

English Grammar (for Beginners)

English Grammar

Level I

Parts of Speech :

Noun

A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.

Common Nouns and Proper Nouns

Common nouns refer to common, everyday things.

The **dog** sleeps in her own **bed**.

His **friend** is crazy about **popcorn**.

My **cousin** went to **college**.

A proper noun refers to specific things that are unique or have names. Proper nouns begin with capital letters.

My friend **Miranda** is from **Wyoming**.

In 2001 **Halloween** falls on a **Wednesday**.

Most **Ecuadorians** practice **Christianity**.

Concrete Nouns and Abstract Nouns

A concrete noun names something you can experience with at least one of your senses (sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell). Most nouns are concrete nouns.

My **ice** melted in the **sun**.

Darrel's **kitten** tore apart the **yarn**.

Thunder rattled our **windows**.

An abstract noun names something you cannot experience with your senses. Sometimes abstract nouns are called "idea nouns."

Sandra's **courage** and **curiosity** made her a good explorer.

It's important to have **respect** in a **friendship**.

Honesty is usually the best **policy**.

Pronoun

A pronoun is used in place of a noun or nouns. Common pronouns include he, her, him, I, it, me, she, them, they, us, and we. Here are some examples:

INSTEAD OF: Luma is a good athlete.

She is a good athlete. (The pronoun she replaces Luma.)

INSTEAD OF: The beans and tomatoes are fresh-picked.

They are fresh-picked. (The pronoun they replaces the beans and tomatoes.)

Often a pronoun takes the place of a particular noun. This noun is known as the antecedent.

A pronoun "refers to," or directs your thoughts toward, its antecedent.

Let's call **Luma** and ask **her** to join the team. (Her is a pronoun; Luma is its antecedent.)

To find a pronoun's antecedent, ask yourself what that pronoun refers to. What does her refer to in the sentence above—that is, who is the her? The her in the sentence is Luma; therefore, Luma is the antecedent.

Subjective Pronouns

A subjective pronoun acts as the subject of a sentence—it performs the action of the verb. The subjective pronouns are he, I, it, she, they, we, and you.

He spends ages looking out the window.

After lunch, **she** and **I** went to the planetarium.

Objective Pronouns

An objective pronoun acts as the object of a sentence—it receives the action of the verb. The objective pronouns are her, him, it, me, them, us, and you.

Cousin Eldred gave **me** a trombone.

Take a picture of **him**, not **us**!

Possessive Pronouns

A possessive pronoun tells you who owns something. The possessive pronouns are hers, his, its, mine, ours, theirs, and yours.

The red basket is **mine**.

Yours is on the coffee table.

Demonstrative Pronouns

A demonstrative pronoun points out a noun. The demonstrative pronouns are that, these, this, and those.

That is a good idea.

These are hilarious cartoons.

A demonstrative pronoun may look like a demonstrative adjective, but it is used differently in a sentence: it acts as a pronoun, taking the place of a noun.

Interrogative Pronouns

An interrogative pronoun is used in a question. It helps to ask about something. The interrogative pronouns are what, which, who, whom, and compound words ending in "ever," such as whatever, whichever, whoever, and whomever.

What on earth is that?

Who ate the last Fig Newton?

An interrogative pronoun may look like an interrogative adjective, but it is used differently in a sentence: it acts as a pronoun, taking the place of a noun

Indefinite Pronouns

An indefinite pronoun refers to an indefinite, or general, person or thing. Indefinite pronouns include all, any, both, each, everyone, few, many, neither, none, nothing, several, some, and somebody.

Something smells good.

Many like salsa with their chips.

An indefinite pronoun may look like an indefinite adjective, but it is used differently in a sentence: it acts as a pronoun, taking the place of a noun.

Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun introduces a clause, or part of a sentence, that describes a noun. The relative pronouns are that, which, who, and whom.

You should bring the book **that** you love most.

That introduces "you love most," which describes the book.

Hector is a photographer **who** does great work.

Who introduces "does great work," which describes Hector.

Reflexive Pronouns

A reflexive pronoun refers back to the subject of a sentence. The reflexive pronouns are herself, himself, itself, myself, ourselves, themselves, and yourselves. Each of these words can also act as an intensive pronoun (see below).

I learned a lot about **myself** at summer camp. (Myself refers back to I.)

They should divide the berries among **themselves**. (Themselves refers back to they.)

Intensive Pronouns

An intensive pronoun emphasizes its antecedent (the noun that comes before it). The intensive pronouns are herself, himself, itself, myself, ourselves, themselves, and yourselves. Each of these words can also act as a reflective pronoun (see above).

I **myself** don't like eggs.

The queen **herself** visited our class.

Verb

A verb tells about an action or a state of being. There are three types of verbs: action, linking, and auxiliary.

Action Verbs

An action verb expresses action. It tells what a person or a thing does.

Muskrats **swim** in marshes.

We **built** a fantastic sandcastle.

To find out whether a word is an action verb, ask yourself whether that word expresses something you can do. Can you muskrat? No! Can you marsh? No. But can you swim? Yes—swim is an action verb.

Linking Verbs

A linking verb links the subject of the sentence with information about it. Sometimes linking verbs are called "state-of-being verbs."

Jeremy **is** tired.

This apple **tastes** so sweet.

In the first sentence, is links Jeremy to information about him—the fact that he is tired. That is his state of being.

In the second sentence, tastes links apple to information about it—its sweetness. Did you think taste was an action verb? Well, it is—when the subject is doing the tasting. But here, the apple isn't doing any tasting. The apple itself tastes sweet. That is its state of being.

Auxiliary Verbs

An auxiliary verb goes with another verb. Sometimes auxiliary verbs are called "helping verbs" because they introduce or "help out" the main verb.

Ms. Sothros **is** reading our stories.

We **should** dig for buried treasure.

In the first sentence, the auxiliary verb, is, helps out the main verb, reading, by telling when the action is taking place—right now.

In the second sentence, the auxiliary verb, should, helps out the main verb, dig, by telling about its importance—digging must be important, if it is something that should happen.

Note that you can't is or should. This reminds you that they are not action verbs.

Be, have, and do are the most common auxiliary verbs. Other common auxiliary verbs include can, could, should, would, may, might, and must.

Check Its Function!

In English, the same word can have different functions. For instance, paint can be a verb or a noun. Here are some examples.

Let's **paint** the garage.

We brought **paint** to school.

In the first sentence, paint is a verb—it is something you can do. In the second sentence, paint is a noun—it is a thing.

Our rabbits **live** in a hutch.

Luis sang before a **live** audience.

In the first sentence, live is a verb—it is something you can do. In the second sentence, live is an adjective—it describes something.

Smile, dance, contact, ski, color, and research are just a few of the many other English words that can have different functions.

Adverb

An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. In this case, "modifies" means "tells more about." An adverb tells more about how the verb is being done. Many adverbs end in "-ly."

Susan writes **quickly** and **well**.

Herbie will visit **tomorrow**.

Let's go **home**.

That was a **very** funny joke.

Adverbs can answer questions like these: "How?" (quickly and well) "When?" (tomorrow) "Where?" (home) "To what extent?" (very funny)

Interrogative Adverbs

An interrogative adverb asks a question. The interrogative adverbs are how, when, where, and why.

How did you get here?

Where are you going next?

Conjunctive Adverbs

A conjunctive adverb joins two ideas. It can give emphasis to one of the ideas, or answer the question "How are they related?" Some common conjunctive adverbs are besides, however, indeed, moreover, nevertheless, otherwise, and therefore.

I am allergic to cats; **nevertheless**, I love them.

It might rain later; **therefore**, we should pack our umbrellas.

A semicolon is used before a conjunctive adverb, and a comma is used after it.

Adjective

An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun. In this case, "modifies" means "tells more about."

Adjectives are words that describe things.

I planted **orange** flowers in the **round** pot.

The **long-eared** rabbit nibbled the **little** carrots.

Adjectives can answer the question "What kind?" (orange flowers; little carrots)

Possessive Adjectives

A possessive adjective modifies a noun by telling whom it belongs to. It answers the question "Whose?" Possessive adjectives include his, her, its, my, our, their, and your.

You can share **my** rice.

Have you seen **their** house?

Demonstrative Adjectives

The demonstrative adjectives that, these, this, those, and what answer the question "Which?"

I'm going to open **that** present.

Those socks look warm.

A demonstrative adjective may look like a demonstrative pronoun, but it is used differently in the sentence: it is an adjective, used to modify a noun or pronoun

Interrogative Adjectives

The interrogative adjectives what and which are used in a question. They help to ask about something.

What movie do you want to see?

Which leaves turn color first?

An interrogative adjective may look like an interrogative pronoun, but it is used differently in the sentence: it is an adjective, used to modify a noun or pronoun.

Indefinite Adjectives

An indefinite adjective gives indefinite, or general, information. Often, it answers the question "How much?" Some common indefinite adjectives are all, any, each, every, few, many, and some.

Many children like dinosaurs.

Did you want **some** bananas?

An indefinite adjective may look like an indefinite pronoun, but it is used differently in the sentence: it is an adjective, used to modify a noun or pronoun.

Conjunction

Conjunctions connect words or groups of words.

Coordinating Conjunctions

A coordinating conjunction is a word that connects two words or two groups of words that are used in the same way—that is, they are the same part of speech or they are grammatically alike. The coordinating conjunctions are and, but, for, nor, or, so, and yet.

Do you want to play checkers **or** cards?

We're going to be Calvin **and** Hobbes this Halloween.

Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are always used in pairs. They connect two words or two groups of words that are used in the same way—that is, they are the same part of speech or they are grammatically alike. They include both . . . and; either . . . or; neither . . . nor; not only . . . but; and whether . . . or.

Both Andy **and** Rex are coming to dinner.

I would like **either** a red marker **or** an orange marker.

Subordinating Conjunctions

A subordinating conjunction is a word that connects two groups of words that are not used in the same way—that is, they are not the same part of speech and they are not grammatically alike. Some common subordinating conjunctions are after, because, before, how, if, since, than, though, until, when, where, and while.

Bobby played in the park **until** it got dark.

The movie was funnier **than** I had expected.

Sometimes a subordinating conjunction comes at the beginning of a sentence.

Since you are here, let's rehearse.

After Margaret had lunch, she took a nap

Interjection

An interjection expresses an emotion. It might show excitement or surprise.

Wow! That is a giant pumpkin!

Ouch, you stepped on my toe!

Yippee! We won!

Whoa! Hold your horses!

Bravo, you did a great job!

An interjection often appears at the beginning of a sentence. It is usually followed by an exclamation point or a comma.

Prepositions

A preposition links a noun, pronoun, or phrase to another part of a sentence. Because many prepositions show direction, some say that "a preposition is anywhere a cat can go."

The cat walked **across** the couch.

The cat leaned **against** the couch.

The cat strolled **along** the couch.

The cat sneaked **around** the couch.
The cat leapt **at** the couch.
The cat crept **behind** the couch.
The cat hid **below** the couch.
The cat scampered **beneath** the couch.
The cat leaned **beside** the couch.
The cat tip-toed **by** the couch.
The cat crawled **inside** the couch.
The cat strutted **near** the couch.
The cat jumped **off** the couch.
The cat marched **over** the couch.
The cat rambled **past** the couch.
The cat plodded **to** the couch.
The cat stalked **toward** the couch.
The cat wiggled **underneath** the couch.
The cat settled **upon** the couch.
The cat snuggled **within** the couch.

A preposition leads to an object, which is the part of the sentence that receives the action of the verb. The preposition also tells how the object is related to the rest of the sentence.

The cat walked **across** the couch.

The couch is the object, because it receives the action of the verb—the walking. The preposition, across, tells how the couch is related to the rest of the sentence. It links the fact that the cat walked with information about where it walked: across the couch.

