e.g. ***Feeling** hungry, I made myself a sandwich. (= I made myself a sandwich **because** I was hungry).*
***Knowing** that his roommate was coming, James cleaned the living room. (= James cleaned the living room **as** he knew that his roommate was coming.)*

12 Continuous Tense

The **continuous tense** shows an action that is, was, or will be in progress at a certain time. The **continuous tense** is formed with the verb **to be** + -ing form of the verb (present participle).

12.1 Past Continuous

We use the **past continuous** when we describe a situation, or several situations in progress, happening at the same time in the past.

This is often contrasted with a sudden event in the past simple.

***I was working** on my computer and my brother **was reading** a book when we heard a loud bang on the door.*

12.1.1 How to form the past continuous

Positive	Negative
Was/were + Verb -ing	wasn't/weren't + Verb - ing

12.1.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) *Jim **was playing** video games all night.*
- (-) *Jim **was not playing** video games all night. / He **wasn't playing** video games all night.*
- (?) ***Was** Jim **playing** video games all night?*
- (?) ***Why was** he **playing** video games all night?*

12.1.3 Using time markers

at 7 o'clock, for two hours, in January, last week, all night, etc.

*Kate was trying to find a nice apartment in her area **for 5 months**.*

when, while = during the time that

***While** they were waiting for the train, it started to rain.
James broke his finger **when** he was playing basketball.*

12.1.4 Exceptions

Non-continuous verbs (e.g. *to love, hate, know, want, etc.* are **no used** in any continuous tenses! Use the past simple instead.

*~~I was having fun at the party, but Kim was wanting to go home.~~
I was having fun at the party, but **Kim wanted to go home**.*

12.2 Present Continuous

We use the **present continuous** when we talk about something happening at the time of speaking, or actions happening 'around now', even though not at the moment of speaking.

This tense also has some future meanings.

*Hey, **what are you doing?** - **I am working on my thesis. I am graduating this semester.***

12.2.1 How to form the present continuous

Positive	Negative
to be + Verb -ing	to be + not + Verb -ing

12.2.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) He **is sleeping** on the couch in the living room.
- (-) He **is not sleeping** on the couch in the living room.
- (-) He **isn't sleeping** there.
- (?) Where is he? **Is he sleeping?**

12.2.3 Using time markers

Now, right now, at the moment, today, this week, etc.

*I'm quite busy **this year** as I'm trying to start my small business.*

12.2.4 Other uses

Use the present continuous to talk about changing situations

*~~The population of the world increases very fast.~~
The population of the world **is increasing** very fast.*

12.3 Future Continuous

We use the future continuous to say that we will be in the middle of doing something at a certain time in the future.

We often use this tense when we compare what we are doing now with what we will be doing in the future.

*The movie starts at 8 and ends at 10. At 9 **I will be watching** the movie*

12.3.1 How to form the future continuous

Positive	Negative
will + be + Verb -ing	won't + be + Verb -ing

12.3.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) Sarah **will be flying** home at 5 o'clock tomorrow.
- (-) Sarah **will not be flying** home at 5 o'clock tomorrow. / She **won't be flying** home at 5 o'clock tomorrow.
- (?) **Will Sarah be flying** home at 5 o'clock tomorrow?
- (?) **Where will she be flying** at 5 o'clock tomorrow?

12.3.3 Using time markers

at 5 o'clock, at that time tomorrow, this evening, in 5 years' time, etc.

*Where will you be living **in 3 years' time**?*

12.3.4 Other uses

Use the future continuous to say that something will definitely happen in the future.

*I**'be going** to the shop later. Can I get you anything?*

12.4 Comparing continuous tenses

Compare **will be doing** with other continuous forms.

Jane has an ordinary 9/8 job.
At 11 o'clock yesterday she was working. (past continuous)
At 11 o'clock today she is working. (present continuous)
At 11 o'clock tomorrow she will be working. (future continuous)

13 Past Participle

A **past participle** refers to the form of a verb which is used in forming perfect and passive tenses (and sometimes used as an adjective).

*Olivia has **lived** in Greece for 4 years.*

13.1 How to form the past participle

We usually add -(e)d to the base form of the regular verb to form the past participle

*Jun has just **painted** this picture.* (present perfect, active voice)
*This picture was **painted** by Jun a month ago.* (past simple, passive voice)

There is no pattern as to forming the past participle of the irregular verbs. You should always consult a dictionary.

13.2 Uses

- (a) In the perfect tenses (Present Perfect, Past Perfect, Future Perfect).
e.g. *I've **eaten** to much! I can't move.* (present perfect)
*James had already **left** when Pam arrived.* (past perfect)
*We will have **landed** by that hour.* (future perfect)
- (b) In the passive voice.
e.g. *He was **driven** by genuine interest and curiosity.*
*This dress was **made** by a famous Italian designer.*
- (c) As an adjective. In this case, place it before a noun.
e.g. *Mike has **broken** his arm. ⇒ He has a **broken** arm now.*
*Someone has stolen Ann's purse. ⇒ Her purse was **stolen**.*

14 Perfect Tense

The **perfect tense** or aspect is a verb form that indicates that an action or circumstance occurred earlier than the time under consideration, often focusing attention on the resulting state rather than on the occurrence itself.

I have made dinner

Although this gives information about a prior action (my making of the dinner), the focus is likely to be on the present consequences of that action (the fact that the dinner is now ready).

14.1 Present Perfect

We use the present perfect to describe past events which are connected to the present.

Although this tense can be used to describe different situations.

*Sam **has lost** his keys.* (= He is looking for his keys and he still hasn't found them.)

14.1.1 How to form the present participle

Positive
have/has + Verb ending in -ed (**past participle**) or Simple Verb
Negative
haven't/hasn't + Verb ending -ed (**past participle**) or Simple Verb

14.1.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) I **have** already **seen** that movie. / I've already **seen** that movie.
- (-) I **have not seen** that movie yet. / I **haven't seen** it yet.
- (?) **Have** I **seen** that movie?

14.1.3 Uses

- (a) Experiences in our life up to now.
e.g. *I've **been** to Spain and Portugal. I really want to go to the UK. I **haven't been** there yet.*
- (b) An event in the past that has a result in the present.
e.g. *Lilly **has broken** her foot. Her foot is still in a cast.*
- (c) A situation that started in the past and continues until the present.
I've **lived** here **for twenty years**. And I am still living here now.
- (d) An event in the past that has a result in the present.
e.g. *Peter **has read** 50 pages of his book so far. There are 150 pages left.*

14.1.4 Using time markers

Pay attention to the time markers:

- (a) We use **every** and **never** to ask or talk about our experiences in life.
e.g. *Have you **ever** eaten Chinese food? - I've **never** eaten it.*
- (b) We use **already** to describe an action which has happened before; **yet** - an action which hasn't happened before. e.g. *I haven't finished this book **yet**, and my sister has **already** begun reading another one.*
- (c) We use **just** when we describe a very recent event.
e.g. *My mom has **just** come home from work.*
- (d) **Always, often, etc.** can also be used in the present perfect.
e.g. *He has **always** loved Ann.*
- (e) We use **for** to describe the length of a time period. We use **since** to describe the point when the time period started.
e.g. *Chris has worked here **for 5 months**. He has worked here **since May 5th**.*

14.2 Past Perfect

We use the **past perfect** to show clearly that one past event happened before another past event.

We use the past perfect in the earlier event.

*When I arrived at the party, Tom wasn't there. **He had gone home***

14.2.1 How to form the past perfect

Positive

had + Verb ending in -ed (past participle) or Simple verb.

Negative

hadn't + Verb ending in -ed (past participle) or Simple verb.

14.2.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (?) **Had** Kate **gone** to bed when you arrived home?
- (+) **Yes, she had.** She **had gone** to bed when I arrived home. She'd **gone** to bed.
- (-) **No, she hadn't.** She **hadn't gone** to bed when I arrived home.

14.2.3 Past perfect vs Present perfect

The **past perfect** (*I had done*) is the past of the **present perfect** (*I have done*)

- **Present**

I'm not hungry. I've just had breakfast.

Your room is dirty. You haven't cleaned it for months.

- **Past**

I wasn't hungry. I'd just had breakfast.

Your room was dirty. You hadn't cleaned it for months.

to think, know, be sure, realize, remember, suspect, understand, etc.

*She **was sure** she hadn't locked the door.*

*When I got home I **realized** I'd left my computer at Starbucks.*

14.2.4 Other Uses

Many speakers use the **past perfect** (in case of **before** or **after**) to show a strong connection between the two events.

Pam left her house before her parents arrived. (past simple)

*Pam **had left** her house before her parents arrived. (past simple + past perfect)*

14.3 Future Perfect

We use the **future perfect** to look back from one point in the future to an earlier event.

The situations has not happened yet, but at a certain time in the future it will happen.

*By next week **I'll have written** 20 pages for my new book.*

14.3.1 How to form the future perfect

will + have + Verb ending in -ed (past participle) or simple verb.

14.3.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) John **will have arrived** here by 5 p.m. tomorrow.
- (-) He **won't have arrived** here by 5 p.m. tomorrow.
- (?) **Will** he **have arrived** here by 5 p.m. tomorrow?

14.3.3 Time expressions

by + time expression

*Won't they have invited us **by Friday**?*

*James will have finished his thesis **by this time next week**.*

when, as soon as, before, by the time, etc.

*Will you have dressed up **when I pick you up**?*

***By the time you read this** I will have left the city.*

14.3.4 Other uses

The **future perfect** is used only for actions that will be completed by a particular time in the future.

If the deadline is not mentioned, use the future simple instead.

She will leave her hometown.

