

ELT Concourse

a simple
illustrated
grammar of English



Words

Sentences

Verbs and tenses

My language and English

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In this grammar, when you see a sentence in red like this, it is WRONG!

There are links in the text to take you the tests on eltconcourse.com.

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Chapter 1

Types of words

There are two types of words.

1. **Content** words

When they are alone, these words still have a meaning. For example:

house, school, beauty, dislike, begin, jump, happy, sad, important, quickly, now, fortunately

2. **Grammar** or **function** words

These words mean nothing when they are alone but they make the grammar of the language work. For example:

in, out, up, the, a, an, this that, he, she, them, and, when, but



Content words

There are 4 types of content words in English.

1. **NOUNS**

Nouns are words for things, places, people and feelings.



things: lots of boxes



places: Venice in Italy



people: Abraham Lincoln



feelings: happiness

2. There are 3 main types. Here are some examples:

a. **Proper** nouns are for people and places:

George** is in **London

***Russia** is very large*

*There are lots of countries in **The European Union***

b. **Mass** nouns are for things which do not have a plural:

***milk** is expensive here*

sugar is bad for me
*the **water** is very cold*
***happiness** is important*

- c. **Count** nouns refer to things we can have in the plural and most nouns are in this group:

*I have a **pencil** and two **pens***
*my **house** is here*
***dogs** are not usually dangerous*
*I love **trees***
*my **country** is beautiful*
*he's a **teacher***

See the chapter on Names for things for more.

3. VERBS

Verbs are words for doing, thinking and being. There are 5 main types of verbs.



doing: play golf



thinking: know the answer



being: he **was** the President



auxiliary: she **has** broken the jug



modal: we **can** meet in the café

Here are some examples:

- a. Verbs describing actions, behaviour or feelings:

***kick** the ball*
*don't **worry***
*the glass **broke***
*I am **watching** TV*

- b. Verbs describing states and thinking:

*I **enjoy** walking*
*I **hope** she is here*
*she **hates** pasta*
*it **helps** me work*

- c. Linking verbs join nouns to nouns and nouns to adjectives and show the connection between things:

*I **am** in London*
*she **became** the manager*
*the car **looks** wonderful*
*she **got** older*

- d. Auxiliary or helping verbs make tenses with other verbs:

*I **have** broken the glass*
*she **is** working in Berlin*
*we **don't** visit museums*

- e. Modal verbs show how you feel about other verbs. They do not stand alone but are always with other verbs:

*we **can** meet in the café*
*she **will** go later*
*they **must** go*

See the chapter on doing and being words for more.

4. ADJECTIVES

Adjectives change nouns. We can say *a house* and we can say *a **big** house*.



one **red** pea

Adjectives can come before or after the noun they describe. For example:

- It's a **large** house with a **long** garden* (adjective before the noun)
- The house is **nice** but the garden is very **small*** (adjective after the noun, joined with a linking verb)

5. ADVERBS

Adverbs change verbs. We can say *she talked* and we can say *she talked **slowly***.



moving **quickly**

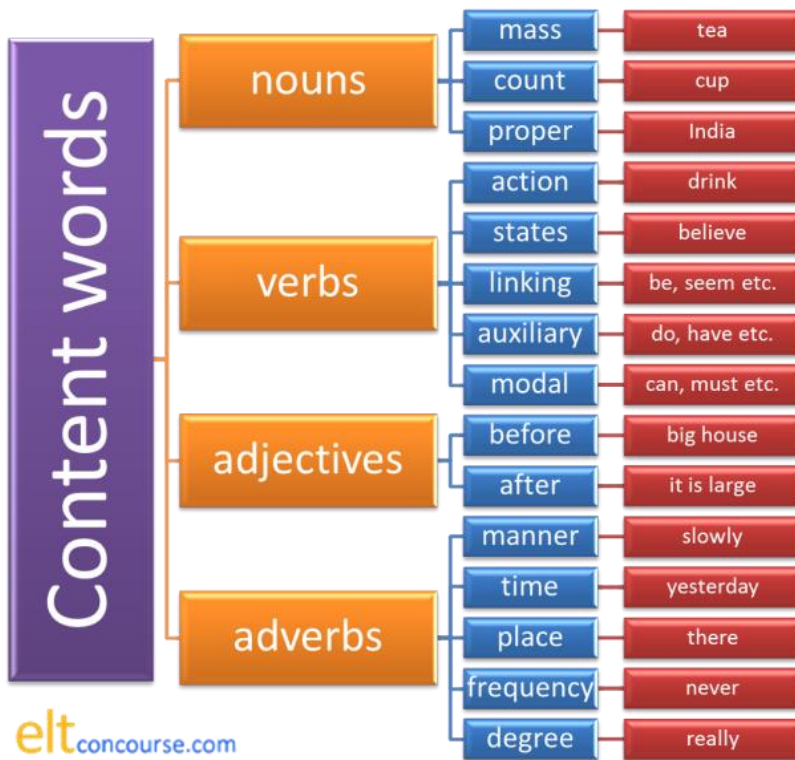
Adverbs describe verbs (and can describe adjectives and other adverbs as well).

There are 5 types which answer different questions:

- How? Adverbs of manner: *he drove **quickly**, he walked **slowly**, he spoke **happily***
- When? Adverbs of time: *I'll arrive **soon**, She left **early**, I'm flying **tomorrow***
- Where? Adverbs of place: *sit **here**, please smoke **outside**, come **in***
- How often? Adverbs of frequency: *she **often** works at home, they **never** take a holiday, we **sometimes** play cards*
- How much? Adverbs of degree: *I like it **a lot**, they **really** enjoy their food, he drove **very** quickly, she **mostly** enjoyed the play*

See the chapter on describing words for more.

Here is the big picture:



Grammar or Function words

These words mean nothing when they are alone. They must be part of a sentence for you to understand them. There are 4 different types of function words.

1. DETERMINERS

These words change how we see a noun. For example, we can have:

*she has **one** cat, **this** cat is pretty, **my** cat is not very clever, **some** cats are in the garden, **the** cat wants food, **a** cat came into the house, **which** cat is your cat?*

and the determiners change how we understand the words *cat*, *garden* and *house*.

Determiners **always** come in front of the noun and there are 5 types:



the cat is sleeping



that cat in the tree



whose cat is that?



his cat**two** big cats

Here are some examples of the 5 types:

- a. *a, an, the*. These are articles and they tell you if you are talking about a special noun or not.
For example:
A cat came in (this is one cat that I don't know)
The cat came in (this is a cat I know)
- b. *this, that, these, those*. These are demonstratives and they tell me where the cat is. For example:
This cat here
Those cats there
That cat in the garden
These cats in the garden
- c. *wh-* words. These words make questions:
Which cat?
What cats?
Whose cat?
- d. *my, your, his, her, our, their*. These are possessives and show us who has something. For example:
My cat is in the house
His cat is stupid
Their cats are in the garden
- e. *some, many, a few, two, three, ten, a little, lots of, no, several*. These are quantifiers and tell us how much or how many. For example:
There are **four** cats in the house
Several cats came in
Many cats are white
No cats are in the garden

2. PRONOUNS

These are small words which stand for things or people. There are two types:



Personal: **she** is playing golf **Other:** **nobody** in the restaurant

Here are some examples:

- a. *I, me, you, she, he, it, her, him, we, us, they, them*. These are personal pronouns because they usually stand for people. The pronoun *it* stands for one thing only and the pronoun *they* stands for more than one thing or more than one person.
- b. For example:
I want a cat
She wants **it**
We gave **them** a cat
Please tell **us**
- c. *something, someone, anything, anyone, some, any, nothing* etc.
These do not stand for a special person or thing. For example:
Do you want **something**?
I have **nothing** to eat

*Can I give you **some**?*

*Is **anyone** at home?*

See the chapter on pronouns for more.

3. PREPOSITIONS

These words usually tell us when or where. They join the verb to the noun or pronoun and there are two main types:



Place: in the square



Time: at 12:03

- a. Place. For example:
 - He is waiting **at** the bus stop*
 - She is sitting **in** my chair*
 - They have lunch **in** the square*
 - The restaurant is **in** the corner of the square*
- b. Time. For example:
 - He will wait **until** 6 o'clock*
 - She came **on** Sunday*
 - They left **after** the film*
 - The train arrived **at** the right time*

See the chapter on saying where and when for more

4. CONJUNCTIONS

These words join ideas together. There are three types.