Prepositions can help show not just where something took place, but how and when. Besides the ones listed above, some common prepositions are about, after, among, between, beyond, but, despite, during, for, of, since, through, until, and without.

English Grammar Terms

Active Voice

In the active voice, the subject of the verb does the action (eg They killed the President). See also Passive Voice.

Adjective

A word like big, red, easy, French etc. An adjective describes a noun or pronoun.

Adverb

A word like slowly, quietly, well, often etc. An adverb modifies a verb.

Article

The "indefinite" articles are a and an. The "definite article" is the.

Auxiliary Verb

A verb that is used with a main verb. Be, do and have are auxiliary verbs. Can, may, must etc are modal auxiliary verbs.

Clause

A group of words containing a subject and its verb (for example: It was late when he arrived).

Conjunction

A word used to connect words, phrases and clauses (for example: and, but, if).

Infinitive

The basic form of a verb as in to work or work.

Interjection

An exclamation inserted into an utterance without grammatical connection (for example: oh!, ah!, ouch!, well!).

Modal Verb

An auxiliary verb like can, may, must etc that modifies the main verb and expresses possibility, probability etc. It is also called "modal auxiliary verb".

Noun

A word like table, dog, teacher, America etc. A noun is the name of an object, concept, person or place. A "concrete noun" is something you can see or touch like a person or car. An "abstract noun" is something that you cannot see or touch like a decision or happiness. A "countable noun" is something that you can count (for example: bottle, song, dollar). An "uncountable noun" is something that you cannot count (for example: water, music, money).

Object

In the active voice, a noun or its equivalent that receives the action of the verb. In the

passive voice, a noun or its equivalent that does the action of the verb.

Participle

The -ing and -ed forms of verbs. The -ing form is called the "present participle". The -ed form is called the "past participle" (for irregular verbs, this is column 3).

Part Of Speech

One of the eight classes of word in English - noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction and interjection.

Passive Voice

In the passive voice, the subject receives the action of the verb (eg The President was killed). See also Active Voice.

Phrase

A group of words not containing a subject and its verb (eg on the table, the girl in a red dress).

Predicate

Each sentence contains (or implies) two parts: a subject and a predicate. The predicate is what is said about the subject.

Preposition

A word like at, to, in, over etc. Prepositions usually come before a noun and give information about things like time, place and direction.

Pronoun

A word like I, me, you, he, him, it etc. A pronoun replaces a noun.

Sentence

A group of words that express a thought. A sentence conveys a statement, question, exclamation or command. A sentence contains or implies a subject and a predicate. In simple terms, a sentence must contain a verb and (usually) a subject. A sentence starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (.), question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!).

Subject

Every sentence contains (or implies) two parts: a subject and a predicate. The subject is the

main noun (or equivalent) in a sentence about which something is said.

Tense

The form of a verb that shows us when the action or state happens (past, present or future). Note that the name of a tense is not always a guide to when the action happens. The "present continuous tense", for example, can be used to talk about the present or the future.

Verb

A word like (to) work, (to) love, (to) begin. A verb describes an action or state.

Tenses

Simple Present Tense

How do we make the Simple Present Tense?

Structure : subject + auxiliary verb + main verb

There are three important **exceptions**:

1. For positive sentences, we do not normally use the auxiliary.
2. For the 3rd person singular (he, she, it), we add s to the main verb or es to the auxiliary.
3. For the verb to be, we do not use an auxiliary, even for questions and negatives.

Look at these examples with the main verb like:

subject **auxiliary verb** **main verb**

I, you, we, they _____ like _____ coffee.

He, she, it _____ likes _____ coffee.

- I, you, we, they _____ do not like _____ coffee.

He, she, it _____ does not like _____ coffee.

? Do I, you, we, they _____ like _____ coffee?

Does he, she, it _____ like _____ coffee?

Look at these examples with the main verb be. Notice that there is no auxiliary:

subject **main verb**

I _____ am French.

You, we, they _____ are French.

He, she, it _____ is French.

- I _____ am not old.

You, we, they _____ are not old.

He, she, it _____ is not old.
? Am I _____ late?
Are you, we, they ___ late?
Is he, she, it _____ late?

How do we use the Simple Present Tense?

We use the simple present tense when:

- * the action is general
- * the action happens all the time, or habitually, in the past, present and future
- * the action is not only happening now
- * the statement is always true

Examples :

1. John drives a taxi.

It is John's job to drive a taxi. He does it every day. Past, present and future.

Look at these examples:

I live in New York.
The Moon goes round the Earth.
John drives a taxi.
He does not drive a bus.
We do not work at night.
Do you play football?

Note that with the verb to be, we can also use the simple present tense for situations that are not general. We can use the simple present tense to talk about now. Look at these examples of the verb "to be" in the simple present tense—some of them are general, some of them are now:

Am I right?
Tara is not at home.
You are happy.
(The situation is now.)
I am not fat.
Why are you so beautiful?
Ram is tall.
(The situation is general. Past, present and future.)

Present Continuous Tense

How do we make the Present Continuous Tense?

I am living with my sister until I find an apartment.

Present continuous tense for the future

We can also use the present continuous tense to talk about the future—if we add a future word!! We must add (or understand from the context) a future word. "Future words" include, for example, tomorrow, next year, in June, at Christmas etc. We only use the present continuous tense to talk about the future when we have planned to do something before we speak. We have already made a decision and a plan before speaking.

I am taking my exam next month.

Look at these examples:

We're eating in a restaurant tonight. We've already booked the table..

They can play tennis with you tomorrow. They're not working.

When are you starting your new job?

Present Perfect Tense

How do we make the Present Perfect Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the present perfect tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb + main verb (3rd form)

Here are some examples of the present perfect tense:

subject auxiliary verb main verb

+ ___ I _____ have _____ seen ET.

+ ___ You _____ have _____ eaten mine.

- ___ She _____ has not _____ been to Rome.

- ___ We _____ have not _____ played football.

? ___ Have you _____ finished?

? ___ Have they _____ done it?

Contractions with the present perfect tense

When we use the present perfect tense in speaking, we usually contract the subject and auxiliary verb. We also sometimes do this when we write.

I have (I've)

You have (You've)

He has

She has

It has

John has
The car has He's
She's
It's
John's
The car's
We have (We've)
They have (They've)

examples:

I've finished my work.
John's seen ET.
They've gone home.

How do we use the Present Perfect Tense?

This tense is called the present perfect tense. There is always a connection with the past and with the present. There are basically three uses for the present perfect tense:

1. experience
2. change
3. continuing situation

Present perfect tense for experience

We often use the present perfect tense to talk about experience from the past. We are not interested in when you did something. We only want to know if you did it:

I have seen ET.
He has lived in Bangkok.
Have you been there?
We have never eaten caviar.

Connection with past: the event was in the past.

Connection with present: in my head, now, I have a memory of the event; I know something about the event; I have experience of it.

Present perfect tense for change

We also use the present perfect tense to talk about a change or new information:

I have bought a car.
John has broken his leg.
Has the price gone up?
The police have arrested the killer.

Present perfect tense for continuing situation

We often use the present perfect tense to talk about a continuing situation. This is a state that started in the past and continues in the present (and will probably continue into the future). This is a state (not an action). We usually use for or since with this structure.

I have worked here since June.
He has been ill for 2 days.
How long have you known Tara?

Connection with past: the situation started in the past.

Connection with present: the situation continues in the present.

Present Perfect Continuous Tense

How do we make the Present Perfect Continuous Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the present perfect continuous tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb + auxiliary verb + main verb (ing form)

Here are some examples of the present perfect continuous tense:

subject	auxiliary verb	auxiliary verb	main verb
----------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	------------------

+ ___ I _____ have _____ been _____ waiting for one hour.

+ ___ You _____ have _____ been _____ talking too much.

- ___ It _____ has not _____ been _____ raining.

- ___ We _____ have not _____ been _____ playing football.

? ___ Have you _____ been _____ seeing her?

? ___ Have they _____ been _____ doing their homework?

Contractions

When we use the present perfect continuous tense in speaking, we often contract the subject and the first auxiliary. We also sometimes do this in informal writing.

I have been I've been
You have been You've been
He has been
She has been
It has been

John has been
The car has been He's been
She's been
It's been
John's been
The car's been
We have been We've been
They have been They've been

Here are some examples:

I've been reading.
The car's been giving trouble.
We've been playing tennis for two hours.

How do we use the Present Perfect Continuous Tense?

This tense is called the present perfect continuous tense. There is usually a connection with the present or now. There are basically two uses for the present perfect continuous tense:

1. An action that has just stopped or recently stopped

We use the present perfect continuous tense to talk about an action that started in the past and stopped recently. There is usually a result now

I'm tired because I've been running.

I'm tired [now] because I've been running.
Why is the grass wet [now]? Has it been raining?
You don't understand [now] because you haven't been listening.

2. An action continuing up to now

We use the present perfect continuous tense to talk about an action that started in the past and is continuing now. This is often used with for or since.

I have been reading for 2 hours.

I have been reading for 2 hours. [I am still reading now.]
We've been studying since 9 o'clock. [We're still studying now.]
How long have you been learning English? [You are still learning now.]
We have not been smoking. [And we are not smoking now.]

For and Since with Present Perfect Continuous Tense

We often use for and since with the present perfect tense.

We use for to talk about a period of time—5 minutes, 2 weeks, 6 years.

We use since to talk about a point in past time—9 o'clock, 1st January, Monday.

Here are some examples:

I have been studying for 3 hours.

I have been watching TV since 7pm.

Tara hasn't been feeling well for 2 weeks.

Tara hasn't been visiting us since March.

He has been playing football for a long time.

He has been living in Bangkok since he left school.

Simple Past Tense

The simple past tense is sometimes called the preterite tense. We can use several tenses to talk about the past, but the simple past tense is the one we use most often

How do we make the Simple Past Tense?

To make the simple past tense, we use:

- past form only
- or

- auxiliary did + base form

Here you can see examples of the past form and base form for irregular verbs and regular verbs:

	<u>V1 base</u>	<u>V2 past</u>	<u>V3 past participle</u>
regular	work	worked	Worked
verb	explode	exploded	exploded
	like	liked	liked

The past form for all regular verbs ends in -ed.

irregular go went gone

verb _____ see _____ saw _____ seen
_____ sing _____ sang _____ sung

The past form for irregular verbs is variable. You need to learn it by heart.

You do not need the past participle form to make the simple past tense. It is shown here for completeness only.

Quote:

The structure for positive sentences in the simple past tense is:

subject + main verb (past form)

Quote:

The structure for negative sentences in the simple past tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb + not + main verb (base form)

Quote:

The structure for question sentences in the simple past tense is:

auxiliary verb + subject + main verb (base form)

The auxiliary verb did is not conjugated. It is the same for all persons (I did, you did, he did etc). And the base form and past form do not change. Look at these examples with the main verbs go and work:

subject auxiliary verb main verb

+ ___ I _____ went to school.
___ You _____ worked very hard.
- ___ She _____ did not _____ go with me.
___ We _____ did not _____ work yesterday.
? ___ Did you _____ go to London?
___ Did they _____ work at home?

Exception! The verb to be is different. We conjugate the verb to be (I was, you were, he/she/it was, we were, they were); and we do not use an auxiliary for negative and question sentences. To make a question, we exchange the subject and verb. Look at these examples:

subject main verb

+ ___ I, he/she/it _____ was here.
____ You, we, they ___ were in London.
- ___ I, he/she/it _____ was not there.
____ You, we, they _____ were not happy.
? ___ Was I, he/she/it _____ right?
____ Were you, we, they ___ late?

How do we use the Simple Past Tense?

We use the simple past tense to talk about an action or a situation—an event—in the past. The event can be short or long.

Here are some short events with the simple past tense:

The car exploded at 9.30am yesterday.
She went to the door.
We did not hear the telephone.
Did you see that car?