*~~She will have left her hometown.~~ **She will have left her hometown by this time next year.***

15 Prefect Continuous Tense

15.1 Present Perfect Continuous

We use the **present perfect continuous** to talk about an action (quite a long one) which began in the past and has recently or just stopped.

This tense usually emphasizes:

- Duration of the action
- That the action is temporary
- That the action is repeated

- Is it snowing now?

*- No, it isn't but there is 5 cm of snow outside. **It has been snowing all night.***

15.1.1 How to form the present perfect continuous

Positive

Have + been + V -ing

15.1.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) Ann **has been waiting** for Sam for over an hour
- (-) Ann **hasn't been waiting** for Sam for over an hour. She **has been waiting** for only 10 minutes.
- (?) **Has Ann been waiting** for Sam for over an hour?
- (?) **How long has Ann been waiting** for Sam?

15.1.3 Time markers

All day, all morning, for day, for ages, lately, recently, since, for, etc.

*My brother has been playing tennis **since** he was seven.*

*I haven't been feeling well **recently**. **How long** have you been learning English? - I've been learning it **for years**.*

Non-continuous verbs (e.g. *to love, hate, know, want, etc.*) are not used in any continuous tenses!
Use the present perfect instead.

~~I've been wanting to visit Paris for years.~~

***I've wanted** to visit Paris for years.*

15.2 Past Perfect Continuous

We use the **past perfect continuous** when we talk about an action (quite a long one) which began in the past and continued up until another time in the past.

*Sammy **had been playing** with his food when his mom walked into the kitchen.*

15.2.1 How to form the past perfect continuous

had + been + V -ing

15.2.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) Tom was very tired when he got home. He **had been working** all day. / He'd **been working** all day.
- (-) Tom wasn't very tired when he got home. He **hadn't been working** all day.
- (?) Why was Tom tired when he got home? **Had he been working** all day?

Present	Past
I hope the buss comes soon. We've been waiting for 30 minutes.	At last the bus came . We'd been waiting for 30 minutes.
Lilly is out of breath. She has been running .	Lilly was out of breath. She had been running .

Table 14: Present perfect continuous VS Past perfect continuous

15.2.3 Time markers

all day, all morning, for days, for ages, when etc.

*Samantha went to the doctor last Monday. She hadn't been feeling well **for some time**.
My sister had been playing with her friends outside **for an hour when** it started to rain heavily.*

Non-continuous verbs (e.g. *to love, hate, know, want, etc.*) are not used in any continuous tenses!
Use the past perfect instead.

*We were good friends. ~~We had been knowing each other for years.~~
We were good friends. We had known each other for years.*

15.3 Future Perfect Continuous

We use the **future perfect continuous** when we describe an action (quite a long one) that has begun sometime in the past, present or future, and is expected to continue in the future.

*When Petter turns 40, he **will have been painting** for 35 years.*

15.3.1 How to form the future perfect continuous

Will + have + been + V -ing

15.3.2 Positive, negative and question forms

- (+) At 6 o'clock I **will have been waiting** here for an hour. / At that time I'll **have been waiting** here for an hour.
- (-) I **won't have been waiting** here for an hour at 6 o'clock.
- (?) **Will I have been waiting** here for an hour at 6 o'clock?

15.3.3 by + time expression

***By 2025** he'll have been living in London for 10 years.*

When, as soon as, before, by the time, etc.

***When** I complete my studies, I'll have been learning English for 17 years.*

Non-continuous verbs (e.g. *to love, hate, know, want, etc.*) are not used in any continuous tenses!
Use the future perfect instead.

*~~In March I'll have been knowing you for a year.~~
In March I'll have known you for a year.*

16 Helping Verbs (Auxiliary Verbs)

We use **auxiliary verbs** (also known as **helping verbs**) to form:

- Questions
- Negative sentences
- Compound tenses (the perfect tense or the continuous tense)
- The passive voice

The basic auxiliary verbs are **to be, to do, to have**.

16.1 To Be

To be can be used as an auxiliary and a main verb.

*My sister **is** kind.* (Main verb)
*My sister **is cooking** dinner* (Auxiliary verb; helps to build the present continuous tense)

Base form	be
Present form	am/is/are
Past form	was/were
Present Participle/Gerund	being
Past Participle	been

Table 15: The verb **to be** is irregular

16.1.1 Uses

- (a) When you don't want to repeat something.
e.g. *Everyone was working that day, but I **wasn't**.* (=I wasn't working.)
- (b) To deny something or to say that is not true
e.g. *You're being unreasonable. - No, **I'm not**.* (=I'm not being unreasonable.)
- (c) To show interest in what somebody has said, or to show surprise.
e.g. *Kelly and Peter are dating. - **Are they?** Really?*
- (d) With so (when you agree) and neither/nor (when you disagree).
e.g. *I'm sleepy. - **So am I**.* (=I'm sleepy too.)
*My parents are never late. - **Neither are mine**.* (=My parents are never late either.)

16.2 To Do and To Have

The verbs **to do** and **to have** can be used as auxiliary and main verbs.

*My sister **does** her own taxes.* (Main verb)
***Do** you believe in ghosts?* (Auxiliary verb)
*Ann **has** a well-paying job.* (Main verb ; AmE)
*Ann **has got** a well-paying job.* (Auxiliary verb; BrE)

Base form	do	have
Present form	do/does	have/has
Past form	did	had
Present Participle/Gerund	doing	having
Past Participle	done	had

Table 16: The verbs **to do** and **to have** are irregular

16.2.1 Uses

You can use the auxiliary verbs **to do** and **to have**:

- (a) When you don't want to repeat something.
e.g. *Everyone likes going to the movies but I **don't**.* (=I don't like going to the movies.)
- (b) To deny something or say that it is not true.
e.g. *Have you ever been abroad? - No, I **haven't**.* (=I haven't been abroad.)

- (c) To show interest in what somebody has said, or to show surprise.
e.g. *They have been married for 50 years. - **Have they?** That's unbelievable!*
- (d) With so (when you agree) and neither/nor (when you disagree). In this case, an auxiliary verb goes before the subject.
e.g. *She has helped me a lot. - **So have I!** (=I have helped you too.)*
*I don't want to go to work. - **Neither do I.** (=I don't want to go to work either.)*

16.3 Modal Verbs

We use **modal verbs** to show if we believe something is certain, probable or possible (or not).

We also use modal verbs to ask permission, make requests and offers etc.

Modal verbs fall into the category of auxiliary verbs (also known as helping verbs). It means that they are used together with a main verb to give grammatical information and additional meaning to a sentence.

16.3.1 Can and Could

The modal verb **can** has only two forms: *can*(present) and *could*(past).

We use:

Can	Could
To talk about general abilities or skills int the present . <i>I can cook and bake.</i>	To talk about general abilities or skills int the past <i>I could paint beautifully as a kid.</i>
To make general statements about what is possible/impossible (not allowed). <i>It can be very hot in summer.</i> <i>You can't smoke here.</i>	To make general statements about what was possible/impossible (not allowed) <i>It could be very hot in summer.</i> <i>He couldn't do it! He is such a sweet guy.</i>
To ask for permission (informal). <i>Can I borrow your pencil, please?</i>	To ask for permission (formal) <i>Could I use your phone, please?</i>
To request something (informal). <i>Can you help me, please?</i>	To request something (formal). <i>Could you show me the way, please?</i>
To make offers <i>Can I carry these bags for you?</i>	To make suggestions <i>We could go to the bar if you want.</i>

Table 17: Can and Could uses

16.3.2 Must

You can use the modal verb **must**:

- (a) To express obligation, duty, or prohibition (this also refers to laws and regulations).
e.g. *You **must** wear a seatbelt at all times.*
*You **mustn't** use your smartphone while driving.*
- (b) To emphasize the necessity of something.
e.g. *People **must** drink a lot of water during the day.*
- (c) To express our certainty in something being true.
e.g. *Look! There are puddles everywhere. **It must have rained.***
*You are still working? **You must be tired!***
- (d) To give a strong recommendation.
e.g. *You **must** listen to this song, it's so catchy!*

16.3.3 May (Modal verb)

You can use the modal verb **may**:

- (a) To give permission or prohibit something.
e.g. *If you have finished the test, you **may** leave the room.*
*You **may not** park here.*
- (b) To ask for permission (more polite than *can*).
e.g. ***May** I use your bathroom, please?*
- (c) To express wishes.
e.g. ***May** you both live happily!*
- (d) In academic (or scientific) language to refer to things that typically happen in certain situations.
e.g. *Drivers **may** feel tired after driving for 3 hours straight.*

Note that we usually use the modal verbs **may** and **might** without a significant difference in meaning when expressing **possibility**.

However, **might** often implies a smaller chance of something happening.

*I **might** go to the movies tonight. I'm not sure.*

16.3.4 Shall

Nowadays, the most common use of **shall** in everyday English is in questions that serve as offers or suggestions (**Shall I? Shall we?**).

***Shall I** order some pizza?*
***Shall we** go now? It's getting late.*

16.3.5 Should

You can use the modal verb **should**:

- (a) To give advice, a recommendation, or a suggestion.
e.g. *I think you **should** study more.*
- (b) To express that a situation is likely in the present or in the future (a prediction).
e.g. *Kelly **should** be at home by now. You can stop by.*
*I ordered some t-shirts 10 days ago. They **should** come in mail this week.*
- (c) To express an obligation (not as strong as **must**). It is used instead of **must** to make rules, orders or instructions sound more polite.
e.g. *You **should** never lie to your parents.*
- (d) To say that something was expected in the past but didn't happen (in this case, use *should + have + past participle*).
e.g. *I **should have studied** more but I was too lazy.*

16.3.6 Will

You can use the modal verb **will**:

- (a) To express rapid decision.
e.g. *Which one? - Hmm, I **will** have the tuna sandwich.*
- (b) To express thoughts or beliefs about the future.
e.g. *I think they **will** remain friends forever.*
- (c) To make an offer, a promise, or a threat.
e.g. *I **will not** disappoint you!*
- (d) To talk about predictable behaviour.
e.g. *He **will** eat chocolate when he feels anxious*

We use **won't** when someone refuses to do something.