Coordinating



Subordinating



Correlating

Here are some examples:

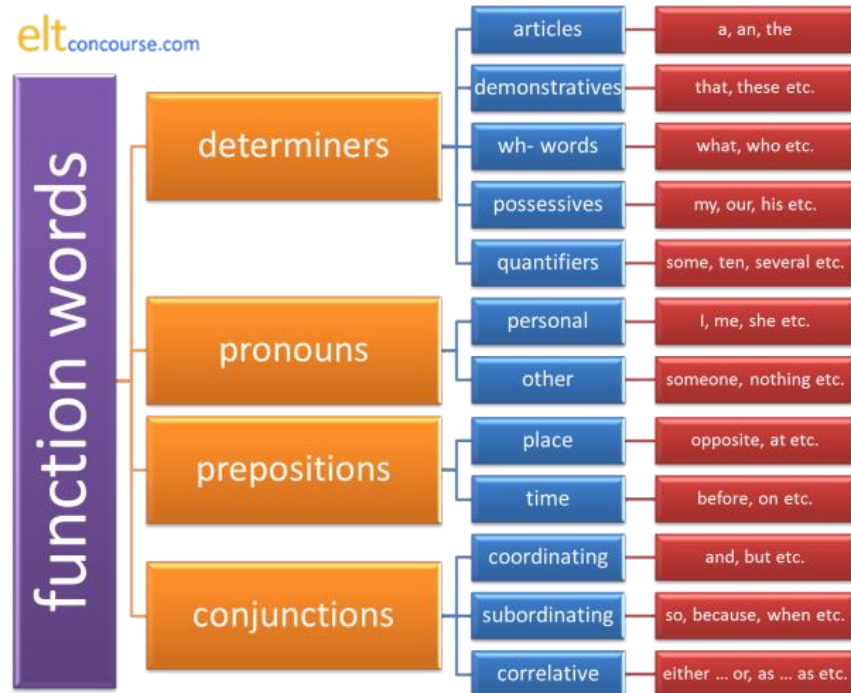
- a. Joining (coordinating) two equal ideas. For example:
 - He went to the market **and** he bought a new hat*
 - I telephoned **but** nobody answered*
- b. Making one idea depend on another (subordinating). For example:
 - I came **because** he asked me*
 - She will come **if** she has time*
- c. Double (correlating) conjunctions put two ideas together. For example:

Both John *and* Mary came

Whether he comes *or* not is important

See the chapter on joining ideas for more.

Here is the big picture:



Tests:

There are three tests on eltconcourse.com:

[Content words](#)

[Function words](#)

[All words](#)

Chapter 2

Sentences in English

A sentence contains the **subject** and its **predicate**. For example:

Subject	Predicate
<i>My brother</i>	<i>came home late</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>smokes</i>
<i>They and both their friends</i>	<i>came to the party</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>enjoyed the play I went to in London last night</i>

Usually in English, the subject comes first, then the verb and then other information. Some languages are different. How does it work in your language?



Subjects, Verbs, Objects + more

To make a good sentence in English, you need to understand the four important parts. We will take this as the example sentence:

Mary kissed **Peter** **this morning**

The subject

Mary is the subject of the verb. **She** kissed

The verb

The verb is *kiss + ed* (making the past tense). It tells us **what happened**.

The Object

The object is *Peter*. **He** received the kiss

More information

The extra information is *this morning*. This is a determiner + noun: *this + morning*. It tells us when but these phrases can tell us where (for example, *in the town square*). We can have lots of these, for example, *Mary kissed Peter in the town square this morning at 9 o'clock*.

We can also move the phrases. For example:




This morning at 9 o'clock, Mary kissed Peter in the town square

At 9 o'clock this morning, Mary kissed Peter in the town square

In the town square this morning at 9 o'clock Mary kissed Peter

Notice that, in English, we must put the subject first. If we say *Peter kissed Mary*, the meaning is different. In all the examples, we have subject + verb + object. This is how English works and your language may be different. Is it?

All the parts of the sentence can be more than one word but they do the same things. Here are some examples:

No.		More information	subject	verb	object 1	object 2	More information
1		All day yesterday	the horses	were standing			in the snow
2			The customer	paid			with a credit card
3		Yesterday	my father	bought	a new shirt		in town
4			The little boys	gave	the soldier	a beautiful apple	this morning
5		Yesterday	my friend's younger sister	happily rode	her new moped		through the park



Some things to notice

- In all the examples, the order is **subject + verb + object**
- In all the sentences, we **must** have the subject and the verb.
- The extra information can come before or after the main information.
- In sentences 1 and 2, there are no objects.
The verb *stand* never takes an object (it is **intransitive**).

The verb *pay* can sometimes take an object. It can be **transitive** (with an object) or intransitive (with no object).

For example:

I paid the shop assistant

and sometimes it does not take an object. For example:

We went to a restaurant and I paid

The verb in sentence 5 (*ride*) is also sometimes transitive:

I rode a moped

and sometimes intransitive:

I rode into town

- e. In sentence 4, there are two objects: *the soldier* and *a beautiful apple*.

The verb *give* is always transitive (with an object) but sometimes **ditransitive** (with two objects). The first object is called the **indirect object** (the soldier) and the second object is the **direct object** (a beautiful apple).

We can say:

The little boys gave a beautiful apple

but **not**

The little boys gave the soldier. That's **wrong**.

- f. In sentence 5, the verb has two words: an adverb, *happily*, and the verb, *rode*.

We call this the **verb phrase**.

- g. In all sentences, the subject and the object are more than one word:

Subjects are: *the horses*, *The customer*, *my father*, *The little boys*, *my friend's younger sister*, *the horses*

Objects are: *a new shirt*, *the soldier*, *a beautiful apple*, *her new moped*

We call these the **noun phrases**.

- h. In sentence 1, we have *all day yesterday* and in sentence 4, we have *this morning*. These are **adverb phrases**. The word *yesterday* in sentences 3 and 5 is a simple adverb of time.

- i. In sentence 1, we have *in the snow*, in sentence 2 we have *with a credit card* and in sentence 3 we have *through the park*. These are all **prepositional phrases**.

For more about verbs, see the chapter on Doing and Being words.



The parts of a sentence

We can have a very simple sentence like:

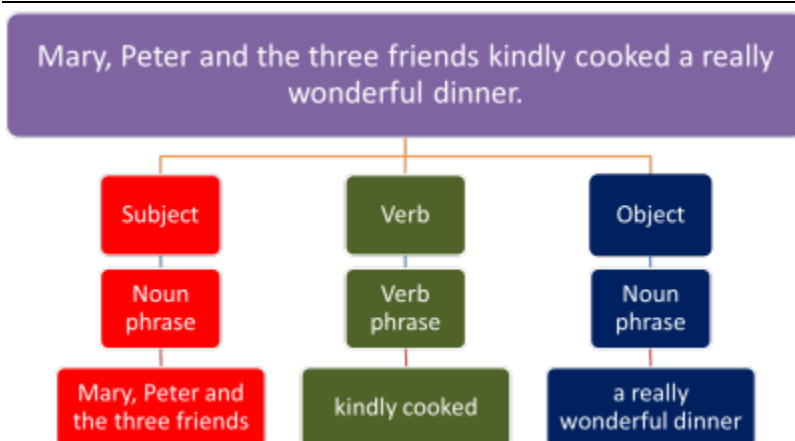
Peter cooked dinner

when it is easy to see that *Peter* is the subject, *cooked* is the verb and *dinner* is the object.

Sometimes, the parts of a sentence are longer but they still do the same thing. For example:

Mary, Peter and the three friends kindly cooked a really wonderful dinner.

We can see the parts of the sentence in the same way:



Nothing has changed! We have the subject, then the verb and then the object. This time the subject, the verb and the object are called phrases because they are all more than one word.

There are other phrases we can put into sentences. Here's a list:

Type of phrase	what it does	example	example sentence
noun phrase	can be the subject or the object	<i>the old gardener</i>	<i>The old gardener</i> talked about it I spoke to <i>the old gardener</i>
verb phrase	is the verb	<i>walked carefully</i>	She walked carefully across the road
prepositional phrase	tells us where or when	<i>across the road</i> <i>at night</i>	She walked across the road She drove at night
adverb phrase	tells us about a verb	<i>very slowly and really carefully</i>	I drank the whisky very slowly and really carefully
adjective phrase	tells us about a noun phrase	<i>very old and tired</i>	The very old and tired gardener went to sleep



To understand a sentence in any language, you must look carefully at what the parts are and what they do. It is not too difficult.



What sentences do in English

Sentences can do 5 things in English (and most languages). Here they are:



Statements or Positive sentences

All the examples so far are statements. They say something positive. For example:

She arrived

She arrived late

I was happy

Mary kissed Peter

I can see her

etc.



Negatives

These do the opposite. They say something negative. For example:

She didn't arrive

She didn't arrive late

I was not happy

Mary didn't kiss Peter

I can't see her

etc.

With most verbs, we use *do not*, *does not* or *did not* to make the negatives.

