# ENGLISH NOTES

From A1 to C2

EDITED BY

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 $\begin{tabular}{ll} My\ notes\ from\\ Langpill\ english\ grammar\ course\ from\ Udemy,\ and\ internet \end{tabular}$ 

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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 LATEX 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**).

You can buy a **Common noun** Proper noun **Proper noun** 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  $\Rightarrow \underline{\text{Noun} + S}$ , to get the plural form e.g. cat-cats, dog-dogs, pencil-pencils
- Singular noun ending in  $\underline{s}$ ,  $\underline{ss}$ ,  $\underline{sh}$ ,  $\underline{ch}$ ,  $\underline{rs}$ ,  $\underline{o+es}$ ,  $\Rightarrow$  Plural form e.g.  $\underline{tax-taxes}$ ,  $\underline{bus-buses}$ ,  $\underline{box-boxes}$
- In some cases, singular nouns ending in  $\underline{s}$  or  $\underline{z}$   $\Rightarrow$  Double s or z e.g fez-fezzes, gas-gasses
- Noun ending in  $\underline{f, fe} \Rightarrow$  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 <u>consonant</u>  $\Rightarrow$  Change the ending to *ies* e.g. *city-cities*, *puppy-puppies*
- Noun ending in y and the letter before is a <u>vowel</u>  $\Rightarrow$  Add s e.g. ray-rays, boy-boys
- Noun ending in  $o \Rightarrow \text{Add } es$ e.g. potato-potatoes, tomato-tomatoes (Exceptions: photo-photos, piano-pianos, halo-halos
- Noun ending in us ⇒ 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 <u>don't change</u> 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 wold. (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 <b>can be counted</b> , even if the number might be extremely high ( e.g. all the people in the world).	Things that we <b>cannot count</b> with numbers.  They may be the names for abstract ideas or qualities or for physical objects that are too small to count or shapeless ( e.g. liquids, gases, etc.).	
Can be singular or plural.  I have an apple and you have three apples.	No plural form.  We're goint to have <b>rice</b> for lunch.	
You can use $a/an$ with singular countable nouns.  There is $a$ girl outside. She is wearing $a$ beautiful dress.	You can't use $a/an$ with uncountable nouns. But you can often use the phrase $a$ (bag, cup, etc.) of. There is $a$ bowl of rice and $a$ bottle of juice on the table.	
If you want to ask about the quantity of a countable noun, you ask 'How many?' combined with the plural countable noun.  How many dogs are there? - There are five dogs.	If you want to ask about the quantity of an uncountable noun, you ask 'How much?' combined with the uncountable noun.  How much coffee do we have left? - We don't have much coffee left.	
You can use many, a few, few with plural countable nouns.  Sorry, but I didn't take many pictures.  I've got a few relatives leaving here.	You can use much, a little, little with uncountable nouns.  We didn't do much shopping there.  We have a little sugar left.	
You can use some, any, a lot of, both with pl	lural countable nouns and uncountable nouns.	
We like singing some crazy songs at karaoke.	We listened to some music there.	
Did you buy any oranges?	I didn't buy any orange juice.	
She showed a lot of signs of affection.	There is a lot of love in the air.	

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.

 $\begin{array}{cc} \text{(Concrete noun)} & \text{(abstract noun)} \\ & child & child \boldsymbol{hood} \end{array}$ 

Nouns with the following suffixes are often abstract:

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

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/anDefinite: 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:

- a) Nationalities and other groups e.g. *the* French, *the* Italians, *the* old, *the* poor.
- b) Time
  e.g. in the past, in the future (but: at present.)
- c) 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. (W 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

**Distributives 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 par 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 call 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 it 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, the are adjectives and adjectival phrases that give approximate or specific answers to the questions 'How much?' and 'How many?'

 $egin{aligned} \textit{Most} \textit{ children start school at the age of five.} \\ \textit{I ate some } \textit{rice}. \\ \textit{There are } \textit{a lot of dogs}. \end{aligned}$ 

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 have (very) few toys.	We have (very) little coffee left.
$\mathbf{a} \mathbf{few} = \mathbf{some} \mathbf{or} \mathbf{enough}$	$\mathbf{a} \ \mathbf{little} = \mathbf{some} \ \mathbf{or} \ \mathbf{enough}$
I have a few examples to show	I have a little coffee left but I can make me a cup of coffee

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 conjugates. To conjugate something is to change a verb's form to express a different meaning.

 $I'm \ a \ student. \ (1^{st} \ person, singular, present simple, indicative mood)$ 

## 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.

	Prese	ent	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 ⇒ 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	he/she/it is they are		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 (firth, 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 (1<sup>st</sup> person), my brother is a pupil (3<sup>rd</sup> person), and you are a teacher (2<sup>nd</sup> 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  ${\it I}$  will  ${\it do}$  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 <u>formal situations</u> (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 ⇒ double cons + -ing e.g. knit-knitting, swim-swimming
- -ie ⇒ -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 ⇒ double cons + -ing e.g. sit-sitting, swim, swimming
- Verb ending in -ie ⇒ -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 by 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  $\mathbf{Was/were} + \mathbf{Verb} - \mathbf{ing} \quad \mathbf{wasn't/weren't} + \mathbf{Verb} - \mathbf{ing}$ 

## 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 <u>continuous tenses!</u> 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

## 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 ocurrence 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 preset. 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 preset.e.g. Peter has ready 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 5<sup>th</sup>.