*I tried reassuring him, but he **won't** listen to me.*

16.3.7 Would

You can use the modal verb **would**:

- (a) As a polite invitation or to offer.
e.g. **Would** you like to spend this evening together with me?
- (b) To describe a prediction.
e.g. It **would** be nice to be a little bit funnier.
- (c) Not to sound impolite when disagreeing with someone.
e.g. I **wouldn't** put it like that.
- (d) To describe past habits.
e.g. She **would** fall asleep when she was on a train.

We use **wouldn't** when someone refused to do something.

*James said that he **wouldn't** help us at all.*

17 Adjectives

An **adjective** is a word or set of words that modifies (i.e. describes) a noun or pronoun.

Adjectives may come before or after the word they modify.

*This is a **cute** cat. This cat is **cute**.*

Adjectives can modify nouns (e.g. *girl, boy, etc.*) or pronouns (e.g. *we, it, etc.*).

*Lilly is an **honest** person.
The movie was **awful**! The plot is simply **boring**.*

Remember that if something is -ing, it makes you -ed.

*He is **excited** because the event is **exciting**.
I am **annoyed** because this whole situation is **annoying**.*

Sometimes we use two or more adjectives together.

Article	Quantity/Number	Quality/Opinion	Fact	Noun
a		nice	sunny	morning
	two	intelligent	young	ladies
a		beautiful	large round wooden	table

Table 18: More than 1 adjective structure

There are times when we use two or more fact adjectives.

Article	Size	Age	Shape	Colour	Material/Origin	Purpose	Noun
a	big	old	round		wooden		table
		new		white		tennis	shoes
a	tall	young			Polish		boy

Table 19: More than 1 fact adjective structure

17.1 Descriptive Adjectives

Descriptive adjectives describe nouns or pronouns in detail by giving an attribute to that particular word.

They usually express things through the five senses (touch, taste, sight, smell, and sound).

*This is a **delicious** sandwich.*

Descriptive adjectives can be organized into the following categories:

- (a) Simple adjectives are the most basic type of descriptive adjectives
e.g. *It was a **beautiful** day yesterday. **Clear** sky, **sweet** smell of blossoming trees, **green** grass, **cheerful** people... It seemed as if the world has united to celebrate the coming of spring.*
- (b) Compound adjectives are created when two words are combined to create a descriptive adjective. The two words are typically connects with a hyphen.
e.g. *Pam was a **baby-faced long-legged** girl.*

17.2 Proper Adjectives

Proper adjectives are formed from proper nouns and modify nouns and pronouns.

*I love **Italian** culture.*

A **proper noun** is the specific name used for any person, place, or thing.

Proper adjectives typically look like their original proper nouns but have some sort of alternative ending.

*He lives in **America**. (proper noun)
He likes **American** holidays. (proper adjective)*

Proper adjectives are derived from proper nouns. For this reason, **they are capitalized**.

*When she lived in Chine, Liz ate a lot of **Chinese** food.*

When a proper adjective has a prefix, the prefix itself is never capitalized. However, the proper adjective itself is still capitalized.

*In **pre-Columbian** America corn was the only cultivated cereal.*

-ian/-ean/-an	-ic	-ese	-i	-ish
Italian	Icelandic	Chinese	Iraqi	Danish
Korean	Nordic	Japanese	Israeli	Finnish
Moroccan	Hispanic	Portuguese	Pakistani	Irish

Table 20: Common proper adjective endings

17.3 Limiting Adjectives

Limiting adjectives help to define or 'limit' a noun or pronoun by telling which one, what kind, or how many.

***This** sandwich is delicious.*

There are the following categories of limiting adjectives:

- (a) **Article** are the most commonly used adjectives. **A, an, the** indicate whether the noun is used indefinitely or definitely.
e.g. *There is **a** bed, **a** mirror, **a** wardrobe, and **an** easel in **the** room.*

- (b) **Demonstrative adjectives** are adjectives that are used to modify a noun so that we know which specific person, place, or thing is mentioned. The most common demonstrate adjectives are **this, that, these, those**.
e.g. ***This** is July, and **that** girl other there is Judy.*
- (c) **Numerals** can function as limiting adjectives limiting the noun to a specific number or amount.
e.g. ***One** chocolate bar, **two** cups of coffee, and **ten** hours of hard work were put into this.*
- (d) **Indefinite adjectives** are used to describe a noun in a non-specific sense. The most common indefinite adjectives are **any, each, few, many, much, most, several, some**.
e.g. *There were **several** people in the room.*

17.3.1 Possessive Adjectives

In this category (limiting adjectives) there are **possessive adjectives**. They modify the noun following it in order to show possession.

These adjectives are: my, your, his, her, its, our, their.

*I told **my** friend that I like someone, then she told that to **her** friend, and that friend told that to **his** friends, and now everyone knows everything.*

Person	Subject	Object	Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun
First Singular	I	me	my	mine
Second Singular	You	you	your	yours
	He	him	his	his
Third Singular	She	her	her	hers
	It	it	its	its
First Plural	We	us	our	ours
Second Plural	They	them	Their	theirs
Third Plural	You	you	your	yours

Table 21: Possessive adjectives

The **possessive adjective** needs to agree with the possessor and not with the thing that is possessed. However, the verb that is used needs to be in agreement with the noun.

*She has a boyfriend. **Her** boyfriend is very kind. Peter likes to cook. **His** cooking skills are great.*

Possessive adjectives are often confused with possessive pronouns.

***Your** cat is black. (**Your** is an adjective which modifies the word 'car')*
***Mine** is white. (**Mine** is a pronoun which functions as the subject of the sentence.)*

Do not confuse **its** and **it's**

Its is the **possessive adjective** for **it**.

It's is a **contraction** of **it is**.

***It is** a beautiful day. = **It's** a beautiful day.*
*The dog was wiggling **its** tail.*

Do not confuse **their** and **they're**

Their is the **possessive adjective** for **they**.

They're is a **contraction** for **they are**.

***They are** best friends. = **They're** best friends.*
*I wanted to see **their** performance.*

17.3.2 Pronominal Adjectives

In this category (limiting adjectives) there are **pronominal adjectives**. They are pronouns which are used to modify nouns.

***This** book is interesting.* (**This** is a pronominal adjective. It modifies the noun **book**.)

***This** is an interesting book.* (**This** is a pronoun. It represents the noun **book**.)

Pronominal adjectives can be subdivided into the following groups:

- (a) **Demonstrative adjectives** (*this, that, these, those*).
e.g. ***Those** shoes were old-fashioned. **These** shoes are much better.*
- (b) **Possessive adjectives** (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their*).
e.g. ***Their** cat likes to sleep on the floor.*
- (c) **Distributive adjectives** (*each, every, either, neither*).
e.g. ***Every** attempt was met with suspicion.*
- (d) **Interrogative adjectives** (*which, what, whose*).
e.g. ***Whose** pants are these?*
- (e) **Indefinite adjectives** (*some, any, all, few, several, many, both, little, much, more, most*).
e.g. ***Both** parents were present.*

17.4 Degrees of Adjectives

Most adjectives can show degree of quality or quantity by forming two degrees of comparison: the comparative and the superlative degree.

These degrees are formed from the positive degree, which is the usual form of adjectives.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
This is a tall building.	This building is taller than that one.	This is the tallest building.

Table 22: Positive, Comparative and Superlative

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	the best
bad	worse	the worst
far	farther/further	the farthest/furthest
little	less	the least
much/many	more	the most

Table 23: Irregular Adjectives

17.4.1 Comparative adjectives

noun/pronoun (subject) + verb + comparative adjective + than + noun/pronoun (object)

*My room is **larger** than Jake's.*

Sometimes the second item of comparison can be omitted.

*If you start working out you'll get **thinner**.*

- One syllable + -er
e.g. *smart - smarter*

- vowel + cons \Rightarrow double cons + -er
e.g. *big* - *bigger*
- const + -y \Rightarrow const + -i + -er
e.g. *dry* - *drier*
- two syllables + -er OR more
e.g. *happy* - *happier*, *tangled* - *more tangled*
- three syllables + more
e.g. *beautiful* - *more beautiful*

17.4.2 Superlative Adjectives

noun/pronoun(subject) + verb + the + superlative adjective + noun/pronoun(object)

*My room is **the largest** one in the house.*

Sometimes the group that is being compared with can be omitted.

*She is **the prettiest** (girl in the office).*

- one syllable + -est
e.g. *smart* - *the smartest*
- vowel + const \Rightarrow double cons + -est e.g. *big* - *the biggest*
- cons + -y \Rightarrow cons + -i + -est
e.g. *dry* - *the driest*
- two syllables + -est OR the most
e.g. *happy* - *the happiest*, *tangled* - *the most tangled*
- three syllables + the most e.g. *beautiful* - *the most beautiful*

18 Adverbs

An **adverb** is a word or set of words that modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Usually adverbs modify verbs, telling us how, how often, when, or where something was done.

*We walked really **slowly**.*

An **adverb** is a word or set of words that modifies:

- Verbs, telling how, how often, when, or where something was done. e.g. *The cars drove **fast**.*
- Adjectives, making them stronger or weaker.
e.g. *Ann looked **absolutely** amazing.*
- Other adverbs, changing their degree or precision.
e.g. *You're speaking **too** loudly.*

18.1 Forming Adverbs

- adjective + -ly
e.g. *slow* - *slowly*
- adjective ending in -l + -ly
e.g. *careful* - *carefully*
- adjective ending in -y \Rightarrow -i + -ly
e.g. *easy* - *easily*
- adjective ending in -able -ible or -le \Rightarrow replace -e with -y
e.g. *probable* - *probably*, *terrible* - *terribly*, *gentle* - *gently*

- adjective ending in -ic + -ally
e.g. *economic* - *economically*

Adjectives ending in -ly (friendly, lively) can't be made into adverbs by adding -ly. We can use 'in a friendly way/manner' instead.