With *be*, *have* and auxiliary verbs, we just use *not*.



Questions or Interrogatives

These ask. We can make three types of questions:

1. Simple questions. For example:

Did she arrive?

Did she arrive late?

Were you happy?

Did Mary kiss Peter?

Can you see her?

etc.

With most verbs, we use *do*, *does* or *did* to make the questions.

With *be*, *have* and auxiliary verbs, we put the verb first and the subject second.

What does your language do?

2. Negative questions. For example:

Didn't she arrive?

Didn't she arrive late?

Weren't you happy?

Didn't Mary kiss Peter?

Can't you see her?

etc.

We make these the same way but use the negative forms.

3. Tag questions. For example:

She arrived, didn't she?

She didn't arrive, did she?

You were happy, weren't you?

You weren't happy, were you?

Mary kissed Peter, didn't she?

Mary didn't kiss Peter, did she?

You can see her, can't you?

You can't see her, can you?

With most verbs, we use *do*, *does* or *did not* at the end after a comma to make the questions.

With *be*, *have* and auxiliary verbs, we change the verb and the subject round after the comma.

Many languages have a single tag to do this. What does your language do?



Orders or Imperatives

These sentences tell other people what to do. This is the only time we do not use the subject in an English sentence. Often, we use *please* with these sentences. They can be negative or positive imperatives. For example:

Tell her to come, please

Tell me!

Please look at it

Don't tell her

Go!

Please don't go

Be careful!

With most of these, we just use the verb or the verb with *do not* to make the imperative.



Exclamations

We use these when we are angry or surprised etc. For example:

What a beautiful day!

How interesting!

How stupid of you!

We use *what* or *how* to start these sentences and **they do not have a verb**. Usually, it is simply ***what / how + adjective + noun***.

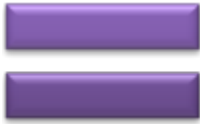
What a simple grammar!



Compound and complex sentences

All the examples so far are of simple sentences: one subject + one verb. We can make longer sentences by adding ideas together. Like this:

Compound sentences



In these, we join two equal ideas with a word like *and* or *but*. For example:

She arrived late + He came early = She arrived late and he came early.

She looked for her friend + She didn't find her friend = She looked for her friend but didn't find him

In this example, we do not need to say *she* again because we know who *looked* and who *didn't find*. We can change *her friend* to *him* because we know it was *her friend*.

In compound sentences, the parts can stand alone and mean something correct.

Complex sentences



In these we join a main idea to a second idea which is not equal. We use words like *so*, *because*, *although* and *when* to do this. For example:

It was raining so I took an umbrella

Because it was raining, I took an umbrella

I didn't take an umbrella although it was raining

It wasn't raining when I left the house

These ideas are joined together and cannot stand alone **with the correct meaning**.

We can have longer sentences using both these things and make a compound-complex sentence. For example:

It was raining	and	the weather was cold	so	I took an umbrella	and	wore my coat
----------------	-----	----------------------	----	--------------------	-----	--------------

Test:

[There is one test on eltconcourse.com on this chapter.](#)

Chapter 3

Names for things: nouns



Nouns are the words we use to give names to things, actions and people. There 4 different types of nouns but they all do the same thing.



Albert Einstein

Proper nouns

Proper nouns are the names for people and places. They usually begin with a CAPITAL letter. Here are some examples:

- **People**
 - *Mary, Tiger Woods, Mr. Smith, Uncle Fred* etc.
 - We do not put *a, an* or *the* before these nouns.
- **Jobs and Positions**
 - *The President, The Pope, The Queen* etc.
 - We usually put *the* before these nouns because there is only one of them.
- **Places and buildings**
 - *Britain, Germany, Margate, London, Lake Victoria, Jamaica, The Thames, The Suez Canal, Baker Street, St Paul's Cathedral, The Tate Gallery* etc.
 - Sometimes we put *the* before these nouns. Like this:
 - **rivers, mountain ranges and canals**
 - We usually put *the* before these: *The Thames, The Nile, The Himalayas, The Alps, The Suez Canal, The Panama Canal*
 - **lakes, countries, islands, streets and cities**
 - We do not usually put *the* before these: Lake Tanganyika, France, Crete, Rome.
 - But we **do** put *the* in front of the name of the country if it contains an adjective like *united* or *Arab*: *The United States of America, The United Kingdom, The Federal Republic of Germany, The Arab Emirates*
 - **buildings and mountains**
 - This is not easy because we sometimes use *the* and sometimes we don't!
 - *The Guggenheim Museum, Scotland Yard, Mont Blanc, The Eiger*



The army

Collective nouns

In all languages, some nouns are used for groups of things or people. In English, these can be both singular and plural but in most languages (yours?), they are only singular. For example, in English, we can say:

The army is very large (thinking about it as a single thing) and *The army are helping* (thinking about the army as a lot of people)

We can also have:

The football team are playing on Sunday and *The football team is playing on Sunday* (in the first one, we are thinking about all the players separately; in the second one we are thinking of it as a single unit)

Other collective nouns are, e.g., *navy, crew, flock, herd, staff, committee, government, class, staff* etc.

In American English, these words are normally used with a singular verb.

What does your language do?



milk



pencils

Mass nouns and Count nouns

This is a very important difference in English

Most nouns in English are count nouns. Count nouns have a singular (for one) and plural (for more than one).

This means we can say, for example:

- I have three pencils*
- I want that pencil*
- The pencil is here*
- Those pencils are no good*
- Please give me a pencil*
- I have several pencils on the desk*

Many nouns in English are mass nouns. These nouns do not have a plural. We can say, for example:

- I want that milk*
- I have some milk*
- The milk is here*
- This milk is bad*
- Please give me some milk*
- I have some milk in the glass*

BUT we **CANNOT** say:

I have three milks This is wrong because we cannot count *milk*

I want those milks This is wrong because *milk* cannot have a plural

Those milks are no good This is wrong because we cannot have a plural and we cannot use a plural verb (*are*) with a mass noun like *milk*

Mass nouns always use a singular verb and never take a plural.

Most mass nouns are:



Materials: metals, liquids, gases, cloth etc.

For example:

It's made of iron

She needs water

There's no air in here

The chair is covered with blue cloth



Ideas and Feelings

For example:

Love is important for children

She has no understanding

You have my sympathy

His anger was clear



Weather

For example

There's a lot of snow this winter

We have a lot of rain in the spring

The sunshine is nice

There are hundreds of mass nouns in English but here is a list of very common ones:

advice	danger	hair	kindness	pronunciation	snow	understanding
air	education	happiness	knowledge	punctuation	soup	warmth
anger	energy	health	labour	quality	sport	water
art	equipment	heat	laughter	quantity	strength	weather
bread	fire	help	love luck	rain	sugar	weight
cash	food	honesty	management metal	rice	sunshine	wood
cheese	freedom	housework	milk	rubbish	tea	work
childhood	friendship	humour	money	safety	time	
clothing	fun	imagination	music	sand	traffic	
coffee	furniture	information	news	shopping	transportation	
damage	gold	intelligence	paper	sleep smoke	travel	

Are they the same in your language? For example, can you say *three informations* in your language? You cannot say that in English.



Small objects

For example:

They grow rice here

The sand gets in my shoes

The dust is everywhere

Use milk powder in the pudding



States

For example:

I need more sleep




Childhood is a good time

You can't buy happiness






The grammar of mass and count nouns

? + noun

Noun	Before the noun	But ...	For example
 <p>Singular count nouns like pencil, car, house, person, cat, elephant</p>	<p>one, every, any, this, that, the, a(n)</p>	<p>We must always use a determiner with these words.</p>	<p>I have only one pencil Every pencil is broken Any pencil is OK This pencil is no good That pencil is better WRONG: I live in house I have much pencil Pencil is on the table</p>
 <p>Plural count nouns like pencils, cars, houses, people, cats, elephants</p>	<p>many, some, several, these, those, the, a couple of or no word</p>	<p>a/an is not possible</p>	<p>I have many pencils I want some pencils There are several pencils on the desk These pencils are no good Those pencils are better Give me a couple of pencils Pencils must be sharp WRONG: This pencils are good A pencils are OK</p>
 <p>Mass nouns like milk, information, hope, education, tea</p>	<p>much, little, less, more, this, that or no word</p>	<p>It is possible to have no determiner</p>	<p>How much milk do we have? We have a little milk There is less milk in the fridge Give me some more milk This milk is bad That milk is better Milk is good for children WRONG: I have a milk I have several milk Every milk is good These milk are OK A couple of milk is good</p>

noun + ?