Here are some long events with the simple past tense:

I lived in Bangkok for 10 years.
The Jurassic period lasted about 62 million years.
We did not sing at the concert.
Did you watch TV last night?

Notice that it does not matter how long ago the event is: it can be a few minutes or seconds in the past, or millions of years in the past. Also it does not matter how long the event is. It can be a few milliseconds (car explosion) or millions of years (Jurassic period). We use the simple past tense when:

- the event is in the past
- the event is completely finished
- we say (or understand) the time and/or place of the event

Quote:

In general, if we say the time or place of the event, we must use the simple past tense; we cannot use the present perfect.

Here are some more examples:

I lived in that house when I was young.
He didn't like the movie.
What did you eat for dinner?

John drove to London on Monday.
Mary did not go to work yesterday.
Did you play tennis last week?
I was at work yesterday.
We were not late (for the train).
Were you angry?

Note that when we tell a story, we usually use the simple past tense. We may use the past continuous tense to "set the scene", but we almost always use the simple past tense for the action. Look at this example of the beginning of a story:

"The wind was howling around the hotel and the rain was pouring down. It was cold. The door opened and James Bond entered. He took off his coat, which was very wet, and ordered a drink at the bar. He sat down in the corner of the lounge and quietly drank his..."

Past Continuous Tense

The past continuous tense is an important tense in English. We use it to say what we were in the middle of doing at a particular moment in the past.

How do we make the Past Continuous Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the past continuous tense is:
subject + auxiliary verb BE (simple past) + main verb (ing form)

For negative sentences in the past continuous tense, we insert not between the auxiliary verb and main verb. For question sentences, we exchange the subject and auxiliary verb. Look at these example sentences with the past continuous tense:

subject auxiliary verb main verb

- + ___ I _____ was _____ watching TV.
- + ___ You _____ were _____ working hard.
- ___ He, she, it ___ was not _____ helping Mary.
- ___ We _____ were not _____ joking.
- ? ___ Were you _____ being silly?
- ? ___ Were they _____ playing football?

How do we use the Past Continuous Tense?

The past continuous tense expresses action at a particular moment in the past. The action started before that moment but has not finished at that moment. For example, yesterday I watched a film on TV. The film started at 7pm and finished at 9pm.
At 8pm yesterday, I was watching TV.

(At 8pm, I was in the middle of watching TV.)

When we use the past continuous tense, our listener usually knows or understands what time we are talking about. Look at these **examples**:

I was working at 10pm last night.

They were not playing football at 9am this morning.

What were you doing at 10pm last night?

What were you doing when he arrived?

She was cooking when I telephoned her.

We were having dinner when it started to rain.

Ram went home early because it was snowing.

We often use the past continuous tense to "set the scene" in stories. We use it to describe the background situation at the moment when the action begins. Often, the story starts with the past continuous tense and then moves into the simple past tense. Here is an example:

" James Bond was driving through town. It was raining. The wind was blowing hard. Nobody was walking in the streets. Suddenly, Bond saw the killer in a telephone box..."

Past Continuous Tense + Simple Past Tense

We often use the past continuous tense with the simple past tense. We use the past continuous tense to express a long action. And we use the simple past tense to express a short action that happens in the middle of the long action. We can join the two ideas with when or while.

In the following example, we have two actions:

1. long action (watching TV), expressed with past continuous tense
2. short action (telephoned), expressed with simple past tense

We can join these two actions with when:

I was watching TV when you telephoned.

(Notice that "when you telephoned" is also a way of defining the time [8pm].)

We use:

when + short action (simple past tense)

while + long action (past continuous tense)

There are four basic combinations:

I was walking past the car when it exploded

When the car exploded I was walking past it.

The car exploded while I was walking past it.

While I was walking past the car it exploded.

Notice that the long action and short action are relative.

"Watching TV" took a few hours. "Telephoned" took a few seconds.

"Walking past the car" took a few seconds. "Exploded" took a few milliseconds.

Past Perfect Tense

The past perfect tense is quite an easy tense to understand and to use. This tense talks about the "past in the past".

How do we make the Past Perfect Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the past perfect tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb HAVE + main verb (Past Participle or V3)

For negative sentences in the past perfect tense, we insert not between the auxiliary verb and main verb. For question sentences, we exchange the subject and auxiliary verb. Look at these example sentences with the past perfect tense:

subject auxiliary verb main verb

- + ___ I _____ had _____ finished my work.
- + ___ You _____ had _____ stopped before me.
- ___ She _____ had not _____ gone to school.
- ___ We _____ had not _____ left.
- ? ___ Had you _____ arrived?
- ? ___ Had they _____ eaten dinner?

When speaking with the past perfect tense, we often contract the subject and auxiliary verb:

I had ___ I'd
you had ___ you'd
he had ___ he'd
she had ___ she'd
it had ___ it'd
we had ___ we'd
they had ___ they'd

Quote:

The 'd contraction is also used for the auxiliary verb would. For example, we'd can mean:

We had
or

We would

But usually the main verb is in a different form, for example:

We had arrived (past participle)

We would arrive (base)

It is always clear from the context.

How do we use the Past Perfect Tense?

The past perfect tense expresses action in the past before another action in the past. This is the past in the past. For example:

- The train left at 9am. We arrived at 9.15am. When we arrived, the train had left.

The train had left when we arrived.

(like Train leaves in past at 9am and We arrive in past at 9.15am.)

Look at some more examples:

I wasn't hungry. I had just eaten.

They were hungry. They had not eaten for five hours.

I didn't know who he was. I had never seen him before.

"Mary wasn't at home when I arrived."

"Really? Where had she gone?"

You can sometimes think of the past perfect tense like the present perfect tense, but instead of the time being now the time is past.

For example, imagine that you arrive at the station at 9.15am. The stationmaster says to you:

"You are too late. The train has left."

Later, you tell your friends:

"We were too late. The train had left."

We often use the past perfect tense in reported speech after verbs like said, told, asked, thought, wondered:

Look at these examples:

He told us that the train had left.
I thought I had met her before, but I was wrong.
He explained that he had closed the window because of the rain.
I wondered if I had been there before.
I asked them why they had not finished.

Past Perfect Continuous Tense

I had been singing

How do we make the Past Perfect Continuous Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the past perfect continuous tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb HAVE + auxiliary verb BE (Past Participle) + main verb (Present Participle or V3)

For negative sentences in the past perfect continuous tense, we insert not after the first auxiliary verb. For question sentences, we exchange the subject and first auxiliary verb. Look at these example sentences with the past perfect continuous tense:

subject	auxiliary verb	auxiliary verb	main verb
+ ___ I _____	had _____	been _____	working.
+ ___ You _____	had _____	been _____	playing tennis.
- ___ It _____	had not _____	been _____	working well.
- ___ We _____	had not _____	been _____	expecting her.
? ___ Had you _____			been drinking?
? ___ Had they _____			been waiting long?

When speaking with the past perfect continuous tense, we often contract the subject and first auxiliary verb:

I had been ___ I'd been
you had been ___ you'd been
he had ___ he'd been
she had been ___ she'd been
it had been ___ it'd been
we had been ___ we'd been
they had been ___ they'd been

How do we use the Past Perfect Continuous Tense?

The past perfect continuous tense is like the past perfect tense, but it expresses longer actions in the past before another action in the past. For example:

Ram started waiting at 9am. I arrived at 11am. When I arrived, Ram had been waiting for two hours.

Ram had been waiting for two hours when I arrived.

Here are some more examples:

John was very tired. He had been running.

I could smell cigarettes. Somebody had been smoking.

Suddenly, my car broke down. I was not surprised. It had not been running well for a long time.

Had the pilot been drinking before the crash?

You can sometimes think of the past perfect continuous tense like the present perfect continuous tense, but instead of the time being now the time is past.

For example, imagine that you meet Ram at 11am. Ram says to you:

"I am angry. I have been waiting for two hours."

Later, you tell your friends:

"Ram was angry. He had been waiting for two hours."

Simple Future Tense

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

How do we make the Simple Future Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the simple future tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb WILL + main verb (V1)

For negative sentences in the simple future tense, we insert not between the auxiliary verb and main verb. For question sentences, we exchange the subject and auxiliary verb. Look at these example sentences with the simple future tense:

subject auxiliary verb main verb

+ ___ I _____ will _____ open the door.

+ ___ You _____ will _____ finish before me.

- ___ She _____ will not _____ be at school tomorrow.

- ____ We ____ will not ____ leave yet.
? ____ Will you ____ arrive on time?
? ____ Will they ____ want dinner?

When we use the simple future tense in speaking, we often contract the subject and auxiliary verb:

I will ____ I'll
you will ____ you'll
he will ____ he'll
she will ____ she'll
it will ____ it'll
we will ____ we'll
they will ____ they'll

For negative sentences in the simple future tense, we contract with won't, like this:

I will not ____ I won't
you will not ____ you won't
he will not ____ he won't
she will not ____ she won't
it will not ____ it won't
we will not ____ we won't
they will not ____ they won't

How do we use the Simple Future Tense?

No Plan

We use the simple future tense when there is no plan or decision to do something before we speak. We make the decision spontaneously at the time of speaking. Look at these examples:

Hold on. I'll get a pen.
We will see what we can do to help you.
Maybe we'll stay in and watch television tonight.

In these examples, we had no firm plan before speaking. The decision is made at the time of speaking.

We often use the simple future tense with the verb to think before it:

I think I'll go to the gym tomorrow.
I think I will have a holiday next year.
I don't think I'll buy that car.

Prediction

We often use the simple future tense to make a prediction about the future. Again, there is no firm plan. We are saying what we think will happen. Here are some examples:

It will rain tomorrow.
People won't go to Jupiter before the 22nd century.
Who do you think will get the job?

Be

When the main verb is be, we can use the simple future tense even if we have a firm plan or decision before speaking. Examples:

I'll be in London tomorrow.
I'm going shopping. I won't be very long.
Will you be at work tomorrow?

Note that when we have a plan or intention to do something in the future, we usually use other tenses or expressions, such as the present continuous tense or going to.

Future Continuous Tense

How do we make the Future Continuous Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the future continuous tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb WILL + auxiliary verb BE + main verb (ing form)

For negative sentences in the future continuous tense, we insert not between will and be. For question sentences, we exchange the subject and will. Look at these example sentences with the future continuous tense:

subject auxiliary verb auxiliary verb main verb

- + ___ I _____ will _____ be _____ working at 10am.
- + ___ You _____ will _____ be _____ lying on a beach tomorrow.
- ___ She _____ will not _____ be _____ using the car.
- ___ We _____ will not _____ be _____ having dinner at home.
- ? ___ Will you _____ be _____ playing football?
- ? ___ Will they _____ be _____ watching TV?

When we use the future continuous tense in speaking, we often contract the subject and will:

I will ___ I'll
you will ___ you'll
he will ___ he'll
she will ___ she'll
it will ___ it'll
we will ___ we'll
they will ___ they'll

Quote:

We sometimes use shall instead of will, especially for I and we.

How do we use the Future Continuous Tense?

The future continuous tense expresses action at a particular moment in the future. The action will start before that moment but it will not have finished at that moment. For example, tomorrow I will start work at 2pm and stop work at 6pm:
At 4pm tomorrow, I will be working.

When we use the future continuous tense, our listener usually knows or understands what time we are talking about. **Look at these examples:**

I will be playing tennis at 10am tomorrow.
They won't be watching TV at 9pm tonight.
What will you be doing at 10pm tonight?
What will you be doing when I arrive?
She will not be sleeping when you telephone her.
We 'll be having dinner when the film starts.
Take your umbrella. It will be raining when you return.

Future Perfect Tense

The future perfect tense is quite an easy tense to understand and use. The future perfect tense talks about the past in the future.