*He talked to me **n a friendly manner**.*

The following adverbs have the same form as the adjectives: early, fast, hard, high, late, near, straight, wrong.

*The train is very **fast**.* (adjective)

*The train goes **fast**.* (adverb)

The adverb **well** corresponds to the adjective **good**.

*Tom is a **good** student. He studies **well**.*

The adverb **hardly** is no related to the meaning of hard. The adverb **hardly** has the meaning 'almost not'.

***Hardly** anyone writes to me the days. = Almost no one write to me these days.*

*Susan ate **hardly** anything. = Susan ate almost nothing.*

18.2 Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner tell us how something happens.

*I **carefully** read the note left on the counter.*

Adverbs of Manner are usually placed either before the main verb or after the object.

*Tom **quickly** left the building. Tom left the building **quickly**.*

Note that such adverbs as **well**, **badly**, **hard**, **fast**, are always placed after the verb.

*~~Alice **hard** worked.~~ Alice worked **hard**.*

When there is more than one verb in a clause, the position of the adverb is very important.

*Samuel **slowly** **decided** to leave the party.* (The adverb modifies the verb 'decided')

*Samuel decided **to leave the party** **slowly**.* (The adverb describes the clause 'to leave the party'.)

Sometimes a writer puts an adverb of manner at the beginning of the sentence to catch the reader's attention.

***Confidently** she entered the room.*

18.3 Adverbs of Place

Adverbs of place tell us where something happens. They do not modify adjectives or other adverbs.

*I'm going **back** to school in a month.*

Adverbs of place are usually placed after the main verb or after the clause that they modify.

*Come **in**!*

*Helen looked **around** trying to find a familiar face in the crowd.*

Adverbs of place that end in **-where** express the idea of location without specifying a specific location or direction.

*I couldn't find my cat **anywhere**.*

Adverbs of place that end in **-wards** express movement in a particular direction.

*Our dog likes to walk **backwards**.*

With verbs of movement, **here** means 'towards of with the speaker' and **there** means 'away from, or not with the speaker'.

*You can hang your coat **here**.* (You are standing near a hanger.)
*And you can put your shoes **there**.* (You are pointing at the shoes rack. You are not standing near it.)

Here and **there** are combined with preposition to make many common adverbial phrases.

*Could you come **over here**?*
*What are you doing **up there**?*

Here and **there** are placed at the beginning of the sentence in exclamations or when emphasis is needed.

They are followed by the verb if the subject is a noun or by a pronoun if the subject is a pronoun.

***Here** comes the train!*
***There** it is!*

18.4 Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time tell us when an action happened, for how long, or how often. Adverbs of time are invariable.

*Sorry, I'll call you **in a minute**.*

Adverbs of time are usually placed at the end of the sentence.

*I'll do it **tomorrow**.*

Sometimes these adverbs can be put at the beginning of the sentence to give different emphasis.

***Later** they notices his absence.*

In the adverbial phrases that tell us for how long something has been happening, **for** is always followed by an expression of duration, while **since** is always followed by an expression of a point in time.

*They'll be away **for twenty days**.*
*I haven't seen you **since June**!*

Adverbs that tell us how often something happens express the frequency of an action. They are usually placed before the main verb but after auxiliary verbs.

*Sarah **usually** wakes up at **7 a.m.***
*You must **always** be kind to others.*

The only exception is when the main verb is **to be**, in which case the adverbs goes after the main verb.

*I am **never** late.*

If you need to use more than one adverb of time in a sentence, use them in the following order: (1) **How long**, (2) **How often**, (3) **When**.

*Peter worked at the mall **for 4 days (1) every week (2) last year (3)**.*

18.5 Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs of frequency tell us how often something happens. They are also used to indicate routine or repeated activities.

*I **always** do my homework.*

These adverbs are usually placed before the main verb but after auxiliary verbs.

*Our company **frequently** has brunches with potential clients. You should **always** wait for the green light to cross the road.*

The only exception is when the main verb is **to be**, in which case the adverb goes after the main verb.

*We are **usually** optimistic.*

Frequency	Adverb of Frequency	Example
100%	always	Sarah always helps her mom with dinner.
90%	usually	We usually go out on Fridays.
80%	normally/generally	Shaun normally eats breakfast at 8 a.m.
70%	often/frequently	They often go to their parents at weekends.
50%	sometimes	Peter sometimes forgets his kids' birthdays.
30%	occasionally	I occasionally eat vegetarian food.
10%	seldom	We seldom go on vacation together.
0%	never	They never eat junk food.

Table 24: Adverbs of Frequency

We can also use the following expressions when we want to be more specific about the frequency: every day, once a month, twice a year, three times a day, every other week, daily, monthly, annually, etc.

*I usually eat pizza **once a month**.*

If you need to use more than one adverb of time in a sentence, use them in the following order: (1) **How long**, (2) **How often**, (3) **When**.

*Peter worked at the mall **for 4 days every week last year**.*

18.6 Adverbs of Degree

Adverbs of degree tell us about the intensity of something. They are usually placed before the adjective, adverb, or verb that they modify.

*I was **too** scared to move forward.*

The most common adverbs of degree are **extremely**, **quite**, **just**, **almost**, **very**, **too**, **enough**, etc.

Enough as an adverb meaning 'to the necessary degree' goes after the adjective or adverb that it is modifying.

*This bed isn't comfortable **enough**.*

Enough is often followed by + infinitive or for something/something.

*They're not old **enough to get married**.*

*This suit is big **enough for Mike**.*

Too as an adverb meaning 'also' goes at the end of the phrase it modifies.

Too as an adverb meaning 'excessively' goes before the adjective or adverb it modifies.

Too is often followed by to + infinitive or for something/something.

*I'd like to go to the cinema **too**!*
*Is he **too young to become a president**? - No, he isn't **too young for that**.*

Note that there is a big difference in meaning between **too** and **very**.
Very expresses a fact while **too** suggests that there is a problem.

*She speaks **very quickly**.*
*She speak **too quickly**. I can't understand her.*

18.7 Comparative and Superlative Adverbs

Most adverbs can show degree of quality or quantity by forming two degrees of comparison: **the comparative degree** and **the superlative degree**.

These degrees are formed from the positive degree, which is the usual form of adverbs.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
She eats slowly	She eats more slowly than we do	She eats the most slowly of us all

Table 25: Positive, Comparative and Superlative

The comparative form is used for comparing two actions or states, while the superlative is used for comparing one action or state with all the others in the same category.

*He runs **faster than** Jack does. But we need to check for sure who runs **the fastest**.*

adverb ending in -ly + more/the most e.g. *happily* - *more happily* - *the most happily*

adverb ending in -e + -r/-st e.g. *late* - *later* - *the latest*

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
well	better	the best
badly	worse	the worst
much	more	the most
little	less	the least
far	farther/further	the farthest/the furthest

Table 26: Positive, Comparative, Superlative examples

Note that it's **impossible** to have comparatives or superlatives of certain adverbs, especially those of:

Time (e.g. *daily*, *yesterday*, *then*)

Place (e.g. *there*, *up*, *down*)

Degree (e.g. *very*, *just*, *too*)

18.8 Order of Adverbs

As adverbs are used to modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, phrases, clauses, or even entire sentences, they are able to function nearly anywhere in the sentence, depending on their type and what they are modifying.

If we use more than one adverb to describe a verb, there is a general order in which the different categories of adverbs should appear (sometimes called **the royal order of adverbs**):

1. Manner, 2. Place, 3. Frequency, 4. Time, 5. Purpose

Adverbs of manner tell us how something happens, how someone does something, or give character to a description.

*Alice sings **beautifully**.*

Adverbs of place tell us an aspect of location associated with the action of a verb, specifying the direction, distance, movement, or position involved in the action.

*We looked **upwards** at the fireworks.*

Adverbs of frequency tell us how often something happens.

*Peter goes abroad **twice a year**.*

Adverbs of time tell us when or for how long something happens or is the case.

*They've been dating **for 4 years**.*

19 Prepositions

A **preposition** is usually a short word used to link nouns, pronouns, or phrases to other words within a sentence.

*If I'm not mistaken, her birthdat **is in** May.*

Adverbs of purpose tell us why something happens.

*The dress is handcrafted and **hence** expensive.*

Adverbs indicating the attitude and point of view of the speaker or writer usually go at the beginning.

***Actually**, I don't want to go there.*

Prepositions **do not** change their form.

*I want (what?) **to** go (where?) **to** the movies. = I had a desire **to** go **to** the movies.*

Preposition can consist of one, two or more words.

*Josh went **to** the club **instead of** studying for his exams.*

*There was a huge traffic jam **in front of** us.*

Prepositions can be divided into the following categories:

- (a) **Prepositions of place** state the position or location of one thing with another. e.g. *Kate works **at** Starbucks.*
- (b) **Prepositions of time** denote specific time periods.
e.g. *We usually go to our relatives **at** Christmas.*
- (c) **Prepositions of direction or motion** indicate movement from one place to the other.
e.g. *There's a great pub **across** the street.*
- (d) **Preposition of manner** express the manner in which something is done.
e.g. *You can't achieve success **by** doing nothing.*
- (e) **Prepositions of cause, purpose, and reason** indicate why, what for, or because of what something happens.
e.g. *She couldn't attend the meeting **due to** some family issues.*

19.1 Prepositions of place

There are many types of prepositions. Among them there are prepositions of place.