Noun	After the noun	But ...	For example
 <p>Singular count nouns like <i>pencil, car, house, person, cat, elephant, team</i></p>	<p>a singular verb like <i>is, breaks, opens, lives</i></p>	<p>Collective nouns (like <i>team</i> and <i>family</i>) can be plural</p>	<p><i>The pencil is on the floor</i> <i>The car was clean</i> <i>The house looks nice</i> <i>The person is ringing the bell</i> <i>The cat sleeps here</i> <i>The elephant smells awful</i> <i>The team is coming</i> <i>The team are playing</i> <i>His family is nice</i> <i>My family are coming</i> WRONG: <i>The pencil are here</i> <i>The house open</i></p>
 <p>Plural count nouns like <i>pencils, cars, houses, people, cats, elephants, team</i></p>	<p>Always a plural verb</p>	<p>Singular collective nouns can be plural</p>	<p><i>The pencils are on the desk</i> <i>The cars have arrived</i> <i>The houses look beautiful</i> <i>The people are here</i> <i>The cats are eating</i> <i>The elephants are angry</i> <i>The team are here</i> WRONG: <i>These pencils is good</i> <i>A pencil are OK</i></p>
 <p>Mass nouns like <i>milk, information, hope, education, tea</i></p>	<p>Always a singular verb</p>	<p>No exceptions</p>	<p><i>The milk is in the fridge</i> <i>The information is useful</i> <i>Hope is important</i> <i>Education is necessary</i> <i>Tea is common in England</i> WRONG: <i>Some milk are in the fridge</i> <i>Some informations are helpful</i></p>

Test:

[There is one test on eltconcourse.com on this chapter.](http://eltconcourse.com)

Chapter 4

Doing and Being words: verbs



There are three types of verb in English.



Main verbs

These are sometimes called lexical or content verbs. We will call them main verbs and there are some different types of these.

This is a simple grammar so we will look at the main differences.

With or without an object? Transitive or intransitive?



He cut my hair

He cut



She stood a tree

She stood alone in the forest



He smokes

He smokes a pipe

This is very important because languages do things differently. As you read, think about what happens in your language.

*Two sentences here are **in red** and they are wrong.*

He cut my hair

is correct because we have subject (*he*), the verb (*cut*) and the object (*my hair*). The verb *cut* **always** takes an object.

We cannot say

He cut

because we need to know **what** *he cut*. We cannot understand the meaning without an object.

cut is a **transitive** verb.

She stood

is correct and we only have the subject (*she*) and the verb (*stood*). We also have an adverb (*alone*) and a prepositional phrase (*in the forest*) but we can take away the adverb and the prepositional phrase and just say *She stood*. It is still correct and we can understand the meaning.

She stood a tree

Is wrong and makes no sense because the verb *stand* **never** takes an object.
stand is an **intransitive** verb.

He smokes

He smokes a pipe

Both of these are correct because the verb *smoke* can be transitive:

He smokes a pipe

and intransitive:

He smokes

We can understand both sentences and both are correct.



Verbs with double objects

Some verbs can take two objects.

For example, we can say

He bought the drinks

and that's a verb with one object (*the drinks*) but we can also say

He bought us the drinks

and here we have two objects, *the drinks* (the **direct object**) and *us* (the **indirect object**).

Other examples of verbs which can or must take two objects include

ask, bring, buy, cook, cost, cut, feed, get, give, lend, make, order, owe, pass, promise, read, sell, send, show, teach, tell, throw, write

For example:

She asked a question and She asked me a question

He brought a cup of tea and He brought his wife a cup of tea

He read a story and He read the child a story

He wrote a letter and He wrote his mother a letter

In English, the indirect object usually comes first but we can use a preposition to change that:

He read the child a story = He read a story to the child

He wrote his mother a letter = He wrote a letter to his mother

This is important because languages are different. Some language cannot do this.

Can yours?

How does it work in your language?



Changing the meaning

Some verbs change their meaning when they are used with or without an object. For example:

- She changed* (put on new clothes, intransitive)
- She changed her mind* (had a different idea, transitive)
- He ran after the bus* (to follow quickly, intransitive)
- He ran the business* (to manage, transitive)
- She called at 6* (to visit, intransitive)
- She called me* (to telephone, transitive)



When you learn a verb in English, you must learn if it takes no object, one object or two objects. If you don't, you'll make mistakes like these:

She arrived the hotel

That's wrong because *arrive* is intransitive in English. It should be
She arrived at the hotel

We cannot say:

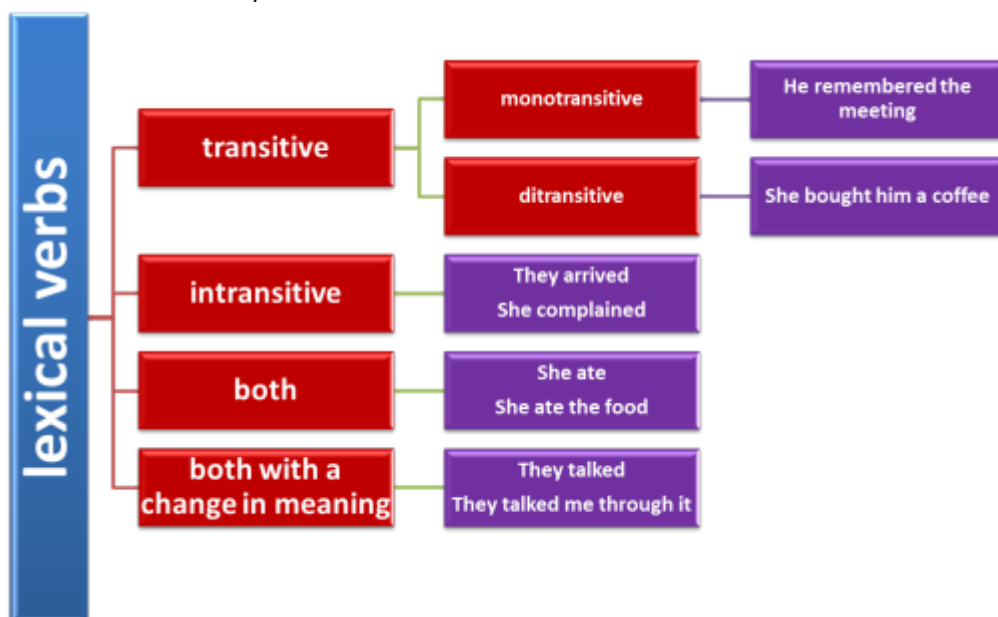
It happened the game on Saturday

That's wrong because *happen* is intransitive in English. It should be
The game happened on Saturday

Here is a short list of some common verbs.

usually transitive (with an object)	usually intransitive (with no object)	transitive and intransitive (with and without an object)	can be ditransitive (with 2 objects)
<i>ask</i>	<i>arrive</i>	<i>break</i>	<i>ask</i>
<i>believe</i>	<i>come</i>	<i>drive</i>	<i>bring</i>
<i>buy</i>	<i>die</i>	<i>drop</i>	<i>give</i>
<i>contact</i>	<i>disappear</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>hand</i>
<i>describe</i>	<i>fall</i>	<i>end</i>	<i>lend</i>
<i>discuss</i>	<i>happen</i>	<i>enter</i>	<i>offer</i>
<i>enjoy</i>	<i>lie</i>	<i>finish</i>	<i>owe</i>
<i>find</i>	<i>live</i>	<i>fly</i>	<i>pay</i>
<i>join</i>	<i>rain</i>	<i>leave</i>	<i>promise</i>
<i>like</i>	<i>snow</i>	<i>manage</i>	<i>send</i>
<i>lose</i>	<i>wait</i>	<i>call</i>	<i>show</i>
<i>love</i>	<i>work</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>teach</i>
<i>make</i>		<i>smoke</i>	<i>tell</i>
<i>need</i>		<i>turn</i>	
<i>receive</i>		<i>win</i>	
<i>take</i>		<i>write</i>	
<i>telephone</i>		These verbs often have a different meaning in the two uses.	
<i>use</i>			
<i>want</i>			
<i>watch</i>			

Here's a short summary of this:



Auxiliary or helping verbs

Main verbs mean something when they stand alone. For example, the word *stand* has a meaning when it is not in a sentence like *She stood*.

Auxiliary verbs do not have a meaning. They help other verbs to make a meaning. For example, *can* means nothing if we do not know what verb follows it.

There are two types of auxiliary verbs in English.

1. Primary auxiliary verbs

These are the verbs *be*, *have*, *do* and *get*. They make tenses and aspects with main verbs. See the chapter on tense and aspect for more. Here are examples only:

be:

making progressive or continuous forms: *I am walking, I was reading* etc.

making passive sentences: *It was broken, They will be asked* etc.

have:

making perfect tenses: *She has arrived, They had left* etc.

making causatives: *I had my hair cut, She had her money stolen* etc.

do:

making questions: *Do you need this? Don't you believe me? You paid, didn't you?* etc.

making negatives: *Don't break it, I didn't know that, She doesn't understand* etc.

get:

making causatives: *I got my car washed, She got her windows cleaned* etc.

making passive sentences: *She got promoted, The window got broken in the storm* etc.