How do we make the Future Perfect Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the future perfect tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb WILL + auxiliary verb HAVE + main verb (V3)

Look at these **example** sentences in the future perfect tense:

subject auxiliary verb auxiliary verb main verb

- + ___ I _____ will _____ have _____ finished by 10am.
- + ___ You _____ will _____ have _____ forgotten me by then.
- ___ She _____ will not _____ have _____ gone to school.
- ___ We _____ will not _____ have _____ left.
- ? ___ Will you _____ have _____ arrived?
- ? ___ Will they _____ have _____ received it?

In speaking with the future perfect tense, we often contract the subject and will. Sometimes, we contract the subject, will and have all together:

- I will have ___ I'll have ___ I'll've
- you will have ___ you'll have ___ you'll've
- he will have ___ he'll have ___ he'll've
- she will have ___ she'll have ___ she'll've
- it will have ___ it'll have ___ it'll've
- we will have ___ we'll have ___ we'll've
- they will have ___ they'll have ___ they'll've

How do we use the Future Perfect Tense?

The future perfect tense expresses action in the future before another action in the future. This is the past in the future. For example:

The train will leave the station at 9am. You will arrive at the station at 9.15am. When you arrive, the train will have left.

"The train will have left when you arrive."

Look at some more examples:

- You can call me at work at 8am. I will have arrived at the office by 8.
- They will be tired when they arrive. They will not have slept for a long time.
- "Mary won't be at home when you arrive."
- "Really? Where will she have gone?"

Future Perfect Continuous Tense

How do we make the Future Perfect Continuous Tense?

Quote:

The structure of the future perfect continuous tense is:

subject + auxiliary verb WILL + auxiliary verb HAVE + auxiliary verb BE + main verb (-ing form)

For negative sentences in the future perfect continuous tense, we insert not between will and have. For question sentences, we exchange the subject and will. Look at these example sentences with the future perfect continuous tense:

subject + auxiliary verb + auxiliary verb + auxiliary verb + main verb

+ I will have been working for four hours.

+ You will have been travelling for two days.

- She will not have been using the car.

- We will not have been waiting long.

? Will you have been playing football?

? Will they have been watching TV?

When we use the future perfect continuous tense in speaking, we often contract the subject and auxiliary verb:

I will I'll

you will you'll

he will he'll

she will she'll

it will it'll

we will we'll

they will they'

For negative sentences in the future perfect continuous tense, we contract with won't, like this:

I will not I won't

you will not you won't

he will not he won't

she will not she won't

it will not it won't

we will not we won't

they will not they won't

How do we use the Future Perfect Continuous Tense?

We use the future perfect continuous tense to talk about a long action before some point in the future. Look at these examples:

I will have been working here for ten years next week.

He will be tired when he arrives. He will have been travelling for 24 hours.

Level II

Parts of Speech

Noun

A noun is a word that names a person, place, or thing. Nouns, like house guests, come in different varieties. House guests include those you want, those you hate, and those you're stuck with regardless. Nouns come in these varieties: common nouns, proper nouns, compound nouns, and collective nouns.

1. Common nouns name any one of a class of person, place, or thing.

boy
city
food

2. Proper nouns name a specific person, place, or thing.

Bob
New York City
Rice-a-Roni

3. Compound nouns are two or more nouns that function as a single unit. A compound noun can be two individual words, words joined by a hyphen, or two words combined.

individual words: time capsule
hyphenated words: great-uncle
combined words: basketbal

4. Collective nouns name groups of people or things.

audience
family
herd
crowd

Pronoun

Say you wrote this sentence:

Mr. Hufnagle gave Mr. Hufnagle's pen to Mr. Hufnagle's wife, Mrs. Hufnagle; Mrs. Hufnagle was grateful for the pen.

You would be reduced to this sorry state were it not for the delightful and ever useful little pronoun. Thanks to Mr. Pronoun, you can write this graceful sentence instead:

Mr. Hufnagle gave his pen to his wife, Mrs. Hufnagle; she was grateful for it.

Now, I know you have to agree that the pronoun is a thing of beauty indeed.

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun or another pronoun. Pronouns help you avoid unnecessary repetition in your writing and speech.

A pronoun gets its meaning from the noun it stands for. The noun is called the antecedent. Here's an example:

Although Seattle is damp, it is my favorite city

Of course, there are different kinds of pronouns. Most of them have antecedents, but a few do not. Meet the pronoun family.

1. Personal pronouns refer to a specific person, place, object, or thing. Here are the major players:

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
First person _____ I, me, mine, my _____	we, us, our, ours
Second person _____ you, your, yours _____	you, your, yours
Third person _____ her, hers, it he, _____	theirs, its
_____ him, his, she, _____	they, them, their,

2. Possessive pronouns show ownership. The possessive pronouns are yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs, whose.

Is this nice dead cat yours?
Yes, it's ours.

3. Reflexive pronouns add information to a sentence by pointing back to a noun or pronoun near the beginning of the sentence. Reflexive pronouns end in -self or -selves.

Herman bought himself a life-size inflatable woman.
They all enjoyed themselves at Herman's expense.

4. Intensive pronouns also end in -self or -selves, but they just add emphasis to the noun or pronoun.

Herman himself blew up the doll.
Herman said that he would be able to deflate the doll himself.

5. Demonstrative pronouns direct attention to a specific person, place, or thing. Not to

panic—there are only four demonstrative pronouns: this, that, these, and those.

This is the invisible car that came out of nowhere, struck my car, and vanished.
That was the slow-moving, sad-faced old gentleman who bounced off the roof of my car.

6. Relative pronouns begin a subordinate clause. Only five, folks: that, which, who, whom, and those.

Mr. Peepers claimed that the other car collided with his without giving warning of its intention.

Louise was the driver who had to swerve a number of times before she hit the other car.

7. Interrogative pronouns ask a question. High fives: what, which, who, whom, and whose.

Who claimed he was coming home when he drove into the wrong house and collided with a tree he doesn't have?

Which insurance adjuster had these headaches?

8. Indefinite pronouns refer to people, places, objects, or things without pointing to a specific one.

Here are the most common indefinite pronouns:

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	<u>Singular or Plural</u>
-----------------	---------------	---------------------------

another _____	both _____	all
anyone _____	few _____	any
each _____	many _____	more
everyone _____	others _____	most
everybody _____	several _____	none
everything _____		some
much		
nobody		
nothing		
other		
someone		
anybody		
anything		
either		
little		
neither		
no one		
one		
somebody		
something		

Verb

Verbs are words that name an action or describe a state of being. Verbs are seriously important, because there's no way to have a sentence without them.

While we're on the topic, every sentence must have two parts: a subject and a predicate.

- A subject tells who or what the sentence is about. The subject is a noun or a pronoun.
- A predicate tells what the subject is or does. The verb is found in the predicate.

There are four basic types of verbs: action verbs, linking verbs, helping verbs, verb phrases.

Action Verbs

Action verbs tell what the subject does. For example: jump, kiss, laugh.

The mobsters broke Irving's kneecaps.
Some people worry about the smallest things.

An action verb can be transitive or intransitive. Transitive verbs need a direct object.

The boss dropped the ball.
The workers picked it up.

Intransitive verbs do not need a direct object.

Who called?
Icicles dripped from his voice.

Linking Verbs

Linking verbs join the subject and the predicate. Linking verbs do not show action. Instead, they help the words at the end of the sentence name and describe the subject. Here are the most common linking verbs: be, feel, grow, seem, smell, remain, appear, sound, stay, look, taste, turn, become.

Although small in size as well as number, linking verbs are used a great deal. Here are two typical examples:

The manager was happy about the job change.
He is a fool.

Many linking verbs can also be used as action verbs. For example:
Linking: The kids looked sad.

Action: I looked for the dog in the pouring rain.

Helping Verbs

Helping verbs are added to another verb to make the meaning clearer. Helping verbs include any form of to be. Here are some examples: **do, does, did, have, has, had, shall, should, will, would, can, could, may, might, must.**

Verb phrases are made of one main verb and one or more helping verbs.

They will run before dawn.

They do have a serious problem.

Adverb

Adverbs are words that describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adverbs answer the questions "When?" "Where?" "How?" or "To what extent?" For example:

When? left yesterday, begin now

Where? fell below, move up

How? happily sang, danced badly

To what extent? partly finished, eat completely

Fortunately for us, most adverbs are formed by adding -ly to an adjective. This makes recognizing an adverb fairly easy. Of course, we don't want things to be too easy, so there are a bunch of adverbs that don't end in -ly. Here are some of the most common non-ly adverbs:

Quote:

afterward

already

almost

back

even

often

far

quick

fast

rather

hard

slow

here

so

how

soon

late

still

long

then

low

today

more

tomorrow

near

too

never

when

next

where

now

yesterday

Now, what can you do with an adverb? Try this: Use an adverb to describe a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

1. Use an adverb to describe a verb.

Experiments using dynamite must be done carefully.

2. Use an adverb to describe an adjective.

Charles had an unbelievably huge appetite for chips.

3. Use an adverb to describe another adverb.

They sang so clearly.

Conjunctive Adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs are used to connect other words. Therefore, conjunctive adverbs act like conjunctions, these wily devils—even though they are not technically considered to be conjunctions. Despite their tendency to be mislabeled, conjunctive adverbs are very useful when you want to link ideas and paragraphs. Here are the fan favorites:

Quote:

accordingly
however

again
indeed

also
moreover

besides
nevertheless

consequently
on the other hand

finally
otherwise

for example
then

furthermore
therefore

Adjective

Adjectives are words that describe nouns and pronouns. They're the color commentators of language, the words that give your writing and speech flavor. Adjectives answer the questions "What kind?" "How much?" "Which one?" and "How many?" For example:

What kind? red nose, gold ring
How much? more sugar, little effort
Which one? second wife, those nuts
How many? several wives, six husbands

Spice Up Your Sentences with Adjectives

There are five kinds of adjectives: common adjectives, proper adjectives, compound adjectives, articles, and indefinite adjectives.

1. Common adjectives describe nouns or pronouns.

strong man
green plant
pretty child

2. Proper adjectives are formed from proper nouns.

California vegetables
Mexican food

3. Compound adjectives are made up of more than one word, like these two examples:

far-off country
teenage person

4. Articles are a special type of adjective. There are three articles: a, an, and the.

The is called a “definite article” because it refers to a specific thing.

A and an are called “indefinite articles” because they refer to general things. Use a when the word that follows begins with a consonant sound; use an before words that begin with vowel sounds.

5. Indefinite adjectives don't specify the amount of something. Instead, they describe general quantities. Most of the indefinite adjectives were pronouns in their first lives. For example:

Quote:

all
either
another
few
any
many
both
more
each
most
neither
several
other
some

Adjectives for Non-Native Speakers

The indefinite articles a and an are grammatically the same. They both mean “one of many.” They are used only with singular nouns. As you learned earlier, use a when the word that follows begins with a consonant sound; use an before words that begin with vowel sounds. Here are some additional guidelines

1. A is sometimes used with the words “little” and “few.” The meaning is slightly different, depending on whether you use the article a before the words “little” and “few.” Study these examples:

a little, a few = a small amount of something

little, few = less than expected
a few carrots, few carrots
a little sugar, little sugar

2. A and an are rarely used with proper nouns.

Now that you know what adjectives are, it's time to learn how to use them. Follow these easy-as-pie guidelines:

1. Use an adjective to describe a noun or a pronoun

2. Use vivid adjectives to make your writing more specific and descriptive.

3. Use an adjective after a linking verb. A linking verb connects a subject with a descriptive word. Here are the most common linking verbs: be (is, am, are, was, were, and so on), seem, appear, look, feel, smell, sound, taste, become, grow, remain, stay, and turn.

Chicken made this way tastes more delicious (not deliciously).

Conjunction

Conjunctions connect words or groups of words and show how they are related. There are three kinds of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, and subordinating conjunctions. Let's look at each one.