They are used to show the position or location of one thing with another. We usually use prepositions of place when we answer the question beginning with 'Where?'.

*Where do you live? - I live **in** New York.*

There are three main prepositions of place:

- (a) **at** denotes specific point or location of something.
e.g. *There's someone standing **at** the door.* (specific location)
*There weren't many people **at** the theatre. It's Monday after all.* (specific location)
*Alex lives **at** number 25 Emerald Street.* (address)
*Ashley works **at** Apple.* (company or workplace)
- (b) **in** implies that something is located in an enclosed space or within a larger area.
e.g. *I think I left my phone **in** the living-room.* (the living-room is part of your house)
*Jake lives **in** the U.S. He lives **in** Texas.* (country, state, etc.)
- (c) **on** implies that something is located on the surface.
e.g. *Could you grab my phone? It's **on** the coffee table in the living-room.* (the surface of furniture)
*Jake's sister is **on** the west coast. She absolutely love the Pacific!* (position along a road, river or by the sea, lake, etc.)
*Alex live **on** the third floor.* (the floor in the building)
*Sorry, I'll call you back. I'm **on** the train now.* (public transport)
*My grandparents work **on** a farm.* (open fields = the surface of the earth)

Sometimes you can use both **an** and **in** when you talk about the location, although there is a slight difference in meaning.

Study the following examples:

*My siblings are **at** the mall now.* (You are stating the location in general. Your siblings could be inside the mall, somewhere at the entrance, or at the parking lot.)

*My sibling are **in** the mall now.* (You are specifying that your siblings are inside the mall building.)

19.2 Prepositions of time

Prepositions of time are used to denote specific time periods. We usually use prepositions of time when we answer the question beginning with 'When?'.

*When did you move to New York? - I move there **in** 2007.*

There are three main prepositions of time:

- (a) **at** denotes precise time.
e.g. *I'll pick you up **at** 5.*
*We're going to be sleeping **at** midnight*

Note that **at** is also used with such expressions as **at night**, **at weekend**, **at Christmas**, **at the moment**, **at present**, **at the same time**.

*Mr. Ruffus isn't **at** the moment. May I take a message?*

- (b) **on** is used for days and dates.
e.g. *I'm meeting up with my friends **on** Saturday. And **on** Sunday morning I'm flying to Seattle.*
*Mike has the project presentation **on** 11 November.*
*My family does nothing **on** Christmas day.*

- (c) **in** denotes longer period of time like months, years, centuries, etc.
e.g. *The Parkers are moving to Greece **in** March.*
*The story is set **in** the 80s.*
*Life **in** the Middle Ages wasn't like in a fairy tale. I don't know how people lived in the past!*

Note that **in** is also used with such phrases as **in the morning/afternoon/evening**.

*Theo is an owl. He has a hard time getting up **in** the mornings.*

Note that we do not use prepositions before **last/next/every/this**.

~~*I guess we'll see Alice on next Monday.*~~
*I guess we'll see Alice **next** Monday.*

19.3 Prepositions of Direction and Motion

They are used to show movement from one place to the other. We usually use prepositions of direction or motion when we answer the question beginning with 'Where?'.
*Where are you going? - I'm going **to** the supermarket.*

There are several commonly used prepositions of direction or motion:

- (a) **to** is used to show movement in a specific direction.
e.g. *I'll head off **to** work in a couple of minutes. Kimberly moved **to** Florida a year ago.*

Note that you can also use **towards** in the meaning 'in the direction of'.

*Why are these policemen running **towards** Erick?*

- (b) **into** is used to show movement into something (enclosed space), while **onto** shows movement on top of something (surface).
e.g. *The dog jumped **into** the kennel, while the cat leaped **onto** the roof of the kennel.*
- (c) **across** is used to show movement from one side to the other side of something.
e.g. *You can't walk **across** the street wherever you want.*
- (d) **over** is used to show an upward and forward direction across something.
e.g. *The boys jumped **over** the fence and chases the cat.*
- (e) **through** is used to show movement within an enclosed space from one point to the other.
e.g. *I don't like driving **through** the tunnels. I feel a bit anxious then.*
- (f) **past** is used to indicate movement near something while you are on your way to another location.
e.g. *I waved at Mary but shee walked **past** me.*

19.4 Prepositions of Manner

Prepositions of manner are used to express the manner in which something is done. We usually use prepositions of manner when we answer the question beginning with 'How?'.
*How did she lose weight? - She lost weight **by** exercising.*

There are several groups of prepositions of manner:

- (a) **in, with** are used to describe the way in which something is carried out.

*She left the stage **in** tears. She was singing **with** tears in her eyes.*

- (b) **by** is used to denote either a person or a means of transportation, while **with** denotes an instrument.

*This house was built **by** my grandfather.*
*Helen goes to work **by** bus.*
*You need to cut the cake **with** a knife.*
We can also use by + V-ing.
*You can't prove them wrong **by** doing nothing.*

- (c) **at** can be used to describe aggressive behaviour.
Compare the following examples:

*He talked **to** his wife. (neutral)*
*He talked **at** his wife. (aggressive behaviour)*

We can also use the phrase **in a friendly way/manner** to describe actions.

*Mrs. Anderson spoke to me **in an extremely polite manner**.*

19.5 Prepositions of Cause, Purpose, and Reason

They are used to indicate why, what for, or because of what something happens. We usually use these prepositions when we answer the question beginning with 'Why?'.

Why don't you eat breakfast? - *I don't eat breakfast **to** sleep more in the mornings.*

There are several commonly used prepositions of cause, purpose, and reason:

- (a) **due to** is used to express the cause of the action.
e.g. ***Due to** her strict parents, Liz rarely went out. It was difficult for her to make friends.* (Her parents were the cause of her not making friends.)
- (b) **to** is used to express the purpose of the action. (usually followed by a verb)
e.g. *People go to clubs **to** dance and **to** meet new people.* (These two things are the purpose of people going to clubs.)
- (c) **for** is used to express the reason of the action. (usually followed by a noun/pronoun or a gerund)
e.g. *He was taken to the police station **for** driving under influence.* (DUI was the reason he was taken to the police station.)

Because of is also used to express the reason of something happening.

*I need to go home earlier **because of** my sick cat.* (My cat is sick that's why I need to go home earlier.)

19.6 Prepositional Phrases

A **prepositional phrase** is a group of words consisting of a preposition and a noun, pronoun, gerund or clause.

*She tried to calm down the baby **by singing** lullabies.*

A prepositional phrase always consists of two basic parts at minimum: the preposition and its object.

*I think I'll be **at (preposition)** home (noun).*

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that can consist of:

- (a) a preposition and a noun. e.g. *Erick was fired **from** McDonald's*
- (b) a preposition and a pronoun. e.g. *He always leaves little presents **for** me.*
- (c) a preposition and a gerund.
e.g. *Carol managed to lose some weight **thanks to** exercising.*

- (d) a preposition and a clause.

e.g. *I need to talk to you **about stuff we need for our trip.***

A prepositional phrase can function either as an adjective or an adverb in the sentence.

As an adjective, the prepositional phrase answers the question 'Which one?'

*The boy **with red hair** was taking photos outside. **Which one?** The one **with red hair.***

As an adverb, the prepositional phrase answers the questions 'How?/When?/Where?'

*Gaby went for a run **at 5 o'clock.**
When did she go for a run? **At 5 o'clock.***

20 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that link other words, phrases, clauses, or sentences together.

*Susan is an amazing wife **and** a wonderful mom.*

Conjunctions add complexity to our speech.

They also allow us to form complex sentences instead of using multiple short ones.

*Bran likes eating. He doesn't like cooking. He finds cooking boring. Bran likes eating **but** he doesn't like cooking **as** he finds it boring.*

Conjunctions can be divided into the following categories:

- (a) **Subordinating conjunctions** link two clauses, a main (independent) one and a subordinate (dependent) one.
The most commonly used subordinating conjunctions are *although, as, because, if, though, unless, etc.*
e.g. *She won't speak with her parents **unless** they apologise first.*
- (b) **Correlative conjunctions** connect two equal grammatical items.
These conjunctions come in pairs: either...or, neither...nor, not only...but also.
e.g. ***Either** we go to the party **or** we stay at home.*
- (c) **Compound conjunctions** are phrases which are used as conjunctions. A compound conjunction has two or three words that go together - *so that, as long as, even though, etc.*
e.g. *Mike lied to his parents **so that** he could go to the party.*
- (d) **Coordinating conjunctions** are used to link words, phrases, and clauses of equal importance in a sentence.
There are seven coordinating conjunctions: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so* (you can remember them with the help of the acronym FANBOYS)
e.g. *Beth doesn't like cheese, **yet** she eats pizza nearly every day.*

20.1 Coordinating Conjunctions

There are many types of conjunctions. Among them there are coordinating conjunctions.

They are used to link words, phrases, and clauses of equal importance in a sentence.

*She complains about his job, **yet** he doesn't try to find a new one.*

There are seven coordinating conjunctions: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so* (you can remember them with the help of the acronym FANBOYS)

*They couldn't afford to rent the apartment, **for** it was too expensive. You can't have your cake **and** eat it.*

*Samantha doesn't want to go out, **nor** does she invite us to her place.*

*I was quite anxious at the beginning, **but** eventually I managed to pull myself together.*

*You can call me **or** send a message when you get off from work.*

*Ben says that he is busy all the time, **yet** he has time to play online games every day. Bill is allergic to dairy, **so** he doesn't eat any cheese.*

20.2 Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions link two clauses, a main (independent) one and a subordinate (dependent) one.