2. Modal auxiliary verbs.

These verbs tell us what the speaker thinks and they mean nothing without a main verb. For more, see the chapter on special verbs. Here are some examples:

expressing obligation: *I must go, You should come on time* etc.

expressing certainty: *She can't be so stupid!, They must be in London by now* etc.

expression advice: *You should see a doctor, She ought to write to him* etc.

expressing ability: *I can help you, They can't speak French* etc.

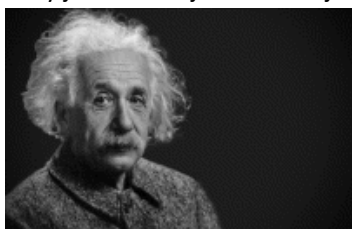


Linking verbs

These are sometimes called copular verbs.

1. These verbs join things together in three ways.

They join the subject to an adjective.



For example:

*He **is** very intelligent*

*She **seems** nice*

*This **tastes** good*

*That **sounds** terrible*

2. They join the subject to another noun.



For example:

*She **is** her sister*

*The man **was** the manager*

*He **became** a teacher*

3. They join the subject to a prepositional phrase.



For example:

*The cat **was** on the carpet*

*She **appeared** in the garden*

*She **was** in the house*

The most common linking verb is the verb *be*. Here are some others:
appear, become, get, grow, fall, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste (like)



Making questions and negative sentences

How we make a question and a negative sentence is different for different types of verbs.



Main verbs in simple tenses

With main verbs in simple tenses, we use the verb *do* to make questions and negative sentences. Like this:

Tense	Positive sentence	Question	Negative sentence
Present	<i>I know him</i>	Do I know him?	I don't (do not) know him
	<i>You know him</i>	Do you know him?	You don't (do not) know him
	<i>She speaks French</i>	Does she speak French?	She doesn't (does not) speak French
	<i>He knows her</i>	Does he know her?	He doesn't (does not) know her
	<i>The bus stops here</i>	Does the bus stop here?	The bus doesn't (does not) stop here
	<i>We park the car here</i>	Do we park the car here?	We don't (do not) park the car here
	<i>You work in London</i>	Do you work in London?	You don't (do not) work in London
	<i>They travel by train</i>	Do they travel by train?	They don't (do not) travel by train
Past	<i>I knew him</i>	Did I know him?	I didn't (did not) know him
	<i>You knew him</i>	Did you know him?	You didn't (did not) know him
	<i>She spoke French</i>	Did she speak French?	She didn't (did not) speak French
	<i>He knew her</i>	Did he know her?	He didn't (did not) know her
	<i>The bus stopped here</i>	Did the bus stop here?	The bus didn't (did not) stop here
	<i>We parked the car here</i>	Did we park the car here?	We didn't (did not) park the car here
	<i>You worked in London</i>	Did you work in London?	You didn't (did not) work in London
	<i>They travelled by train</i>	Did they travel by train?	They didn't (did not) travel by train

For the present simple tense the rules are:

1. To make questions:
 1. Put **do** or **does** before the subject
 2. For **he, she** or **it**, use **does**.
 3. For all other forms, use **do**
2. To make negatives:

1. Put **don't (do not)** or **doesn't (does not)** between the subject and the verb
2. For **he, she** and **it**, use **doesn't (does not)**
3. For all other forms use **don't (do not)**

For the past simple tense, the rules are:

1. To make questions:
 1. Put **did** before the subject
2. To make negatives:
 1. Put **didn't (did not)** between the subject and the verb

have as a main verb

Sometimes, the verb *have* is a main verb meaning *own* or *possess*. When it is a main verb, the verb *have* works in two ways:

Tense	Positive sentence	Question	Negative sentence
Like a main verb, for example:			
Present	<i>I have time</i>	Do I have time?	I don't (do not) have time
	<i>You have a dog</i>	Do you have a dog?	You don't (do not) have a dog
	<i>He has the money her</i>	Does he have the money?	He doesn't (does not) have the money
	<i>You have my address</i>	Do you have my address?	You don't (do not) have my address
With <i>got</i> , in British English, for example:			
Present	<i>You have got enough money</i>	Have you got enough money?	You haven't got enough money
	<i>He has got a lot of work</i>	Has he got a lot of work?	He hasn't got a lot of work
	<i>The children have got too many toys</i>	Have the children got too many toys?	The children haven't got too many toys
	<i>You have got three sisters</i>	Have you got three sisters?	You haven't got three sisters
In the past tense, <i>have</i> works like a main verb, using <i>did</i> to make questions and negatives.			



Auxiliary or helping verbs

The verbs *have* and *be*

These verbs are irregular and they work like this:

Tense	Positive sentence	Question	Negative sentence
Present	<i>I am coming with you</i>	Am I coming with you?	I'm not (am not) coming with you
	<i>You are going to the cinema</i>	Are you going to the cinema?	You aren't (are not) going to the cinema
	<i>She is speaking French</i>	Is she speaking French?	She isn't (is not) speaking French
	<i>John is talking on the</i>	Is John talking on the	John isn't (is not) talking on the

	<i>'phone</i>	<i>'phone?</i>	<i>'phone</i>
	<i>The train is running late</i>	<i>Is the train running late?</i>	<i>The train isn't (is not) running late</i>
	<i>We are cooking dinner</i>	<i>Are we cooking dinner?</i>	<i>We aren't (are not) cooking dinner</i>
	<i>You are smoking a lot</i>	<i>Are you smoking a lot?</i>	<i>You aren't (are not) smoking a lot</i>
	<i>They are coming by car</i>	<i>Are they coming by car?</i>	<i>They aren't (are not) coming by car</i>
Present perfect	<i>I have met him</i>	<i>Have I met him?</i>	<i>I haven't (have not) met him</i>
	<i>You have been to America</i>	<i>Have you been to America</i>	<i>You haven't (have not) been to America</i>
	<i>She has learnt French</i>	<i>Has she learnt French?</i>	<i>She hasn't (has not) learnt French</i>
	<i>He has read the book</i>	<i>Has he read the book?</i>	<i>He hasn't (has not) read the book</i>
	<i>The post has arrived</i>	<i>Has the post arrived?</i>	<i>The post hasn't (has not) arrived</i>
	<i>We have met him</i>	<i>Have we met him?</i>	<i>We haven't (have not) met him</i>
	<i>You have worked in London</i>	<i>Have you worked in London?</i>	<i>You haven't (have not) worked in London</i>
	<i>They have come by train</i>	<i>Have they come by train?</i>	<i>They haven't (have not) come by train</i>
Past progressive	<i>I was coming with you</i>	<i>Was I coming with you?</i>	<i>I wasn't (was not) coming with you</i>
	<i>You were going to the cinema</i>	<i>Were you going to the cinema?</i>	<i>You weren't (were not) going to the cinema</i>
	<i>She was speaking French</i>	<i>Was she speaking French?</i>	<i>She wasn't (was not) speaking French</i>
	<i>John was talking on the 'phone</i>	<i>Was John talking on the 'phone?</i>	<i>John wasn't (was not) talking on the 'phone</i>
	<i>The train was running late</i>	<i>Was the train running late?</i>	<i>The train wasn't (was not) running late</i>
	<i>We were cooking dinner</i>	<i>Were we cooking dinner?</i>	<i>We weren't (were not) cooking dinner</i>
	<i>You were smoking a lot</i>	<i>Were you smoking a lot?</i>	<i>You weren't (were not) smoking a lot</i>
	<i>They were coming by car</i>	<i>Were they coming by car?</i>	<i>They weren't (were not) coming by car</i>
Past perfect	<i>I had met him</i>	<i>Had I met him?</i>	<i>I hadn't (had not) met him</i>
	<i>You had been to America</i>	<i>Had you been to America</i>	<i>You hadn't (had not) been to America</i>
	<i>She had learnt French</i>	<i>Had she learnt French?</i>	<i>She hadn't (has not) learnt French</i>
	<i>He had read the book</i>	<i>Had he read the book?</i>	<i>He hadn't (had not) read the book</i>
	<i>The post had arrived</i>	<i>Had the post arrived?</i>	<i>The post hadn't (had not) arrived</i>
	<i>We had met him</i>	<i>Had we met him?</i>	<i>We hadn't (had not) met him</i>
	<i>You had worked in London</i>	<i>Had you worked in London?</i>	<i>You hadn't (had not) worked in London</i>
	<i>They had come by train</i>	<i>Had they come by train?</i>	<i>They hadn't (had not) come by train</i>

1. For both verbs:

1. We make a question by putting the verbs first (reversing the order of the subject and the verb)
2. We make negative sentences by adding **not** or **n't** after the verbs
2. **For the verb be:**
 1. In the present tense, we use:
 2. **am** for *I*
 3. **is** for *he, she* and *it*
 4. **are** for *you, we* and *they*
 5. In the past tense, we use:
 6. **was** for *I, he, she* and *it*
 7. **were** for *you, we* and *they*
3. **For the verb have:**
 1. In the present tense, we use:
 2. **has** for *he, she* and *it*
 3. **have** for all other forms
 4. In the past we use **had** for all forms

Modal auxiliary verbs

These are verbs like *can, must, should, will, ought to* etc.