1. Coordinating conjunctions link words or word groups. Here are the seven coordinating conjunctions:

for
and
but
or
yet
so
nor

And now for some examples:

Eat one live toad the first thing in the morning and nothing worse will happen to you the rest of the day.

Meddle not in the affairs of dragons, for thou art crunchy and taste good with ketchup.

2. Correlative conjunctions also link similar words or word groups, but they are always used in pairs. Here are the correlative conjunctions:

both ... and

either ... or
neither ... nor
not only ... but also
whether ... or

Some examples:

He lost both his shirt and his pants.

Either you come with us now, or you will miss the boat.

3. Subordinate conjunctions link an independent clause (a complete sentence) to a dependent clause (a fragment). There are only seven coordinating conjunctions and five correlative conjunctions, but you have more subordinating conjunctions than Custer had Native Americans. Here are the most often used subordinating conjunctions:

after
as long as

although
as soon as

as
as though

as if
because

before
till

even though
unless

if
until

in order that
when

since
whenever

so, so that
where

though
wherever

And a few examples culled from actual insurance forms:

The guy was all over the road so I had to swerve a couple of times before I finally hit him.

I had been driving for 40 years when I fell asleep at the wheel and had an accident.

Interjection

Zap! Pow! Wow!

Unlike movie stars Steven Seagal and Morris the Cat (okay, so he's dead), interjections show strong emotion. Because interjections are not linked grammatically to other words in the sentence, they are set off from the rest of the sentence with a comma or an exclamation mark.

Oh! What a shock you gave me with that gorilla suit.

Wow! That's not a gorilla suit?

With interjections, a little goes a long way. Use these marks of punctuation as you would hot pepper or hysterics, because they are strong and edgy.

Preposition

Prepositions are the mighty mites of grammar and writing, small but powerful little puppies. Prepositions are words that link a noun or a pronoun to another word in the sentence.

Use this list to help you recognize some of the most common prepositions:

Quote:

about
between

above
beyond

across
but

after
by

against
despite

along

down

amid
during

around
except

as
for

at
from

before
in

behind
inside

below
into

beneath
like

beside
near

of
since

off
through

on
toward

onto
under

opposite
underneath

out

until
outside
upon
over
with
past
within

A noun always follows a preposition. A prepositional phrase is a preposition and its object. A prepositional phrase can be two or three words long, as these examples show:

on the wing
in the door

However, prepositional phrases can be much longer, depending on the length of the preposition and number of words that describe the object of the preposition. Here are two super-size prepositional phrases:

near the violently swaying oak trees
on account of his nearly depleted bank account

Prepositions for Non-Native Speakers

Using prepositions correctly presents special problems for people whose first language is not English. That's because so many prepositional phrases are idiomatic: They have evolved through use and do not necessarily make logical sense. Here are some guidelines:

1. Use *in* before seasons of the year. Also use *in* with months and years not followed by specific dates.

in the summer
in January
in 2003

2. Use *on* before days of the week, holidays, and months, if the date follows.

on Wednesday
on Thanksgiving
on July 20

3. *Like* is a preposition that means "similar to." Therefore, it is followed by an object (usually a noun or pronoun).

like T' Aysha

like you

4. Use the preposition of to show possession.

The preposition of is often used to show possession instead of the possessive form of a pronoun.

I hear a puppy's bark.

Or:

I hear the bark of a puppy.

Never use the preposition of with proper nouns.

Incorrect: I wore the dress of Nina.

Correct: I wore Nina's dress

Following is a list of idiomatic prepositional phrases and examples. Always use these prepositional phrases as units; don't substitute other prepositions

<u>Prepositional Phrases</u>	<u>Examples</u>
------------------------------	-----------------

acquainted with _____	Nico is acquainted with my cousin Raul.
-----------------------	---

addicted to _____	I am addicted to coffee.
-------------------	--------------------------

agree on (a plan) _____	They finally agreed on a plan.
-------------------------	--------------------------------

agree to (someone else's proposal) _____	Did Betty agree to their demands?
--	-----------------------------------

angry at or about (a thing) _____	The commuters are angry about the fare hike.
-----------------------------------	--

angry with (a person) _____	They are angry with the mayor.
-----------------------------	--------------------------------

apply for (a job) _____	Apply for a job.
-------------------------	------------------

approve of _____	Did she approve of the vacation plan?
------------------	---------------------------------------

consist of _____	The casserole consists of squirrel and noodles.
------------------	---

contrast with _____	The red shirt contrasts with the pink pants.
---------------------	--

convenient for _____	Is Monday convenient for you?
----------------------	-------------------------------

deal with _____	How do you deal with that awful child?
-----------------	--

depend on _____	Everything depends on the bus schedule.
-----------------	---

differ from (something) _____	The airplane differs from the train.
-------------------------------	--------------------------------------

differ with (a person) _____	I differ with your argument.
------------------------------	------------------------------

displeased with _____	Nina is displeased with the plan.
-----------------------	-----------------------------------

fond of _____	We are all fond of Mrs. Marco.
---------------	--------------------------------

grateful for (something) _____	The child was grateful for a snow day.
--------------------------------	--

grateful to (someone) _____	We are grateful to the doctor.
-----------------------------	--------------------------------

identical with _____	This cake is identical with hers.
----------------------	-----------------------------------

interested in _____	Chris is interested in martial arts.
---------------------	--------------------------------------

interfere with _____	Homework can interfere with your social life.
----------------------	---

object to _____ We object to the income tax hike.
protect against _____ An umbrella protects against rain.
reason with _____ You can't reason with a two-year-old.
responsible for _____ I am responsible for bringing the salad.
shocked at _____ We are shocked at your hair color!
similar to _____ It is similar to a rainbow.
specialize in _____ The hairdresser must specialize in humor.
take advantage of _____ They surely take advantage of kids!
worry about _____ I worry about you.

Pronouns & Case

When Quentin Crisp told the people of Northern Ireland that he was an atheist, a woman in the audience stood up and said, "Yes, but is it the God of the Catholics or the God of the Protestants in whom you don't believe?" Hey, we don't need religious strife—we have who and whom to contend with. And that's not to mention all the rest of the pronouns. You've got to figure out how to use them correctly, too.

Here you'll learn about the grammatical role a pronoun plays in a sentence. Armed with this knowledge, you can use all pronouns—even the dreaded who and whom—correctly, with skill and confidence

Why Can't a Pronoun Be More Like a Noun?

Can't live with 'em, can't live without 'em. Between you and I, pronouns drive myself crazy, and I bet they do yourself, too. A quick look at the disastrous last sentence and a brief survey of English explains why pronouns are more maddening than a hormone-crazed teenager.

Old English, like Latin, depended on word endings to express grammatical relationships. These endings are called inflections. For example, consider the Old English word for stone, "stan." Study this chart.

<u>Case</u>	<u>Word</u>
Nominative and accusative singular	_____ stan
Genitive singular	_____ stane
Dative singular	_____ stane
Nominative and accusative plural	_____ stanas
Genitive plural	_____ stana
Dative plural	_____ stanum

Fortunately, contemporary English is greatly simplified from Old English. (Would I lie/lay to you?) Today, nouns remain the same in the nominative and accusative cases and inflect only for the possessive and the plural. Here's how our version of "stan" (stone) looks today: stone, stone's, stones, and stones'. Huh? Sounds like Greek? Not to worry. It will all be clear by the end of this section.

Pronouns, on the other hand, have retained more of their inflections, and more's the pity. The first-person pronoun, for example, can exist as I, me, mine, my, myself, we, us, our,

ours, ourself, and ourselves—11 written forms! Because pronouns assume so many more forms than nouns, these otherwise adorable words can be a real pain in the butt.

Head Case OR The Three Cases

Case is the form of a noun or pronoun that shows how it is used in a sentence. English has three cases: nominative, objective, and possessive. The following chart shows the three cases.

<u>Nominative</u> <u>(Pronoun as Subject)</u>	<u>Objective (Pronoun</u> <u>Showing Object)</u>	<u>Possessive</u> <u>(Pronoun as Ownership)</u>
--	---	--

I _____ me _____ my, mine
you _____ you _____ your, yours
he _____ him _____ his
she _____ her _____ her, hers
it _____ it _____ its
we _____ us _____ our, ours
they _____ them _____ their, theirs
who _____ whom _____ whose
whoever _____ whomever _____ whoever

The Rules

Let's review the rules for using pronouns so these little words won't make you crazy as you write and speak

1. Use the nominative case to show the subject of a verb. Remember that the subject is the noun or pronoun that performs the action of the verb.

Question: I know of no other person in the company who is as smarmy as (he, him.)

Answer: He is the subject of the understood verb is. Therefore, the sentence would read: "I know of no other person in the company who is as smarmy as he."

Question: (Who, Whom) do you believe is the best writer?

Answer: Who is the subject of the verb is. Therefore, the sentence would read, "Who do you believe is the best writer?"

Of course, anything associated with grammar can't be that easy. Here's the exception to the rule you just learned: A pronoun used as the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case. For example: "Billy Bob expects Frankie Bob and (I, me) to make squirrel stew." The correct pronoun here is me, because it is the subject of the infinitive to make.

2. A pronoun used as a predicate nominative is in the nominative case. A predicate nominative is a noun or pronoun after some form of to be (is, was, might have been, and so on).

Predicate nominatives are the bad boys in the back row of homeroom because they equal trouble. Here's what I mean:

The verb to be, in all of its forms, is the same as an equal sign. Whatever comes before it (almost always a pronoun in the nominative case) must also follow it.

Question: It was (they, them) who first suggested getting the 90-pound puppy.

Answer: It was they who first suggested getting the 90-pound puppy.

3. Use the objective case to show that the noun or pronoun receives the action.

Question: (Who, Whom) can you send to help us?

Answer: Whom is the direct object of the verb can send. Therefore, the sentence should read: "Whom can you send to help us?"

Question: The taxidermist promised to notify Herman and (I, me) of his plans for the moose.

Answer: Me (together with Herman) is the object of the infinitive to notify. Therefore, the sentence should read: "The taxidermist promised to notify Herman and me of his plans for the moose."

Question: It is always a pleasure for (we, us) employees to have a day-long meeting.

Answer: Here, us is the object of the preposition for. Therefore, the sentence should read: "It is always a pleasure for us employees to have a day-long meeting."

Question: The Internet gave my sister and (I, me) some interesting ideas.

Answer: Me (together with my sister) is the indirect object of the verb gave. Therefore, the sentence should read: "The Internet gave my sister and me some interesting ideas."

You can tell a word is an indirect object if you can insert to or for before it without changing the meaning. For example: The Internet gave (to) my sister and (to) me some interesting ideas.

4. A pronoun used in apposition with a noun is in the same case as the noun. An appositive is a noun or pronoun placed after another noun or pronoun to identify, explain, or rename it.

Question: Two bond traders, Alice and (she, her) were given bonuses large enough to buy their own banana republic.

Answer: The pronoun must be in the nominative case (she) because it is in apposition with the noun bond traders, which is in the nominative case. Therefore, the sentence should read: "Two bond traders, Alice and she, were given bonuses large enough to buy their own banana republic."

5. Use the possessive case to show ownership.

Question: The manager refused to acknowledge that the memo was (her's, hers).

Answer: Hers is the correct spelling of the possessive case, which is needed here to express ownership (belonging to her). Therefore, the sentence should read: "The manager refused to acknowledge that the memo was hers."

Be careful not to confuse possessive pronouns and contractions. To help you remember the difference, carve this chart into your desk at work.

6. Use the subjective case after linking verbs. Remember that a linking verb connects a subject to a word that renames it. This one actually makes perfect sense: Because a pronoun coming after a linking verb renames the subject, the pronoun must be in the subjective (nominative) case.

Question: The flasher of the month was (I, me).