***Although** Emma wanted to go together with them, she declined the invitation.*

The most commonly used subordinating conjunctions are: *although, as, because, if, since, though, unless, while, whereas, etc.*

Subordinating conjunctions perform two functions in a sentence: they state the importance of the independent clause and provide a transition between two ideas within a sentence.

*[**Once** she stopped caring about strangers opinions], [Liz became happier]*
Main clause, Subordinate clause.

If the subordinate clause follows the main one, we do not usually use a comma.

*[My mom cries] [**whenever** she watches a romantic comedy].*
Main clause, Subordinate clause.

If the subordinate clause precedes the main one, use a comma to separate clauses.

*[**After** he had completed his studies], [George decided to travel for a year].*
Main clause, Subordinate clause.

20.3 Correlative Conjunctions

They connect two equal grammatical items in a sentence.

***Either** you apologise **or** I'll mommy!*

These conjunctions come in pairs: *either...or, neither...nor, not only...but also, rather...than, etc.*

When using correlative conjunctions, pay attention to the subject-predicate agreement so that you have parallel structures.

~~*College life is not only about partying, but also study like crazy.*~~
*College life is **not only** about partying, **but also** about studying like crazy.*

Note that a negative correlative like *neither...nor* can go at the beginning of a sentence. In this case, the word order is inverted, and the auxiliary verb comes before the subject. Compare the sentences:

***Neither did** Sam clean the apartment **nor did** he buy groceries.*
*Sam **neither cleaned** the apartment **nor bought** groceries.*

20.4 Compound Conjunctions

Compound conjunctions are phrases which are used as conjunctions. A compound conjunction has two or three words that go together, *so that, as long as, even though, etc.*

*You can buy whatever you want **as long as** you use your own money.*

Even though compound conjunctions have two or three words that go together, they are different from correlative conjunctions which are conjunctions used only in pairs.

Compare the sentences:

*Beth likes painting **as well as** drawing. Beth thinks that you can be good **either** at painting **or** at drawing.*

There are several commonly used compound conjunctions:

*You can buy clothes **as well as** shoes there.*
(You can buy clothes and shoes there.)

***As soon as** it started raining, they opened the windows in the apartment.*
(It started raining and they immediately opened the windows.)

*The kid sang so loudly **as if/as though** there was no one in the room.*
(The kids sang so loudly like there was no one in the room.)

***Even if/Even though** I don't like plain honey. I'll eat sweets with honey in them.*
(I don't like plain honey but nevertheless I'll eat sweets with honey in them.)

*John will pass the test **provided that** he studies every day.*
(If John studies every day, he'll pass the test.)

*I'll turn off my phone **so that** no one disturbs us.*

*Please turn off your phones **in order that** we are not disturbed by anyone. (**in order that** is more formal than **so that**)*

20.5 Pseudo Conjunctions

Pseudo conjunctions are other parts of speech that act like conjunctions:

- (a) **Adverbial conjunctions** (also called conjunctive adverbs) are used to indicate a relationship between sentences and independent clauses by comparing or contrasting ideas (e.g. *consequently, finally, however, otherwise, then, etc.*) We usually use commas to separate an adverbial conjunction from the rest of the sentences
e.g. *John's mom wanted him to go to college. **Instead**, he took a gap year and travelled around the world.*
- (b) **Nominal conjunctions** introduce or conclude ideas (e.g. *the moment, the instant, etc.*) Nominal conjunctions function as nouns in a sentence.
e.g. *I was petrified **the moment** I heard the news.*
- (c) **Verbal conjunctions** are used to introduce additional information in a sentence (e.g. *assuming (that), given (that), etc.*) Verbal conjunctions are derived from verbs.
e.g. *Shall we go out tonight **assuming that** you are free?*

21 Phrasal Verbs

A **phrasal verb** is a verb that is made up of a main verb together with an adverb or preposition, or both.

Typically, their meaning is not obvious from the meanings of the individual words themselves.

21.1 Give Up

To **give up** has several meanings:

- (a) To give something up/to give up doing something, means to stop doing something, especially something that you do regularly.
e.g. *Bella **gave up** her job and became a stay-at-home mom.*
*Why don't you **give up** drinking beer?*
- (b) to give yourself/somebody up (to), means to allow yourself or someone else to be caught by the police or enemy soldiers.
e.g. *The burglar **gave himself up (to the police)**.*
- (c) to give up something, means to use some of your time to do a particular thing.
e.g. *Emily didn't like **giving up time to** do laundry.*

- (d) to give something/somebody up, means to give something that is yours to someone else. e.g. *They had to **give up their lands**.*
- (e) to give up on somebody/something, means to stop hoping that someone or something will change or improve.
e.g. *Greg had been in a coma for a year, and doctors **had almost given up on him**.*
- (f) to give yourself up to something, means to allow yourself to feel an emotion completely, without trying to control it.
e.g. *They **gave themselves up to** laughter after hearing the joke.*

21.2 Turn out

To **turn out** has several meanings:

- (a) to turn out, means to happen in a particular way, or to have a particular result, especially one that you did not expect.
e.g. *I though I'd failed my exam, but **it turned out fine**.*
***As it turns out**, they have been dating for over a year.*
*James **turned out to be** Lily's cousin.*
- (b) to turn out for, means that a lot of people go to watch the event or take part in it.
e.g. *About 80% of the population **turned out for** the election.*
- (c) to turn somebody out, means to force someone to leave a place permanently, especially their home.
e.g. *If you don't pay the rent, they will **turn you out** in a week.*

21.3 Carry on

To **carry on** has several meanings:

- (a) to carry on doing something/with something, means to continue doing something.
e.g. *Sorry, I interrupted you. **Carry on**, please.*
*You'll put on weight if you **carry on** eating fast food. I want to **carry on with** my business idea.*
- (b) to carry on, means to continue moving.
e.g. ***Carry straight on** until you see the red building.*
- (c) to carry on something, means to do or take part in a particular kind of work or activity.
e.g. *It was so noisy there that it was difficult for us to **carry on** a conversation.*
- (d) (spoken) to carry on about, means to speak with overwhelming enthusiasm.
e.g. *I wish my friends would stop **carrying on** about their trip.*

21.4 Put Off

To **put off** has several meanings:

- (a) to put something off/ to put off something, means to delay doing something or to arrange to do something at a later time or date, especially because there is a problem or you do not want to do it at that time.
e.g. *The game **has been put off** until tomorrow because of bad weather.*
*I've been **putting off** working on my thesis because I'm never in the mood.*
- (b) to put somebody off/put somebody off (doing) something, means to make you dislike something or not want to do something. e.g. *Don't let his humour **put you off** - he's a nice guy actually.*
*I don't want my fears **put you off** finding a job in another state.*
- (c) to put somebody off, means to make someone wait because you do not want to meet them, talk to them etc. until later. e.g. *If my brother calls, **put him off** as long as possible.*
- (d) to put somebody off (something), means to make it difficult for someone to pay attention to what they are doing by talking, making a noise etc.
e.g. *It **puts me off** when you're listening to music while I'm talking to you.*

21.5 Turn Down

To **turn down** has several meanings:

- (a) to turn down, means to turn the switch on a machine (e.g. *an oven, radio, etc.*) so that it produces less heat, sound, etc. (opposite to **to turn up**).
e.g. *Can you **turn down** the TV? I'm trying to study.*
*I'll **turn down** the heater. It's too hot in the room.*
- (b) to turn down, means to refuse an offer, request, or invitation. e.g. *Ann offered Peter the job but he **turned it down**.*
- (c) to turn down, means to refuse someone's offer of marriage. e.g. *We were shocked to hear that Lilly **turned him down**.*
- (d) if the economy turns down, it means that the level of activity falls, companies become less profitable, etc.
e.g. *After the crisis in 2008 **the economy has turned down**.*

21.6 Break Up

To **break up** has several meanings:

- (a) to break up, means to break into a lot of small pieces.
e.g. *The vase just **broke up** in my hands.*
- (b) to break up, means to separate something into several smaller parts.
e.g. *I think that their intention is to **break up** our company into several smaller ones.*
- (c) to break up, means to stop a fight.
e.g. *Their mom was the one to **break up** fights.*
- (d) to break up, means to make people leave a place where they have been meeting or protesting.
e.g. *Police **broke up** the demonstration.*
- (e) to break up (with) (when speaking of marriage, group of people, or relationship) indicates that the people in this relationship separate and do not live or work together anymore.
e.g. *I was so sad to hear that my favourite band **broke up**.*
*James **broke up with** Kate last year.*

22 Pre-determiners

Predeterminers are words placed before determiners in a sentence, i.e. they modify the determiner.

***What** a great day!*

Predeterminers are usually placed before an *indefinite article + adjective + noun* to express an opinion about the noun they modify.

Predeterminers can be classified into the following categories:

- (a) **Multipliers** (twice, three times) are used to express more than the specified amount.
e.g. *My brothers make **twice** my annual salary.*
*I try to call my parents at least **three times** a week.*
- (b) **Fractions** (half, one-eight) are used to express a fraction of an amount.
e.g. *The bus will arrive in **half** an hour. We've got plenty of time.*
*I ate **one-third** of the pizza we cooked last night.*
- (c) **Intensifiers** (such, what, quite, rather) are used to express surprise, disappointment, pleasure, or other emotions.

*Such and **what** are used to express surprise or other emotions.*

e.g. *Alice is **such** a kind person!*

***What** a fantastic meal it is!*

Quite and **rather** refer to the degree of a particular quality. They can express disappointment, pleasure, or other emotions depending on the adjective.
 e.g. *Actually, it was **quite** a nice meal, I am suprised.*
*He's alwats been **rather** a difficult child.* (BrE)

- (d) Other pre-determiners such as *all*, *both* do not fall into the other groups. They are used to express the entire amount.

e.g. *Jake broke **both** his legs when hiking.*

*How did you manage to read **all** these books in one week?*

23 Passive vs. Active Voice

In sentences written in the **active voice**, the subject performs the action.