1. The rule for making questions is:
 1. We put the modal verb first (reversing the order of the subject and the verb)
2. The rule for making negative sentences is:
 1. We put **not** or **n't** after the modal verbs

For example:

Positive sentence	Question	Negative sentence
<i>I can go</i>	Can <i>I go?</i>	<i>I can't (cannot) go</i>
<i>You must leave now</i>	Must <i>you leave now?</i>	<i>You mustn't (must not) leave</i>
<i>He should write to him</i>	Should <i>he write to him?</i>	<i>He shouldn't (should not) write to him</i>
<i>You ought to arrive early</i>	Ought <i>you to arrive early?</i>	<i>You oughtn't to (ought not to) arrive early</i>
<i>The children will have fun</i>	Will <i>the children have fun?</i>	<i>The children won't (will not) have fun</i>

The negative *will not* is shortened to *won't*.



Differences between your language and English

Look again at the way we make questions and negatives sentences in English and think about:

1. How is my language similar to English?
2. What are the differences between my language and English?
3. What must I be careful about when I speak English?

Test:

[There is one test on eltconcourse.com on this chapter.](#)

Chapter 5

Understanding tense and aspect

Three ideas to start with. It's important to understand the difference:

1. **Time:** this refers to when an event happens.
2. **Tense:** this refers to the form of the verb. For example:
walked and had walked are past tenses
walks and is walking are present tenses
3. **Aspect:** this refers to how the speaker thinks about the event in time. For example:
He walked here is finished and in the past
He has walked here means he is here **now** and I know how he got here
She is playing the piano refers to right now (and is not finished) or an arrangement for the future and not started



The 2 most important things to understand about Englishes tenses

1. English has two types of tenses: absolute and relative.
2. English has only two tenses: past and non-past. There is no pure future tense in English.

When you understand these two things, life is much easier.

Absolute and Relative tense forms

Absolute tenses



These tenses are **fixed** in time. For example:
*I **went** to London.*
*I **will be** 25 years old.*
*I **am** here.*

We can use fixed times and dates with these tenses because they are absolute.

For example:
He arrived yesterday
I will be in Spain next year
She cycled to work last week
I was 31 on 14th March
The train will arrive at six o'clock

Relative tenses



We can only understand the time of these **in relation to** another time. For example:
*I **have done** the work and I **can go** now.*
*He **had finished** the work before he **went**.*

We do not use fixed times with these tenses. We often use words to join two times or dates together.

For example:
Up to now, she has been very kind
I have never eaten this before
Have you finished yet?
She had lived in the same house since she left school

Here are some diagrams to help you understand this very important difference.

1. **Absolute tenses: Past simple, Present simple, Future simple.** These are fixed times and stand alone.

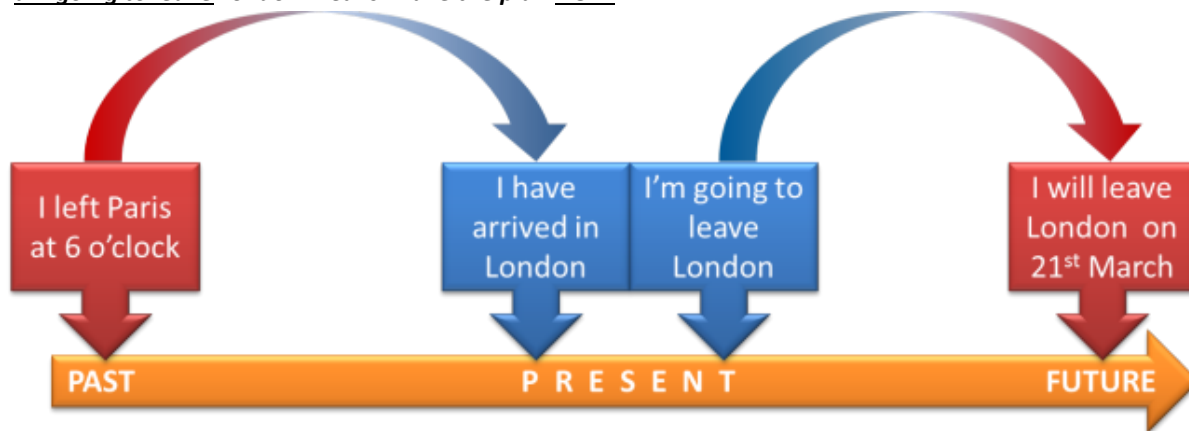


2. **Relative tenses: Present Perfect and Going to.** We can only understand these when they ideas are joined together.

I left Paris is an absolute tense

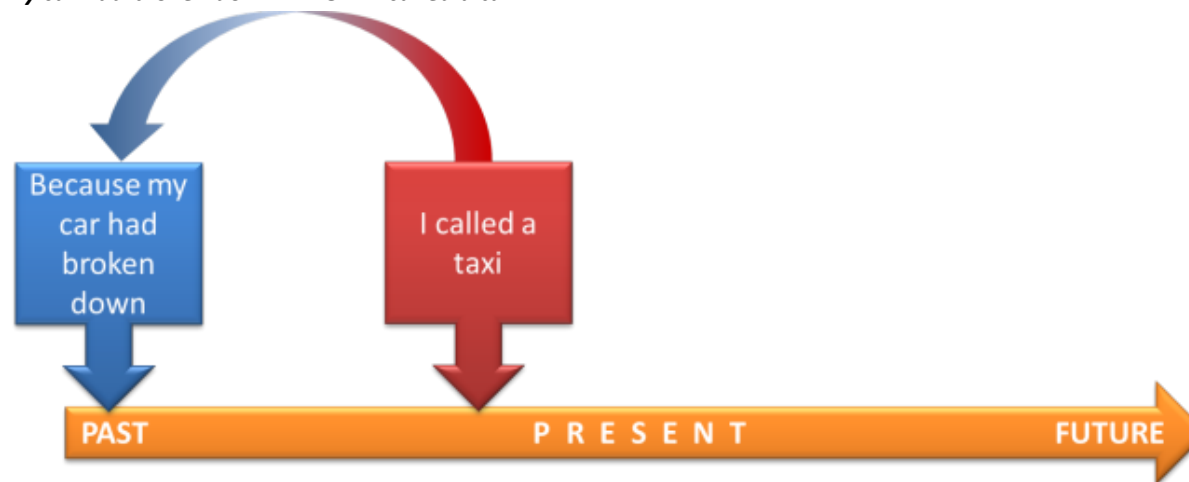
I have arrived in London means I am here NOW.

I am going to leave London means I have the plan NOW.



Here is another example. We understand the past **in relation to** what happened before:

My car had broken down BEFORE I called a taxi.





English tenses

Here is a picture of all the main tenses in English

← Past		Present	Future →	
I used to smoke <i>'used to' structure</i> (a discontinued habit)		I smoke <i>present simple</i> (a habit starting in the past and (probably) continuing into the future)		
I had smoked <i>past perfect simple</i> (an action before another)	I smoked <i>past simple</i> (an action in the past)	I am smoking <i>present progressive</i> (a current action)	I am meeting John <i>present progressive</i> (an arranged future)	I'll have got it <i>future perfect</i> (an action seen from the past in the future)
I had been smoking <i>past perfect progressive</i> (a progressive action)	I was smoking <i>past progressive</i> (a progressive past action)		I'm going to meet John <i>'going to structure'</i> (an intentional future)	I'll have been smoking <i>future perfect progressive</i> (a progressive action seen from the past in the future)
		I have smoked for 10 years <i>present perfect simple</i> (an action beginning in the past and continuing into or having an effect in the present)	It's going to rain (a prediction based on evidence)	
		I have been running <i>present perfect progressive</i> (a progressive action beginning in the past and continuing into or having an effect in the present)	I'll get it! <i>future simple</i> (a spontaneous decision)	
			I will go in the summer (a fixed or predicted future)	
			I will be meeting John <i>future progressive</i> (a progressive event)	

Test:

There is [a test on eltconcourse](#) to see if you can remember the names of the tenses.