Answer: Use I, because the pronoun renames the subject, the flasher of the month.

Question: The one who will benefit from this honor is they and (me, I).

Answer: Again, go with I, because the pronoun renames the subject.

Who Versus Whom

Contemporary writer and humorist Calvin Trillin once claimed, "Whom is a word invented to make everyone sound like a butler. Nobody who is not a butler has ever said it out loud without feeling just a little bit weird."

Trillin isn't alone in his frustration with who/whom. More than half a century ago, a professor named Arthur H. Weston voiced his feelings over who/whom this way:

It's hard to devise an appropriate doom
For those who say who when they ought to say whom.
But it's even more hard to decide what to do
With those who say whom when they ought to say who.

No one will argue that who and whom are the most troublesome pronouns in English. Anyone who has ever grappled with who and whom might use stronger language than that. Here are some reasons why who/whom are so perplexing:

- Who is used as an interrogative pronoun in questions.
- Who is also used as a relative pronoun in complex sentences (see Sentences for more on this).
- Whoever is usually found only in complex sentences (again, see Sentences).
- Who knows how to use these suckers?

We can't do much about the national debt, frown lines, or those Mets, but we can straighten out who/whom use. Even though I discussed who/whom earlier in this section, these little words cause such distress that they deserve their own subsection.

Adjectives Versus Adverbs

Introduction

Adjectives and adverbs are describing words; the former describes a noun or pronoun; the latter, a verb, adjective, or other adverb. Here, you learn how to use these words with skill and confidence so you'll never again face the dreaded bad/well dilemma.

Both adjectives and adverbs are modifiers—words that describe other words. For example:

Adjective: The quick fox jumped.

Adverb: The fox jumped quickly.

Ah ha! you say. Adverbs end in -ly; adjectives don't, so that's how I can tell these suckers apart. Not so fast, kemosabe. Some adverbs end in -ly, but not all. Further, some adjectives also end in -ly, such as lovely and friendly. As a result, the -ly test doesn't cut the mustard. Instead, the key to telling the difference between adjectives and adverbs is understanding how they work:

- Adjectives describe a noun or pronoun.
- Adverbs describe a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

As you learned in Parts of Speech, the only dependable way to tell whether you should use an adjective or an adverb is to see how the word functions in the sentence. If a noun or pronoun is being described, use an adjective. If a verb, adjective, or other adverb is being described, use an adverb. Here's an example to refresh your memory:

- He is a skillful driver.

(The adjective skillful describes the noun driver.)

- The cabby drove skillfully.

(The adverb skillfully describes the verb drove.)

Graphic Proof

Use the following table to keep adjectives and adverbs straight. That way, we'll all be reading from the same sheet music as we play together in the rest of this section.

In the Know: Adjective or Adverb?

<u>Modifier</u>	<u>Function</u>	<u>Example</u>
-----------------	-----------------	----------------

Adjectives _____	Describe nouns _____	The busy bee never rests. (The noun is bee.)
------------------	----------------------	---

Adjectives _____	Describe pronouns _____	She felt disappointed. (The pronoun is she.)
------------------	-------------------------	---

Adverbs _____	Describe verbs _____	The child cried bitterly. (The verb is cried.)
---------------	----------------------	---

Adverbs _____	Describe adverbs _____	The child cried very bitterly. (The adverb is bitterly.)
---------------	------------------------	---

Adverbs _____	Describe adjectives _____	The child was truly annoyed. (The adjective is annoyed.)
---------------	---------------------------	---

Three Degrees of Separation

Often, you'll want to compare things rather than just describe them. Not to worry; English has this covered. Adjectives and adverbs have different forms to show degrees of comparison. We even have a name for each of these forms of degree: positive, comparative, and superlative. Let's meet the whole gang.

Positive degree: the base form of the adjective or adverb. It does not show comparison.

Comparative degree: the form an adjective or adverb takes to compare two things.

Superlative degree: the form an adjective or adverb takes to compare three or more things.

The following table shows the three degrees of comparison with some sample adjectives and adverbs

Comparative Levels of Adjectives and Adverb

<u>Part of Speech</u>	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
-----------------------	-----------------	--------------------	--------------------

Adjective	low	lower	lowest
-----------	-----	-------	--------

Adjective	big	bigger	biggest
-----------	-----	--------	---------

Adjective	fat	fatter	fattest
-----------	-----	--------	---------

Adverb ____ highly ____ more highly ____ most highly
Adverb ____ widely ____ more widely ____ most widely
Adverb ____ easily ____ more easily ____ most easily

As you can see from this table, the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs are formed differently. Here's how:

1. All adverbs that end in -ly form their comparative and superlative degree with more and most.

quickly, more quickly, most quickly
slowly, more slowly, most slowly

2. Avoid using more or most when they sound awkward, as in "more soon than I expected."
In general, use -er/-est with one- and two-syllable modifiers.

fast, faster, fastest
high, higher, highest

3. When a word has three or more syllables, use more and most to form the comparative and superlative degree.

beloved, more beloved, most beloved
detested, more detested, most detested

Size Does Matter

Now that you know how to form comparisons with adjectives and adverbs, follow these guidelines to make these comparisons correct.

1. Use the comparative degree (-er or more form) to compare two things.
Your memory is better than mine.

Donald Trump is more successful than Donald Duck, Don Ameche, or Don Ho.

2. Use the superlative form (-est or most) to compare three or more things.

This is the largest room in the house.
This is the most awful meeting.

3. Never use -er and more or -est and most together. One or the other will do the trick nicely.

No: This is the more heavier brother.

Yes: This is the heavier brother.

No: He is the most heaviest brother.

Yes: He is the heaviest brother.

Irregular Adjectives and Adverbs

Of course, life can't be that easy in the land of adjectives and adverbs. And so it isn't. A few adjectives and adverbs don't follow these rules. They sneer at them, going their own separate ways. Like errant congressmen, there's just no predicting what these adjectives and adverbs will do next.

The following table shows the most common irregular adjectives and adverbs. Tap the noggin and memorize these forms.

<u>Positive</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
-----------------	--------------------	--------------------

good	_____ better	_____ best
well	_____ better	_____ best
bad	_____ worse	_____ worst
badly	_____ worse	_____ worst
far	_____ farther	_____ farthest
far	_____ further	_____ furthest
late	_____ later	_____ later or latest
little (amount)	_____ less	_____ least
many	_____ more	_____ most
much	_____ more	_____ most
some	_____ more	_____ most

Keep Your Balance

In most cases, the comparative and superlative degree shouldn't present any more difficulty than doing pick-up brain surgery with a screw driver or dealing with your two-year-old. Upon occasion, however, the way the sentence is phrased may make your comparison unclear. You balance your tires and your checkbook, so balance your sentences. Here's how:

Compare similar items.
Finish the comparison.

No: Nick's feet are bigger than Charles's. (Charles's what?)

Yes: Nick's feet are bigger than Charles's feet.

No: My wife's CD collection is larger than my son's.

Yes: My wife's CD collection is larger than my son's CD collection.

Other and Else

Another common error is illogical comparisons. Why bother creating new illogical situations, when the world is filled with existing ones that fit the bill so nicely? Because the thing you're comparing is part of a group, you have to differentiate it from the group by using the word *other* or *else* before you can set it apart in a comparison. Therefore, to avoid adding to the world's existing stock of stupidity, when you compare one item in a group with the rest of the group, be sure to include the word *other* or *else*. Then, your comparison will make sense.

Dopey: The Godfather was greater than any modern American movie.

Sensible: The Godfather was greater than any other modern American movie.

Dopey: Francis Ford Coppola won more awards than anyone at the ceremony.

Sensible: Francis Ford Coppola won more awards than anyone else at the ceremony.

Using Adjectives After Linking Verbs

Remember that linking verbs describe a state of being or a condition. They include all forms of *to be* (such as *am*, *is*, *are*, *were*, *was*) and verbs related to the senses (*look*, *smell*, *sound*, *feel*). Linking verbs connect the subject of a sentence to a word that renames or describes it.

Sticky situations arise with verbs that sometimes function as linking verbs but other times function as action verbs. Life just isn't fair sometimes. As linking verbs, these verbs use adjectives as complements. As action verbs, these verbs use adverbs. For example:

Charlie looks cheerful.
(looks is a linking verb; cheerful is an adjective)

Charlie looks cheerfully at the buffet table.
(looks is an action verb; cheerfully is an adverb)

The Badlands

The adjective *bad* and the adverb *badly* are especially prone to such abuse. For instance:

No-No: The guest felt badly.
Yes-Yes: The guest felt bad.
No-No: The food tasted badly.
Yes-Yes: The food tasted bad.

Good News; Well News

Good and well are as dicey as bad and badly. That's because well functions both as an adverb and as an adjective:

1. Good is always an adjective.

You did a good job.
You're a good egg.

2. Well is an adjective used to describe good health.

You look well.
You sound well after your recent bout with pneumonia.

3. Well is an adverb when it's used for anything else.

You cook well.
They eat well

Note

When you make comparisons using adjectives and adverbs, pay attention to elements that can be counted and those that cannot. As you read earlier, remember that less and fewer cannot be interchanged. Less refers to amounts that form a whole or can't be counted (less money, less filling), while fewer refers to items that can be counted (fewer coins, fewer calories).

1. For nouns that can be counted, use few, fewer, or fewest rather than little, less, or least to count down.

Incorrect: Carrot sticks have less calories than chocolate.
Correct: Carrot sticks have fewer calories than chocolate.
Because calories can be counted, use the adjective fewer rather than the adjective less.

2. For mass nouns (which cannot be counted) use little, less, or least rather than few, fewer, or fewest to count down.

Incorrect: There's fewer water in this bucket than I expected.
Correct: There's less water in this bucket than I expected.
Because water is a mass noun that cannot be counted, use the adjective less rather than the adjective fewer.

3. For nouns that can be counted, use the adjective many, not much.

Incorrect: Foi gras has much calories.

Correct: Foi gras has many calories.

Because calories can be counted, use the adjective many rather than the adjective much.

No Double Negatives

A double negative is a statement that contains two negative describing words. For instance:

Double negative: The shopper did not have no money left over after the binge.

Correct: The shopper did not have any money left over after the binge.

Or:

The shopper had no money left over after the binge.

To avoid this grammatical faux pas, use only one negative word to express a negative idea. Here are the most frequently used negative words:

\

Quote:

no never not none nothing hardly scarcely barely

Double negatives are sneaky little critters. They are especially likely to cause problems with contractions. When the word not is used in a contraction—such as isn't, doesn't, wouldn't, couldn't, don't—the negative tends to slip by. As a result, writers and speakers may add another negative.

Double negative: He didn't say nothing.

Correct: He didn't say anything.

Or:

He said nothing.

Phrasal Verbs and other multi-word verbs

Phrasal verbs are part of a large group of verbs called "multi-word verbs". Phrasal verbs and other multi-word verbs are an important part of the English language. Multi-word verbs, including phrasal verbs, are very common, especially in spoken English. A multi-word verb is a verb like "pick up", "turn on" or "get on with". For convenience, many people refer to all multi-word verbs as phrasal verbs. These verbs consist of a basic verb + another word or words. The other word(s) can be prepositions and/or adverbs. The two or three words that make up multi-word verbs form a short "phrase"—which is why these verbs are often all called "phrasal verbs".

The important thing to remember is that a multi-word verb is still a verb. "Get" is a verb. "Get up", is also a verb, a different verb. "Get" and "get up" are two different verbs. They do not have the same meaning. So you should treat each multi-word verb as a separate verb, and learn it like any other verb. Look at these examples. You can see that there are three types of multi-word verb:

1. single-word verb:

look _____ direct your eyes in a certain direction
"You must look before you leap"

2. multi-word verbs:

prepositional verbs

look after _____ take care of
"Who is looking after the baby? "

phrasal verbs

look up _____ search for and find information in a reference book
"You can look up my number in the telephone directory. "

phrasal-prepositional verbs:

look forward _____ to anticipate with pleasure
"I look forward to meeting you."

Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs are a group of multi-word verbs made from a verb plus another word or words. Many people refer to all multi-word verbs as phrasal verbs. On these pages we make a distinction between three types of multi-word verbs: prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs and phrasal-prepositional verbs. On this page we look at phrasal verbs proper.

Phrasal verbs are made of:

Quote:

verb + adverb

Phrasal verbs can be:

- intransitive (no direct object)
- transitive (direct object)

Here are some examples of phrasal verbs:

phrasal verbs meaning examples direct object

intransitive phrasal verbs:

get up _____ rise from bed _____ I don't like to get up.

break down _____ cease to function _____ He was late because his car broke down.

transitive phrasal verbs :

put off _____ postpone _____ We will have to put off _____ the meeting

turn down _____ refuse _____ They turned down my offer.

Separable Phrasal Verbs

When phrasal verbs are transitive (that is, they have a direct object), we can usually separate the two parts. For example, "turn down" is a separable phrasal verb. We can say: "turn down my offer" or "turn my offer down". Look at this table:

transitive phrasal verbs are separable

They turned down my offer.

They turned my offer down.

However, if the direct object is a pronoun, we have no choice. We must separate the phrasal verb and insert the pronoun between the two parts. Look at this example with the separable phrasal verb "switch on":

- **direct object pronouns must go between the two parts of transitive phrasal verbs**

John switched on the radio
 John switched the radio on.
 John switched it on.

It would be wrong to say :

John switched on it.

Prepositional Verbs

Prepositional verbs are a group of multi-word verbs made from a verb plus another word or words. Many people refer to all multi-word verbs as phrasal verbs. On these pages we make a distinction between three types of multi-word verbs: prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs and phrasal-prepositional verbs. On this page we look at prepositional verbs.

Prepositional verbs are made of:

Quote:

verb + preposition

Because a preposition always has an object, all prepositional verbs have direct objects. Here are some examples of prepositional verbs:

prepositional verbs meaning examples

believe in _____ have faith in _____ the existence of I believe in God.
 look after _____ take care of _____ He is looking after the dog.
 talk about _____ discuss _____ Did you talk about me?
 wait for _____ await _____ John is waiting for Mary.

Prepositional verbs cannot be separated. That means that we cannot put the direct object between the two parts. For example, we must say "look after the baby". We cannot say "look the baby after":

prepositional verbs are inseparable:

Incorrect: Who is looking the baby after?
 Correct: Who is looking after the baby?

Phrasal-prepositional Verbs

Phrasal-prepositional verbs are a small group of multi-word verbs made from a verb plus another word or words. Many people refer to all multi-word verbs as phrasal verbs. On these pages we make a distinction between three types of multi-word verbs: prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs and phrasal-prepositional verbs. On this page we look at phrasal-prepositional verbs.

Phrasal-prepositional verbs are made of:

Quote:

verb + adverb + preposition

Look at these examples of phrasal-prepositional verbs:

phrasal-prepositional verbs meaning examples

get on with _____ have a friendly relationship with _____ He doesn't get on with his wife.

put up with _____ tolerate _____ I won't put up with your attitude.

look forward _____ to anticipate with pleasure _____ I look forward to seeing you.

run out of _____ use up, exhaust _____ We have run out of eggs.

Because phrasal-prepositional verbs end with a preposition, there is always a direct object. And, like prepositional verbs, phrasal-prepositional verbs cannot be separated. Look at these examples:

phrasal-prepositional verbs are inseparable

We ran out of fuel.

We ran out of it.

Active Voice, Passive Voice

There are two special forms for verbs called voice:

Active voice

Passive voice

The active voice is the "normal" voice. This is the voice that we use most of the time. You are probably already familiar with the active voice. In the active voice, the object receives the action of the verb:

Quote:

Structure : subject verb object

Expression : Cats eat fish.

The passive voice is less usual. In the passive voice, the subject receives the action of the verb:

Quote:

Structure : subject verb object

Expression : Fish are eaten by cats.

The object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb:

Active : Everybody drinks water.

Passive : Water is drunk by everybody.

Passive Voice

The passive voice is less usual than the active voice. The active voice is the "normal" voice. But sometimes we need the passive voice. In this lesson we look at how to construct the passive voice, when to use it and how to conjugate it.

Construction of the Passive Voice

Quote:

The structure of the passive voice is very simple:

subject + auxiliary verb (be) + main verb (past participle)

The main verb is always in its past participle form.

Look at these examples:

subject auxiliary verb (to be) main verb (past participle)

Water _____ is _____ drunk by everyone.
100 people _____ are _____ employed by this company.
I _____ am _____ paid in euro.
We _____ are not _____ paid in dollars.
Are they _____ paid in yen?

Use of the Passive Voice

We use the passive when:

- we want to make the active object more important
- we do not know the active subject

give importance to active object (President Kennedy) : President Kennedy was killed by Lee Harvey Oswald.

active subject unknown : My wallet has been stolen.

Note that we always use by to introduce the passive object (Fish are eaten by cats).

Look at this sentence:

He was killed with a gun.

Normally we use by to introduce the passive object. But the gun is not the active subject. The gun did not kill him. He was killed by somebody with a gun. In the active voice, it would be: Somebody killed him with a gun. The gun is the instrument. Somebody is the "agent" or "doer".

Conjugation for the Passive Voice

We can form the passive in any tense. In fact, conjugation of verbs in the passive tense is rather easy, as the main verb is always in past participle form and the auxiliary verb is always **be**. To form the required tense, we conjugate the auxiliary verb. So, for example:

- present simple: It is made
- present continuous: It is being made
- present perfect: It has been made

Here are some examples with most of the possible tenses:

infinitive _____ to be washed

simple

present : _____ It is washed.
past : _____ It was washed.
future : _____ It will be washed.
conditional : _____ It would be washed.

continuous

present : _____ It is being washed.
past : _____ It was being washed.
future : _____ It will be being washed.
conditional : _____ It would be being washed.

perfect simple

present : _____ It has been washed.
past : _____ It had been washed.
future : _____ It will have been washed.
conditional : _____ It would have been washed.

perfect continuous

present : _____ It has been being washed.
past : _____ It had been being washed.
future : _____ It will have been being washed.
conditional : _____ It would have been being washed.

Modal Verbs (modal auxiliaries)

Can, Could, Be able to

Can and could are modal auxiliary verbs. Be able to is NOT an auxiliary verb (it uses the verb be as a main verb). We include be able to here for convenience.

Can

Can is an auxiliary verb, a modal auxiliary verb. We use can to:

- talk about possibility and ability
- make requests
- ask for or give permission

Structure of Can

Quote:

subject + can + main verb

The main verb is always the bare infinitive (infinitive without "to").

subject auxiliary verb main verb

+ _ I _____ can _____ play tennis.

- _ He _____ cannot / can't _____ play tennis.

? _ Can you _____ play tennis?

Notice that:

Can is invariable. There is only one form of can.

The main verb is always the bare infinitive.

Use of Can

can: Possibility and Ability

We use can to talk about what is possible, what we are able or free to do:

She can drive a car.

John can speak Spanish.

I cannot hear you. (I can't hear you.)

Can you hear me?

Normally, we use can for the present. But it is possible to use can when we make present decisions about future ability.

Can you help me with my homework? (present)
Sorry. I'm busy today. But I can help you tomorrow. (future)

can: Requests and Orders

We often use can in a question to ask somebody to do something. This is not a real question - we do not really want to know if the person is able to do something, we want them to do it! The use of can in this way is informal (mainly between friends and family):

Can you make a cup of coffee, please.
Can you put the TV on.
Can you come here a minute.
Can you be quiet!

can: Permission

We sometimes use can to ask or give permission for something:

Can I smoke in this room?
You can't smoke here, but you can smoke in the garden.

(Note that we also use could, may, might for permission. The use of can for permission is informal.)

Could

Could is an auxiliary verb, a modal auxiliary verb. We use could to:

- talk about past possibility or ability
- make requests

Structure of Could

Quote:

subject + could + main verb

The main verb is always the bare infinitive (infinitive without "to").

subject auxiliary verb main verb

+ ___ His grandmother ___ could _____ swim.

- ___ She _____ could not / couldn't _____ walk.
? ___ Could his grandmother _____ swim?

Notice that:

Could is invariable. There is only one form of could.
The main verb is always the bare infinitive.

Use of Could

could: Past Possibility or Ability

We use could to talk about what was possible in the past, what we were able or free to do:

I could swim when I was 5 years old.

My grandmother could speak seven languages.

When we arrived home, we could not open the door. (...couldn't open the door.)

Could you understand what he was saying?

We use could (positive) and couldn't (negative) for general ability in the past. But when we talk about one special occasion in the past, we use be able to (positive) and couldn't (negative). Look at these examples:

General :

My grandmother could speak Spanish.

My grandmother couldn't speak Spanish.

Specific Occasion :

A man fell into the river yesterday. The police were able to save him.

A man fell into the river yesterday. The police couldn't save him.

could: Requests

We often use could in a question to ask somebody to do something. The use of could in this way is fairly polite (formal):

Could you tell me where the bank is, please?

Could you send me a catalogue, please?

Shall versus Will

People may sometimes tell you that there is no difference between shall and will, or even that today nobody uses shall (except in offers such as "Shall I call a taxi?"). This is not really

true. The difference between shall and will is often hidden by the fact that we usually contract them in speaking with 'll. But the difference does exist.

The truth is that there are two conjugations for the verb will:

1st Conjugation (objective, simple statement of fact)

Person	Verb	Example	Contraction
--------	------	---------	-------------

Singular :

I ____ shall ____ I shall be in London tomorrow. ____ I'll
you ____ will ____ You will see a large building on the left. ____ You'll
he, she, it ____ will ____ He will be wearing blue. ____ He'll

Plural :

we ____ shall ____ We shall not be there when you arrive. ____ We shan't
you ____ will ____ You will find his office on the 7th floor. ____ You'll
they ____ will ____ They will arrive late. ____ They'll

2nd Conjugation (subjective, strong assertion, promise or command)

Person	Verb	Example	Contraction
--------	------	---------	-------------

Singular :

I ____ will ____ I will do everything possible to help. ____ I'll
you ____ shall ____ You shall be sorry for this. ____ You'll
he, she, it ____ shall ____ It shall be done. ____ It'll

Plural :

we ____ will ____ We will not interfere. ____ We won't
you ____ shall ____ You shall do as you're told. ____ You'll
they ____ shall ____ They shall give one month's notice. ____ They'll

It is true that this difference is not universally recognized. However, let those who make assertions such as "People in the USA never use 'shall'" peruse a good US English dictionary, or many US legal documents which often contain phrases such as:

Each party shall give one month's notice in writing in the event of termination.

Note that exactly the same rule applies in the case of should and would. It is perfectly normal, and somewhat more elegant, to write, for example:

I should be grateful if you would kindly send me your latest catalogue.

Be able to

Although we look at be able to here, it is not a modal verb. It is simply the verb be plus an adjective (able) followed by the infinitive. We look at be able to here because we sometimes use it instead of can and could.

We use be able to:

- to talk about ability

Structure of Be able to

Quote:

The structure of be able to is:

subject + be + able + infinitive

subject be (main verb) able (adjective) infinitive

+ ___ I _____ am _____ able _____ to drive.

- ___ She ___ is not / isn't _____ able _____ to drive.

? _____ Are you _____ able _____ to drive?

Notice that be able to is possible in all tenses, for example:

I was able to drive...

I will be able to drive...

I have been able to drive...

Notice too that be able to has an infinitive form:

I would like to be able to speak Chinese.