In sentences written in the **passie voice**, the subject receives the action.

*I **wrote** a book.* (Active Voice)

*That book **was written** by me.* (Passive Voice)

The passive form is made up of the verb **to be** and the **past participle**. Depending on the tense, the form of the verb to be can change.

*The dinner **is being cooked**.* (Present Continuous)

*The dinner **was cooked**.* (Past simple)

*The dinner **has been cooked**.* (Present Perfect)

The passive voice is usually used:

- (a) To emphasize the action rather than the person or thing perfoming it.
 e.g. *The decision **has been made**.*
- (b) To avoid mentioning the person or thing performing the action.
 e.g. *The rumours **have been spreading** at the office.* (Either you know who spreads the rumours or you are not sure who does that.)
- (c) To describe a situation where the subject is not important.
 e.g. *Up to 7 billion trees **are being cut down** every year.*
- (d) To give instructions, set rules, etc.
 e.g. *Somking **is prohibited**.*
*Anyone under the age of 18 **is not allowed** in any bar.*

24 Conditionals

Conditionals are sentences with two clauses, a main clase and and if clause.

Conditionals state that the action in the main clause can only take place if a certain condition in the if clause is fulfilled.

***If** we don't hurry, we will be late!*

The order of the main and if clauses is not fixed. Although when the if clause precedes the main one, use a comma.

There are five main type of conditionals in English:

- (a) **Zero conditionals** are used to describe things are always or generally true. Thus we refer to the real and possible situations, general truths, or scientific facts. Zero conditionals follo the pattern:

If + present simple	Present simple
If the food is too spicy	drink milk

Table 27: Zero Conditionals Pattern

- (b) **Conditionals type 1** or first conditionals are used to describe future events that will happen or are likely to happen. These sentences are based on facts, thus we make statements about the real world or particular situation. First conditionals follow the patter:

If + present simple	future simple
If everything goes according to the plan	we'll be very rich.

Table 28: Conditionals Type 1 Pattern

- (c) **Conditionals type 2** or second conditionals are used to describe hypothetical, unlikely, or impossible situations. These sentences are not based on facts, this we can refer to any time. Second conditionals follow the patter:

If + past simple	would + V
If I won the lottery,	I would put the money in the bank.

Table 29: Conditionals Type 2 Pattern

- (d) **Conditionals type 3** or third conditionals are used to describe a past event that is different to what really happened. These sentences are solely hypothetical, thus there is always some implication of regret. Third conditionals follow the pattern:

If + past perfect	would have + Ved/past participle
If we hadn't slept in,	we wouldn't have missed our flight.

Table 30: Conditionals Type 3 Pattern

- (e) **Mixed conditionals** refer to conditional sentences that combine two different types of conditional patterns. They are used to refer to a time in the past, and a situation that is ongoing in the present. Mixed conditionals usually follow the pattern:

If + past perfect	would + V
If they had argued less,	they would be a perfect couple.

Table 31: Mixed Conditionals Pattern

24.1 Conditionals Zero Type

Zero conditionals are used to describe things that are always or generally true. Thus we refer to the real and possible situations, general truths, or scientific facts.

If two people fall in love, they become a couple. (In general, people become a couple if the fall in love each other.)

IF clause + MAIN clause	
If + present simple	+ present simple
If the temperature is above 0 degrees outside,	the snow melts .
If my friend invites me over ,	I always accept her invitation.

Table 32: Conditionals Zero Type

Use the present simple tense in both parts of the zero conditionals. Note that the order of the main and *if* clauses is not fixed. Although when the *if* clause precedes the main one, use a comma.

Note that we can use *when* instead of *if* without any changes in the meaning.

When winter comes, the birds fly to the south.

Zero conditionals are often used to give instructions. In this case, we use the imperatives in the main clause.

Call me if you need any help.
If you are not satisfied with your major, **change it**.

24.2 Conditionals Type 1

Conditionals type 1 or first conditionals are used to describe future events that will happen or are likely to happen. These sentences are based on facts, thus we make statements about the real world or particular situation.

If you don't study, you will fail the exam. (Sometimes you can pass an exam without studying, but this time it won't work.)

Use the present simple tense in the *if* clause and the future simple tense in the main clause. Note that the order of the main and **if** clauses is not fixed. Although when the **if** clause precedes the main one, use a comma.

IF clause	MAIN clause
if + present simple	future simple
If the weather is great, hiking If you don't stop fighting with each other,	we'll go to the park. you two will be grounded!

Table 33: Conditionals Type 1

Note that it is possible to use other present tenses (e.g. *present continuous*, *present perfect*) in the *if* clause.

If you're going, I'll go too! (if + present continuous, future simple)
If they've already received your information, they will let you know. (if + present perfect, future simple)

24.3 Conditionals Type 2

Conditionals type 2 or second conditionals are used to describe hypothetical, unlikely, or impossible situations. These sentences are not based on facts, thus we can refer to any time.

If Peter cleaned his place, he would let us come in.

Use the past simple tense in the *if* clause and *would + the base form of the verb* in the main clause. Note that the order of the main and *if* clauses is not fixed. Although when the *if* clause precedes the main one, use a comma.

Note that if we use the verb *to be* in the *if* clause, the form *were* is used even with the 1st and 3rd person. We often use '*if I were you...*' to express our opinion or to give advice.

IF clause	MAIN clause
if + past simple	would + V
If I won 1 million dollars,	I would give it to charity.
If you found a formal black dress,	it would look perfect on you.

Table 34: Conditionals Type 2

If I were a chef, I would work at some Italian restaurant.
If I were you, I wouldn't take that job.

Compare the first conditional and the second conditional:

(It is December right now.) *If it snows today, we will definitely make a snowman.*
 (It is May right now.) *If it snowed today, we would be surprised.*

24.4 Conditionals Type 3

Conditionals type 3 or third conditionals are used to describe a past event that is different to what really happened. These sentences are solely hypothetical, thus there is always some implication of regret.

If we hadn't booked this trip, we wouldn't have missed her graduation ceremony. (We wanted to be at her graduation ceremony but we missed it because we were on a trip somewhere else.)

Use the past perfect tense in the *if* clause and *would have + past participle* in the main clause. Note that the order of the main and *if* clauses is not fixed. Although when the *if* clause precedes the main one, use a comma.

IF clause	MAIN clause
If + past perfect	would have + Ved/past participle
If we had bought that lottery ticket,	we would have won.
If Jake hadn't drunk that night,	he wouldn't have got into the car accident.

Table 35: Conditionals Type 3

Note that both *would* and *had* can be contracted to *'d*. Remember that *would* never appears in the *if* clause.

If I had known that, I would have warned you. = *If I'd known that, I'd have warned you.*

24.5 Mixed Conditionals

Mixed conditionals refer to conditional sentences that combine two different types of conditional patterns. The mixed conditional is used to refer to a time in the past, and a situation that is ongoing in the present.

If I had won the lottery, I would buy a huge house. (I didn't win the lottery in the past and I'm living in a small apartment right now.)

The most common mixed conditional is when we have a third conditional in the *if* clause (*if + past perfect*) followed by a second conditional (*would + the base form of the verb*) in the main clause. Note that the order of the main and *if* clauses is not fixed. Although when the *if* clause precedes the main one, use a comma.

IF clause	MAIN clause
If + past perfect	would + V
If Kate had studied more,	she would have a better GPA.
If he had started painting the picture in June,	it would be finished now.

Table 36: Mixed Conditionals

The less common mixed conditional is when we have a second conditional in the *if* clause (*if + past simple*) followed by a third conditional (*would have + past participle*) in the main clause. This conditional refers to an unreal present situation and its possible (but unreal) past result.

If I weren't afraid of flying, I would have travelled by air. (I am afraid of flying in general. And that time I travelled by train.)

25 Clauses

A **clause** is a combination of words containing a subject and a predicate.

Peter goes to the gym. (one clause)
Peter goes to the gym after he finishes his work. (two clauses)

There are two types of clauses in English:

- (a) An independent (main) clause contains a subject and a predicate and expresses a finished thought. Thus it can stand alone as a sentence.
e.g. *Pam likes drawing and painting.*
Andy is currently unemployed.

Note that the independent clause is a simple sentence when dependent clauses within one sentence are absent.

- (b) A dependent (subordinate) clause gives additional information to the main sentence, thus it cannot stand alone as a separate sentence.
e.g. *Mr. Klarkson, **whose works are critically acclaimed**, has published a new book.*
*Mary started laughing **when she saw a pug wearing a costume**.*

An independent clause forms a complex sentence together with a dependent clause.

*I'd like to know **why I can't book a room at his hotel**.*
*The woman stood crying **as people were passing by**.*

25.1 Independent Clause

An **independent (main) clause** contains a subject and a predicate and expresses a finished thought. Thus it can stand alone as a sentence.

Sarah wants to study Spanish.

The independent clause is a simple sentence when dependent clauses within one sentence are absent:

I don't want to go to the pub tonight. (simple sentence)
I have to work tomorrow. (simple sentence)

The independent clause forms a complex sentence together with a dependent clause. In this case, use a conjunction.

*I don't want to go to the pub tonight **because** I have work tomorrow.* (complex sentence consisting of an independent clause and a dependent one; two clauses are connected with the help of a conjunction **because**)

Two independent clauses can form a sentence. In this case, use a semicolon (;).

*My little sister doesn't like reading; she falls asleep within 2 minutes.
Lucy has a business trip in a week; Lucy's mom will help with the kids.*

25.2 Dependent Clause

A **dependent (subordinate) clause** gives additional information to the main sentence, thus it cannot stand alone as a separate sentence.