The past

These are the past tenses in English:

Tense	Main uses	Examples	NOTICE
Past simple ABSOLUTE	Finished past action or condition	<i>I ate at six, I lived in Brazil, I was happy</i>	ALL THESE SENTENCES ARE ABOUT A FIXED TIME
	Repeated past action	<i>I always ate at six</i>	
Past progressive	Interrupted past action	<i>I was eating when he rang</i>	
	Progressive action at a	<i>I was eating at 7</i>	

ABSOLUTE	particular time		
	Parallel past actions or events	<i>It was raining and the wind was blowing, I was eating while she was watching television</i>	
Past perfect RELATIVE	Completed actions before others in the past	<i>I had already spoken to her before he asked</i>	WE CAN ONLY UNDERSTAND THESE TENSES WHEN THEY ARE TOGETHER. THEY RELATE TO EACH OTHER
	Completed long events before actions in the past	<i>It had rained for a week before the weather broke</i>	
Past perfect progressive RELATIVE	(Un)completed long actions before events in the past	<i>I had been playing chess for two hours before he arrived</i>	
	To show a reason	<i>He had been working too hard and was exhausted</i>	
'used to' ABSOLUTE	Past habits (generally only for actions)	<i>I used to drink lots of coffee, I used to take my holidays in Spain</i>	THESE SENTENCES ARE ABOUT A FIXED TIME

That is all of them. They are not very difficult to use but many languages do not have all of them.

Does your language have these tenses?

The past simple is very common and we use it for actions and states that we see as finished and complete. It is an **absolute** tense. Here are some more examples:

He went to university when he was 18 and left when he was 22

He is not at university now and he is older than 22 now. Both the action (*went*) and the state (*was*) are finished.

They broke my windows with stones and I repaired them

Both the actions are finished. The windows are not broken now.

The past progressive also refers to finished time and finished events or actions. It is also an **absolute** tense and can join two finished events together. For example:

He was cycling to work when he got a telephone call

The cycling and the call are both finished. He is not cycling now and he is not talking on the telephone.

The past perfect tenses are **relative** tenses which connect two events together. For example:

She had invited me so I went to the party

The inviting came **before** the going but they are both finished. She is not talking to me now and the party is over.

She had been running and needed a rest

The running was a long action and that is why she needed a rest.

'used to' is an **absolute** tense. It always means that the subject is not doing it now. For example:

I used to smoke (and don't now)

I used to be impatient (but I'm not impatient now)

There used to be a shop on the corner (but it isn't there now)

In all cases, the action or state is finished.



The future

English has many ways to talk about the future:

Tense	Main uses	Examples	NOTICE
Future simple ABSOLUTE	Certain futures and predictions	<i>This will be difficult</i> <i>I will be 35 tomorrow</i>	ALL THESE SENTENCES ARE ABOUT A FIXED TIME
Future progressive ABSOLUTE	Interrupted action Progressive future event at a specific time	<i>He'll be working when you come</i> <i>I'll be working at 7</i>	
Future perfect RELATIVE	Completed action before another	<i>He'll have finished the book by the time I want it</i>	WE CAN ONLY UNDERSTAND THESE TENSES WHEN THEY ARE TOGETHER. THEY RELATE TO EACH OTHER
	To show reasons	<i>He'll have repaired the car and then we can use it</i>	
	Events occurring before future actions (certain verbs only)	<i>I'll have been at the hotel for a day or two before I can call you</i>	
Future perfect progressive RELATIVE	Future progressive actions or events before other actions To show reasons	<i>I will have been working for over two hours before you get here</i> <i>He'll have been travelling for ten hours and will be tired</i>	

The future simple is used to talk about a fixed future. It is not the same as using will to say that you are happy to do something (that is a present tense). For more, see below.

Here are some more examples:

The train will leave at 18:22
I hope the sun will shine tomorrow
I will arrive by bus

The future progressive is used in the same **absolute** way to talk about something in the future that is certain and fixed.

Here are some more examples:

The train will be travelling at 100 kilometres an hour
She is very busy so will be working late
I'll be waiting for you at the airport from 6 o'clock

The future perfect is a **relative** tense and joins two future things together.

Here are some more examples:

The train will have left before I get there
It will have rained for over 6 hours everyday

He'll have finished soon and then he will go home

The future perfect progressive is not very common but it works in the same way.

Here are some more examples:

I will have been reading for two hours soon

She will have been sleeping for over 9 hours so she'll feel better



Now

English has lots of ways to talk about now. We refer to the past when we talk about now and we talk about the future in relation to now. Most tenses for talking about now are **relational** not **absolute**.

Tense	Main uses	Examples	NOTICE	
Present simple ABSOLUTE	Repeated or habitual actions	<i>I play tennis every Thursday</i>	ALL THESE SENTENCES ARE ABOUT A FIXED TIME	
	Generalisations (something always true)	<i>Flamingos eat fish</i>		
	Schedules and timetables	<i>The train arrives at 8</i>		
	Present states	<i>I am here</i> <i>He needs money</i>		
Present progressive ABSOLUTE	Current actions	<i>He is writing a letter</i>		
	Longer actions which may not be occurring now	<i>He is writing a book</i> <i>He is studying French</i>		
	Arranged future	<i>I'm seeing the doctor tomorrow</i>		
Present perfect RELATIVE	Talking about the present based on the past	<i>I have spoken to him</i>		WE CAN ONLY UNDERSTAND THESE TENSES WHEN THEY ARE TOGETHER. THEY RELATE TO EACH OTHER
		<i>I have been to America</i>		
		<i>I have learnt French (so now I can speak it)</i>		
		<i>He has broken the pump (so now we can't use it)</i>		
Present perfect progressive RELATIVE	Talking about the present based on the past	<i>I've been waiting for hours</i>		
		<i>She's been looking unwell for some time</i>		
		<i>He's been working too hard (so is now exhausted)</i>		
Future simple RELATIVE	Voluntary actions or promises (a present promise or offer)	<i>I'll write soon, I'll do the washing up</i>		
		<i>There's no butter!</i>		
		<i>I'll go and get some.</i>		
'going to' RELATIVE	To express current intention	<i>I'm not going to put up with it</i>		

	To express prediction based on current evidence or experience	<i>Look at those clouds. It's going to rain any minute</i>	
--	---	--	--

The present simple and present progressive are used to talk about now.

Here are some more examples:

She is waiting for a train

I am at home now so come for a coffee

We are now arriving in Manchester

All the other present tenses are **relative** tenses.

Here are some more examples:

He has just arrived at the station but the train is late (this is talking about where he is **now**, not where he was)

She has been having a rest so looks a bit better (this is talking about how she is **now** and why she is better)

I will cook the dinner for us (this is not the same as the future simple: it means I am happy now to do something)

I am taking the train tomorrow (this is the plan I have **NOW**)

I am going to talk to the boss (I have the idea in my head **NOW**)



Understanding aspect

Look at this:



She has finished!

- Where is she now? She is at the finishing line **NOW**.
- Where was she ten minutes ago? She was somewhere on the road in the race.
- Are we talking about the present or the past? We are talking about **THE PRESENT**.

Aspect is the name we give to **HOW** we see something (not when or where).



The main aspects in English

This is not the same in many languages. Think about how **your** language does things as we go.



The perfect aspect

The perfect aspect joins two times together. For example:

Joining the present to the past

John has arrived so now we can start.

This is talking about the present (now we can start) but relating it to the past (John arriving). It is a present tense and it's called the present perfect (present for **now**, perfect for aspect).

Joining the past to the past

He had broken his leg so didn't go on holiday

This is talking about the past (didn't go on holiday) but relating it to another past that came before (breaking his leg). It is a past tense and it's called the past perfect (past for **then**, perfect for aspect).