Use of Be able to

Be able to is not a modal auxiliary verb. We include it here for convenience, because it is often used like "can" and "could", which are modal auxiliary verbs.

be able to: [ability](#)

We use be able to to express ability. "Able" is an adjective meaning: having the power, skill or means to do something. If we say "I am able to swim", it is like saying "I can swim". We sometimes use "be able to" instead of "can" or "could" for ability. "Be able to" is possible in all tenses—but "can" is possible only in the present and "could" is possible only in the past for ability. In addition, "can" and "could" have no infinitive form. So we use "be able to" when we want to use other tenses or the infinitive. Look at these examples:

I have been able to swim since I was five. (present perfect)

You will be able to speak perfect English very soon. (future simple)

I would like to be able to fly an airplane. (infinitive)

Have to, Must, Must not/Mustn't

Must is a modal auxiliary verb.

Have to is NOT an auxiliary verb (it uses the verb have as a main verb). We include have to here for convenience.

Have to (objective obligation)

We often use have to to say that something is obligatory, for example:

- Children have to go to school.

Structure of Have to

Have to is often grouped with modal auxiliary verbs for convenience, but in fact it is not a modal verb. It is not even an auxiliary verb. In the have to structure, "have" is a main verb. The structure is:

Quote:

subject + auxiliary verb + have + infinitive (with to)
--

Look at these examples in the simple tense:

subject	auxiliary verb	main verb have	infinitive (with to)
----------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------------

She _____ has _____ to work.

I _____ do not _____ have _____ to see the doctor.
_____ Did you _____ have _____ to go to school?

Use of Have to

In general, have to expresses impersonal obligation. The subject of have to is obliged or forced to act by a separate, external power (for example, the Law or school rules). Have to is objective. Look at these examples:

- In France, you have to drive on the right.
- In England, most schoolchildren have to wear a uniform.
- John has to wear a tie at work.

In each of the above cases, the obligation is not the subject's opinion or idea. The obligation is imposed from outside.

We can use have to in all tenses, and also with modal auxiliaries. We conjugate it just like any other main verb. Here are some examples

past simple ~ I had to work yesterday.
present simple ~ I have to work today.
future simple ~ I will have to work tomorrow.
present continuous ~ She is having to wait.
present perfect ~ We have had to change the time.
modal (may) ~ They may have to do it again.

Must (subjective obligation)

We often use must to say that something is essential or necessary, for example:

- I must go.

Structure of Must

Quote:

Must is a modal auxiliary verb. It is followed by a main verb. The structure is:

subject + must + main verb

The main verb is the base verb (infinitive without "to").

Look at these examples:

subject auxiliary must main verb

I _____ must _____ go home.

You _____ must _____ visit us.

We _____ must _____ stop now.

Like all auxiliary verbs, must CANNOT be followed by to. So, we say:

I must go now. (not *I must to go now.)

Use of Must

In general, must expresses personal obligation. Must expresses what the speaker thinks is necessary. Must is subjective. Look at these examples:

I must stop smoking.

You must visit us soon.

He must work harder.

In each of the above cases, the "obligation" is the opinion or idea of the person speaking. In fact, it is not a real obligation. It is not imposed from outside.

We can use must to talk about the present or the future. Look at these examples:

I must go now. (present)

I must call my mother tomorrow. (future)

Level # 3

Conditionals

There are several structures in English that are called conditionals.

"Condition" means "situation or circumstance". If a particular condition is true, then a particular result happens.

- If $y = 10$ then $2y = 20$
- If $y = 3$ then $2y = 6$

There are three basic conditionals that we use very often. There are some more conditionals that we do not use so often.

In this lesson, we will look at the three basic conditionals as well as the so-called zero conditional.

Structure of Conditional Sentences

The structure of most conditionals is very simple. There are two basic possibilities. Of course, we add many words and can use various tenses, but the basic structure is usually like this:

IF condition result

IF $y = 10$ $2y = 20$

or like this:

result IF condition

$2y = 20$ IF $y = 10$

First Conditional: real possibility

We are talking about the future. We are thinking about a particular condition or situation in the future, and the result of this condition. There is a real possibility that this condition will happen. For example, it is morning. You are at home. You plan to play tennis this afternoon. But there are some clouds in the sky. Imagine that it rains. What will you do?

IF condition result

present simple + WILL + base verb

If it rains I will stay at home.

Notice that we are thinking about a future condition. It is not raining yet. But the sky is cloudy and you think that it could rain. We use the present simple tense to talk about the possible future condition. We use WILL + base verb to talk about the possible future result. The important thing about the first conditional is that there is a real possibility that the condition will happen. Here are some more examples (do you remember the two basic structures: [IF condition result] and [result IF condition]?):

IF + condition (present simple) + result (WILL + base verb)

If I see Mary I will tell her.

If Tara is free tomorrow he will invite her.

If they do not pass their exam their teacher will be sad.

If it rains tomorrow will you stay at home?

If it rains tomorrow what will you do?

OR

result (WILL + base verb) + IF + condition (present simple)

I will tell Mary if I see her.

He will invite Tara if she is free tomorrow.

Their teacher will be sad if they do not pass their exam.
Will you stay at home if it rains tomorrow?
What will you do if it rains tomorrow?

Second Conditional: unreal possibility or dream

The second conditional is like the first conditional. We are still thinking about the future. We are thinking about a particular condition in the future, and the result of this condition. But there is not a real possibility that this condition will happen. For example, you do not have a lottery ticket. Is it possible to win? No! No lottery ticket, no win! But maybe you will buy a lottery ticket in the future. So you can think about winning in the future, like a dream. It's not very real, but it's still possible.

IF + condition (past simple) + result (WOULD + base verb)

If I won the lottery I would buy a car.

OR

result (WOULD + base verb) + IF + condition (past simple)

I would be happy if I married Mary.

Notice that we are thinking about a future condition. We use the past simple tense to talk about the future condition. We use WOULD + base verb to talk about the future result. The important thing about the second conditional is that there is an unreal possibility that the condition will happen.

Here are some more examples:

If I married Mary I would be happy.

If Ram became rich she would marry him.

If it snowed next July would you be surprised?

If it snowed next July what would you do?

OR

She would marry Ram if he became rich.

Would you be surprised if it snowed next July?

What would you do if it snowed next July?

Third Conditional :no possibility

The first conditional and second conditionals talk about the future. With the third conditional we talk about the past. We talk about a condition in the past that did not happen. That is why there is no possibility for this condition. The third conditional is also like a dream, but with no possibility of the dream coming true.

Last week you bought a lottery ticket. But you did not win. :-{

Quote:

condition (Past Perfect) + result (WOULD HAVE + Past Participle)

If I had won the lottery I would have bought a car.

Notice that we are thinking about an impossible past condition. You did not win the lottery. So the condition was not true, and that particular condition can never be true because it is finished. We use the past perfect tense to talk about the impossible past condition. We use WOULD HAVE + past participle to talk about the impossible past result. The important thing about the third conditional is that both the condition and result are impossible now. Sometimes, we use *should have, could have, might have* instead of *would have*, for example: *If you had bought a lottery ticket, you might have won.*

Examples :

If I had seen Mary I would have told her.

If Tara had been free yesterday I would have invited her.

If they had not passed their exam their teacher would have been sad.

If it had rained yesterday would you have stayed at home?

If it had rained yesterday what would you have done?

OR

I would have told Mary if I had seen her.

I would have invited Tara if she had been free yesterday.

Their teacher would have been sad if they had not passed their exam.

Would you have stayed at home if it had rained yesterday?

What would you have done if it had rained yesterday?

Zero Conditional: certainty

We use the so-called zero conditional when the result of the condition is always true, like a scientific fact.

Take some ice. Put it in a saucepan. Heat the saucepan. What happens? The ice melts (it becomes water). You would be surprised if it did not.

Quote:

IF + condition (present simple) + result (present simple)

If I miss the 8 o'clock bus I am late for work.

If I am late for work my boss gets angry.
If people don't eat they get hungry.
If you heat ice does it melt?

OR

I am late for work if I miss the 8 o'clock bus.
My boss gets angry if I am late for work.
People get hungry if they don't eat.
Does ice melt if you heat it?

Gerunds (-ing)

When a verb ends in -ing, it may be a gerund or a present participle. It is important to understand that they are not the same.

Gerunds are sometimes called "verbal nouns".

When we use a verb in -ing form more like a noun, it is usually a gerund:

- **Fishing** is fun.

When we use a verb in -ing form more like a verb or an adjective, it is usually a present participle:

- Anthony is **fishing**.
- I have a **boring** teacher.

1. Gerunds as Subject, Object or Complement

Try to think of gerunds as verbs in noun form.

Like nouns, gerunds can be the subject, object or complement of a sentence:

- **Smoking** costs a lot of money.
- I don't like **writing**.
- My favourite occupation is **reading**.

But, like a verb, a gerund can also have an object itself. In this case, the whole expression [gerund + object] can be the subject, object or complement of the sentence.

- **Smoking** cigarettes costs a lot of money.
- I don't like **writing** letters.
- My favourite occupation is **reading** detective stories.

Like nouns, we can use gerunds with adjectives (including articles and other determiners):

- pointless **questioning**
- a **settling** of debts
- the **making** of Titanic
- his **drinking** of alcohol

But when we use a gerund with an article, it does not usually take a direct object:

- a settling of debts (not a settling debts)
- Making "Titanic" was expensive.
- The making of "Titanic" was expensive.

Quote:

Do you see the difference in these two sentences? In one, "reading" is a gerund (noun). In the other "reading" is a present participle (verb).

My favourite occupation is reading.

My favourite niece is reading.

reading as gerund (noun) Main Verb Complement

My favourite occupation is reading.

My favourite occupation is football.

reading as present participle (verb) Auxiliary Verb Main Verb

My favourite niece is reading.

My favourite niece has finished.

2. Gerunds after Prepositions

This is a good rule. It has no exceptions!

If we want to use a verb after a preposition, it must be a gerund. It is impossible to use an infinitive after a preposition. **So for example, we say:**

I will call you after arriving at the office.
Please have a drink before leaving.
I am looking forward to meeting you.
Do you object to working late?
Tara always dreams about going on holiday.

Notice that you could replace all the above gerunds with "real" nouns:

I will call you after my arrival at the office.
Please have a drink before your departure.
I am looking forward to our lunch.
Do you object to this job?
Tara always dreams about holidays.

Quote:

The above rule has no exceptions! So why is "to" followed by "driving" in 1 and by "drive" in 2?

I am used to driving on the left.
I used to drive on the left.

to as preposition Preposition

I am used to driving on the left.
I am used to animals.

to as infinitive Infinitive

I used to drive on the left
I used to smoke.

3. Gerunds after Certain Verbs

We sometimes use one verb after another verb. Often the second verb is in the infinitive form, **for example:**

I want to eat.

But sometimes the second verb must be in gerund form, for example:

I dislike eating.

This depends on the first verb. Here is a list of verbs that are usually followed by a verb in gerund form:

admit, appreciate, avoid, carry on, consider, defer, delay, deny, detest, dislike, endure, enjoy, escape, excuse, face, feel like, finish, forgive, give up, can't help, imagine, involve, leave off, mention, mind, miss, postpone, practise, put off, report, resent, risk, can't stand, suggest, understand

Look at these examples:

She is considering having a holiday.

Do you feel like going out?

I can't help falling in love with you.

I can't stand not seeing you.

Quote:

Some verbs can be followed by the gerund form or the infinitive form without a big change in meaning: begin, continue, hate, intend, like, love, prefer, propose, start

I like to play tennis.

I like playing tennis.

It started to rain.

It started raining.

4. Gerunds in Passive Sense

We often use a gerund after the verbs need, require and want. In this case, the gerund has a passive sense.

I have three shirts that need **washing**. (need to be washed)

This letter requires **signing**. (needs to be signed)

The house wants **repainting**. (needs to be repainted)