When she comes back home after a long day at work, she likes to take a bath.

Dependent clauses can be divided into the following categories:

- (a) A **noun clause** is a dependent clause that acts as a noun, this it can be a subject, an object, or an object of a preposition in the sentence.
e.g. ***Whoever comes first** wins!*
*We don't know **who left the note at the door**.*
- (b) An **adjective clause** is a dependent clause that modifies nouns or pronouns providing additional information.
e.g. *A women **who can cook well** will become my wife.*
*Broccoli, **which not everyone likes**, are part of my daily ration.*
- (c) An **adverb clause** is a dependent clause that modifies an adjective, an adverb, or a verb/verb phrase.
e.g. *We were swimming in the ocean **when we saw the lightning**.*
*Let's eat dinner **before the food gets cold**.*

25.2.1 Noun Clause

A **noun clause** is a dependent clause that acts as a noun.

*She loves **violet**.* (noun)
*I know **that she loves violet**.* (noun clause)

A noun clause can begin with words such as *what, who, when, where, whether, which, why, how, etc.*

*I don't know **who called me**.*
*It's important to state in your application **why you want to work at the company**.*

A noun clause can act as a subject, an object, or an object of a preposition.

***Why he did this** was beyond my understanding.* (subject)
*We would like to know **whether you see yourself coming back to our resort next year**.* (object)
*She told us about **how she managed to get her intern position**.* (object of a preposition)

25.2.2 Adjective Clause

An **adjective clause** is a dependent clause that modifies nouns or pronouns providing additional information.

*The house **where we were born** was demolished last month.* (the adjective clause modifies the noun 'house')

An adjective clause can begin with words such as *that, who, whom, whose, which, when, where, and why*.

*Children **whose parents spend a lot of time with them** are bound to be happier.*

There are two types of adjective clauses:

- (a) A **restrictive (essential) adjective clause** provides information that is necessary to distinguish the modified word, thus it cannot be omitted. These clauses usually begin with *that* and are not set off with commas.
e.g. *The English course **that Ann takes** is aimed at written skills.* (There are different types of English courses, but the peculiarity of the course that Ann takes is that it is aimed at written skills.)
- (b) A **non-restrictive (non-essential) adjective clause** provides additional information, thus it can be omitted without any loss of meaning. These clauses usually begin with *which* and are always set off with commas.
e.g. *Bananas, **which I eat daily**, are packed with nutrients and vitamins.* (Bananas are very healthy. **By the way, I eat them every day.** ⇒ This additional information doesn't change the fact that bananas are healthy.)

25.2.3 Adverb Clause

An **adverb clause** is a dependent clause that modifies an adjective, an adverb, or a verb/verb phrase providing additional information.

*Give me a call **when you get home**.* (the adverb clause modifies the verb phrase)

An adverb clause can begin with words such as *after, because, since, until, when, etc.*

*We were at the beach **when it started to rain**.*
*Mike is running every day **as he is going to run a marathon in a month**.*

An adverb clause can be placed at the beginning and the end of the sentence without a change in meaning. Use a comma if the clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence.

*You should brush your teeth **before you go to bed**.*
***Before you go to bed**, you should brush your teeth.*

26 Reported Speech

When we want to tell somebody what someone else has said we can use either **direct speech** (exact words in quotation marks) or **indirect speech** (also called **reported speech**).

The latter variant is more common.

*Liz said, '**I work as a nanny**'.* (direct speech)
*Liz said that **she works as a nanny**.* (reported speech)

In reported speech the reporting verb can stay in the present simple if the original words are still true or repeated very often.

***Palm always tells me** that she is going to get a gym membership.*

If something is no longer true or happened some time ago, there is a backshift of tenses in reported speech (e.g. *we use the past simple instead of the present simple*).

Backshifht of Tenses	Direct Speech	Reported speech
present simple \Rightarrow past simple	I like this movie.	Kate told me that she liked that movie.
present continuous \Rightarrow past continuous	I'm working on the important project.	Jim said that he was working on the important project.
past simple \Rightarrow past perfect	We bought a house.	The Smiths said that they had bought a house.
present perfect \Rightarrow past perfect	I have known Mr. Ola for ages.	Peter claimed that he had known Mr. Ola for ages.
present perfect continuous \Rightarrow past perfect continuous	I have been waiting for you for an hour!	Mike complained that he had been waiting for me for an hour.
past continuous \Rightarrow past perfect continuous	We were working day and night.	They told me that they had been working day and night.
will \Rightarrow would	I will see you tomorrow!	Andrew told me that he would see me the following day.
can \Rightarrow could	Can you open this jar?	Betty asked me if I could open that jar.

Table 37: Direct Speech and Reported Speech

Note that we also need to change time/place expressions and demonstratives in reported speech.

Indirect Speech	Reported Speech
today	that day
now	then
yesterday	that day before
... days ago	... days before
last week	the week before
next year	the following year
tomorrow	the next/following day
here	there
this	that
these	those

Table 38: Indirect Speech and Reported Speech

The structure of the reported clause depends on whether we are reporting a statement, a question, or an imperative:

- (a) Statements consist of a reporting clause and a reported clause beginning with *that* (although we can omit *that* in informal speech.)

*My sister told me (**that**) she wanted to move to Chine for a year.*

- (b) yes-no questions and questions with *or* consist of a reporting clause and a reported clause beginning with *if/whether*. Note that the reported clause does not retain the word order of questions; use *if/wheter + subject + verb* instead.

*My boss asked med **if/whether** I had written the report on Thursday.*
*My boss asked me **if/wheter** I had written the report on Thursday or Friday.*

- (c) wh-questions consist of a reporting clause and a reported clause beginning with a wh-word (*who, what, when, where, why, or how*). Note that the reported clause does not retain the word order of questions; use *if/whether + subject + verb* instead.

*Jack wanted to know **what** happened to our colleague.*
*The police was investigating **who** lived in that building.*

- (d) imperatives consist of a reporting clause and a reported clause beginning with *(not) to + infinitive*.

*My mom told me **not to come home very late**. She also asked me **to buy some bread**.*

27 Common English Grammar Mistakes

27.1 Fewer vs Less

27.1.1 Fewer

Fewer refers to countable plural nouns (e.g. *apples, students, etc.*) and means 'not as many'.

***Fewer hours** are required to complete this project.
Fewer than 10 students chose Asian studies as their major this year.*

27.1.2 Less

Less refers to uncountable nouns (e.g. *water, nouse, etc.*) and means 'not as much'.

*I'd like to learn how to spend **less time** procrastinating.
Bob has just started working there, so he obviously gets paid **less**.*

Less can also be used with numbers or expressions of measurement.

*If you weight **less than 45 kilos**, you are underweight.
The cafe is **less than 1 kilometer** from here. We can simply walk there.*

27.2 Then vs Than

27.2.1 Then

Then is an adverb that can indicate a particular time in the past or future, what happens next, or the result of a situation.

*Max worked as a teacher **back then**.
Whisk eggs and sugar and **then** add flour.
If we don't call a cab, **then** we'll miss our flight.*

27.2.2 Than

Than is a conjunction and it is used to compare one thing with another. It can be part of an expression (e.g. *rather...than, no sooner...than, etc.*)

*Molly is taller **than** Ashley.// It's still better **than** being unemployed.
I'd **rather** hang out with them **than** stay alone at my place.*

27.3 There vs Their vs They're

27.3.1 There

There is used as a pronoun introducing a sentence or clause. **There** can also be used as an adverb in the meaning 'the opposite of here'.

***There is** a present for you!
There are ten studens at my class.
Can you see the man standing **there**?*

27.3.2 Their

Their is the possessive adjective for *they*. It is used to denote that something belongs to *them*.

*I haven't expected this to be **their** idea! **They** certainly put a lot of thought into it.
They have been happily married for 12 years. **Their** children are like angels.*

27.3.3 They're

They're is a contraction of they are.

***They're** on their way back = **They are** on their way back.*

*My parents are retired now, so **they're** thinking of moving to the countryside. = My parents are retired now, so **they are** thinking of moving to the countryside.*

27.4 To vs Too vs Two

27.4.1 To

To is a preposition. It can either precede a noun or a verb (indicating the infinitive).

*I need **to** go **to** the supermarket **to** buy some groceries.*

*My sister needs **to** find the cafe on the Internet before she decides **to** go there.*

27.4.2 Too

Too is an adverb. If it is placed at the end of the sentence, it means 'also'. If it precedes an adjective or an adverb, it indicates 'more than the necessary amount or excessive'.

*Are you going to the bar? I want to go **too**! (=I also want to go!)*

*This apartment is **too** expensive. We can't afford it. (=We don't have the funds to rent it.)*

27.4.3 Two

Two is a number.

***Two** cups of coffee, please.*

*We'll back in **two** weeks.*

27.5 Your vs You're

27.5.1 Your

Your is the possessive adjective for *you*. It is used to denote that something belongs to you.

***Your** hair is gorgeous! What is **your** hair routine?*

*I haven't expected that **your** working late would put a strain on **your** relationship with Dereck.*

27.5.2 You're

You're is a contraction of *you are*.

***You're** such a kind person! = **You are** such a kind person!*

*If **you're** free this weekend, I would appreciate your help. = If **you are** free this weekend. I would appreciate your help.*

27.6 Its vs It's

27.6.1 Its

Its is the possessive adjective for *it*.

*This cat is unbelievably cute. Look at **its** tail!*

*The hike and **its** stunning views attracted many people.*

27.6.2 It's

It's is a contraction of *it is*.

*I love cooking! **It's** very time-consuming though. = I love cooking! **It is** very time-consuming though.*

***It's** a beautiful Sunday morning. = **It is** a beautiful Sunday morning.*