#### 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 (part 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 <u>deadline is not mentioned</u>, 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 <u>not used</u> 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 <b>comes</b> soon.	At last the bus came. We'd been	
We've been waiting for 30 minutes.	waiting for 30 minutes.	
Lilly is out of breath.	Lilly was out of breath. She had	
She has been running.	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 <u>not used</u> 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 <u>not used</u> 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  ${f to}$  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 <u>auxiliary verbs</u> (also known as <u>helping verbs</u>). 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  $\mathbf{can}$  has only two forms: can(present) and could(past). We use:

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

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  $\underline{-ed}$ .

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
ſ	a	big	old	round		wooden		table
ſ			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 partiular 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) Compund adjectives are created when two words are combined to create a descriptive adjective. The two words are typically connectes 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
	Не	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 boujfriend. Her boujfriend 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 comparitive 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	This is the tallest
	than that one.	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 + comparitive 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 mostl 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:

- (a) Verbs, telling how, how often, when, or where something was done. e.g. The cars drove fast.
- (b) Adjectives, making them stronger or weaker. e.g. Ann looked absolutely amazing.
- (c) 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 ⇒ 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 realted 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 ther 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 placed 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 nnotices 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 sentece, 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.

Frequency	Adverb of Frequency	Example
100%	always	Sarah always helps her mom with dinner.
90%	usually	We <b>usually</b> go out on Fridays.
80%	normally/generally	Shaun <b>normally</b> eats breakfast at 8 a.m.
70%	often/frequently	They often go to their parents at weekends.
50%	sometimes	Peter <b>sometimes</b> forgets his kids' birthdays.
30%	occasionally	I occasionally eat vegetarion food.
10%	seldom	We <b>seldom</b> go on vacation together.

We are usually optimistic.

Table 24: Adverbs of Frequency

They **never** eat junk food.

We can also use the following expressions when we want to be more specific about the frequency: every day, once a month, twice a yer, 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

0%

Adverbs of degree tell us about the intensity of something. They are usually placed befor 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 adverbs meaning 'to the necessary degree' goes after the adjective or adverbs that it is modifying.

 $This\ bed\ isn't\ comfortable\ {\it enough}.$ 

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

never

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 comparision: **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	She eats the most
	than we do	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 consiste of one, two or more words.

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

There was a huge traffic jam in fron 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 maner 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 metting 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. (adress)

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 insed 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 midnitgh

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 clase.

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 conjuntions** link two clauses, a main (independent) one and a subordinate (dependent) one.

The most commonly used subordinating conjuntions are although, as, because, if, though, unless, etc.

e.g. She won't speak with her parents unless they apologise first.

(b) Correlative conjuntions connect two equal grammatical items.

These conjuntions 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 conjuntions** are phrases which are used as conjuntions. A compound conjuntion 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 conjuntions are used to link words, phrases, and clauses of equal impotance in a sentence.

There are seven coordinating conjuntions: 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 conjuntions. Among them there are coordinating conjuntions.

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 conjuntions: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so (you can remember them with the help of the acronym FANBOYS)

They could't afford to rent the apartment, **for** it was to 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 conjuntions 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 conjuntions are: although, as, because, if, since, though, unless, while, whereas, etc.

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

[Once she stopped caring about strangers opinions], [Liz becam 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 order I'll mommy!

These conjuntions come in pairs: either...or, neither...nor, not only...but also, rather...than, etc. When using correlative conjuntions, pay attention to the subjec-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 Compund Conjunctions

**Compund conjuntions** are phrases which are used as conjuntions. A compound conjuntion has two or three words that go together, so that, as long as, even though, etc.

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

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

Compare the sentences:

Beth likes painting **as well as** drawing. Beth think thay you can be good **either** at painting **or** at drawing.

There are several commonly used compound conjuntions:

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 inmediately opened the windows.)

The kid sang so loudly **as if/as though** there was no one in the room. (The kids sand 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 distrub 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 conjuntions are other parts of speech that act like conjuntions:

- (a) Adverbial conjuntions (also called conjuctive adverbs) are used to indicate a relationship between sentences and independet clauses by comparing or contrating ideas (e.g. consequently, finally, however, otherwise, then ,etc.) We usually use commas to separate an adverbial conjuntion from the rest of the sentences
  - e.g. Jhon's mom wanted him to go to college. **Instead**, he took a gap year and travelled around the world.
- (b) **Nominal conjuntions** introduce or conclude ideas (e.g. *the moment, the instant, etc.*) Nominal conjuntions function as nouns in a sentence.
  - e.g. I was petrified the moment I heard the news.
- (c) Verbal conjuntions are used to introduce additional information in a sentence (e.g. assuming (that), given (that), etc.) Verbal conjuntions are deriven 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 no 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 did'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 laugther 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 int 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** and 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 emothins.

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 varb **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 avery 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 Enlgish:

(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 ongoin 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 <b>accept</b> 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 fiex, 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 clasue.

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,	we'll go to the park.
hiking If you don't stop fighting with each other,	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 use 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 clauses 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  $1^{st}$  and  $3^{rd}$  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 ere on a trp 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 know 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	$\operatorname{would} + \operatorname{V}$
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.)