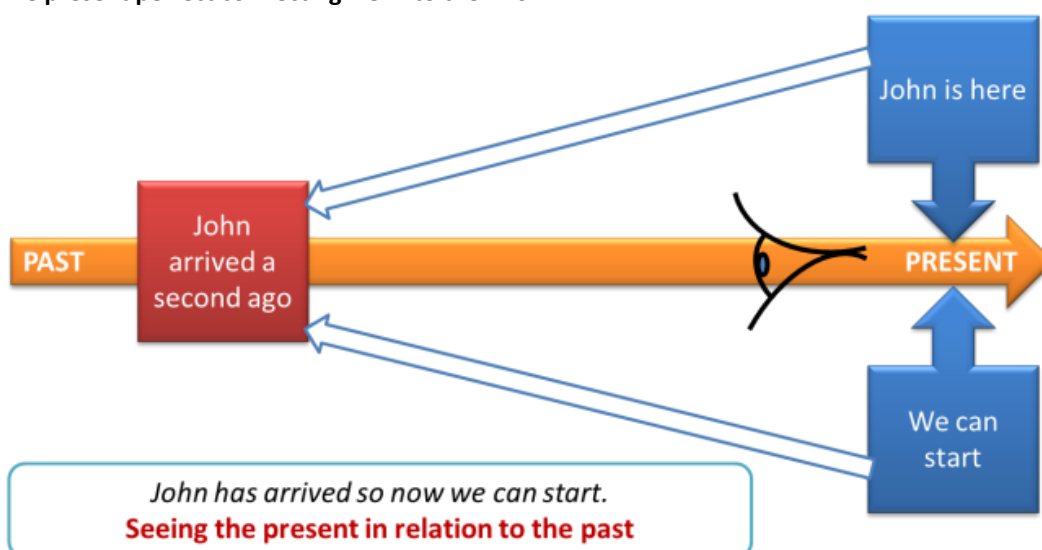
Joining the future to the future

I'll have finished very soon you I'll be home before 5.

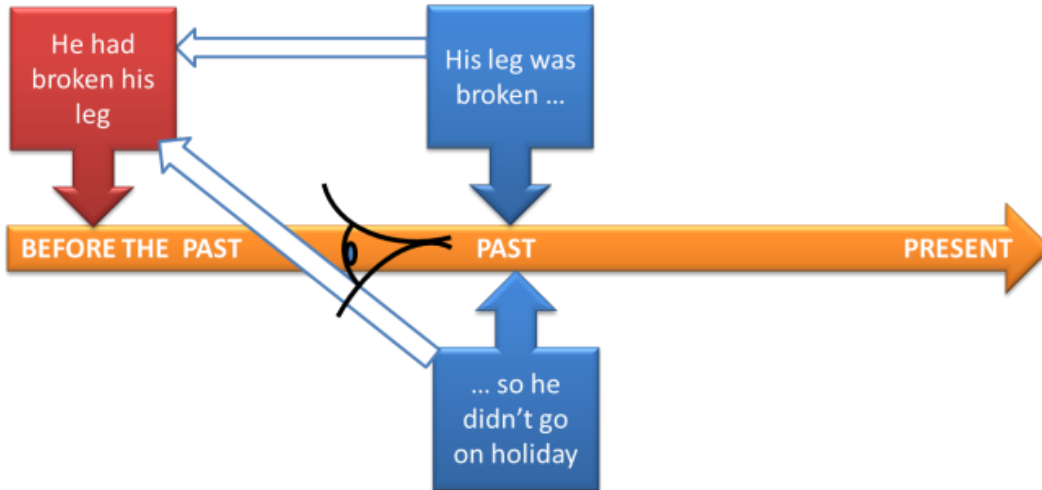
This is talking about the future (I'll be home) but relating it to another future before it (I'll finish). It is a future tense and it's called the future perfect (future for **time after now**, perfect for aspect).

Some pictures will help. The eye tells you how we see the actions.

The present perfect connecting NOW to the PAST:

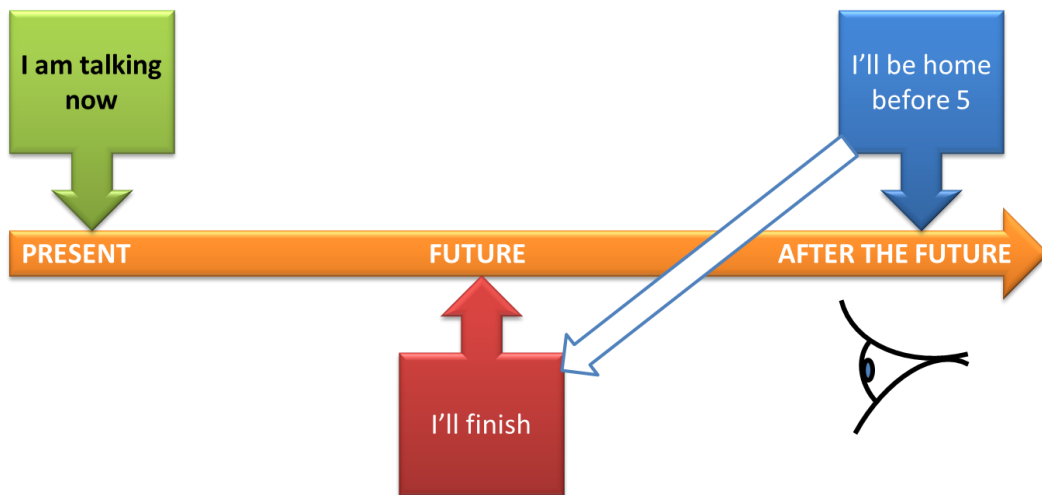


The past perfect connecting the PAST to BEFORE THE PAST:



He had broken his leg so didn't go on holiday.
Seeing the past in relation to the past

The future perfect connecting the FUTURE to an EARLIER FUTURE:



I'll have finished very soon so I'll be home before 5.
Seeing the future in relation to the future before



3 other aspects



progressive aspect *She was running for hours*



continuous aspect *The canal runs through Amsterdam*



repeated aspect *They were banging the drums*
They banged the drums for hours

These three aspects tell us about the type of action.

Progressive

This aspect shows us that the action takes time and goes on.

For example:

She was running for the bus when she fell (a longer action stopped by a short action)

I was reading a book when the telephone rang (a long action interrupted by a short action)

He is sleeping at the moment (a long action, happening now)

With these actions, we do not know the time when they began or when they stop.

Continuous

This aspect tells us about a state, not an action.

For example:

She knows my brother

He sings beautifully (it is his ability, not what he is doing now)

He works in a shop

These actions can sometimes not be happening now. For example:

He works in a shop but today is Sunday so he is walking in the park

Repeated

These are short actions which happen again and again. For example:

Someone is knocking at the door

She is taking photographs

In the past (but not in the present) we can use the simple form of the verb for the repeated aspect. For example:

They banged the drums or *They were banging the drums*

She was taking lots of photographs or *She took lots of photographs*



prospective aspect

This aspect looks forward from the present to the future. For example:

I am having dinner with John tomorrow (I know this **now** because John and I arranged this)

She is going to see her mother tomorrow (she has a plan in her head **now**)

It's going to rain (I can see the black clouds **now**)

The train leaves at 10:18 (the timetable is the same every week)

You can see that in English we have three main ways to talk about the future **based on the present**:

1. With *be + -ing*

I am working in London tomorrow

We use this when something is arranged now

2. With *going to + the base verb*

I am going to visit my mother tomorrow

We use this when we have a plan now

3. With the present simple form

The TV news starts at 6

We use this when there is a schedule or timetable which is always true



The word *will* is used to make a future in English (see above) in, for example:

The train will arrive in 5 minutes

This is a future form in English.

The word *will* is also used (only for people) to say that someone is happy to do something. They are volunteering. For example:

A: Oh, I've left my tea in the kitchen

B: It's OK. I'll bring it to you

The sentence *I'll bring it to you* is **not** a future tense. It is a way to show that you want, or are happy, to do something **now**.

You can see this because only people can make offers or promises:

I'll give you the money is an **offer**, not a future tense

The train will be late is a **future** – trains do not make promises or offers!

Chapter 6

Special or Modal verbs

This is a complicated area but this is a simple grammar. We will not cover all of these verbs and their meanings. The following looks at the most common and simple modal verbs only.



Modal verbs express how we feel about something

They express 5 main ideas and there are 6 common ones.

The 5 ideas modal verbs express are:

1. possibility and logical certainty: *Do you think it will happen or has happened? How sure are you?*
2. willingness and promises: *Do you want to do something?*
3. ability: *Are you able to do something?*
4. obligation, permission and prohibition: *Are you forced to do something? Are you allowed to do something? Are you forbidden to do something?*
5. suggestions and advice: *Is it a good idea to do something?*

The six modal verbs in this grammar are:

- *can / could / be able to*
- *must / have to*
- *will / would*
- *shall / should*
- *may / might*
- *ought to*

There are some more modal verbs but these are the most important.



Why are these verbs special?

1. The **grammar** is different.
 - a. Most verbs make a question by adding *do*, *did* or *does* (for example: *Did you see him? Does he live here?* etc.). These verbs do not. With modal verbs, we just put the verb before the subject. For example:
You can see it → *Can you see it?*
I must go → *Must you go?*
 etc.
 - b. Most verbs take an *-s* at the end with *he*, *she* and *it* in the present tense (for example: *He goes, It rains, She smokes*). These verbs do not:
I can, he must, they can't, she ought to, everybody should

- c. Most verbs make a negative with *do*, *did* or *does* (for example: *I don't understand*, *She didn't arrive*). These verbs do not. With modal verbs we just put *not* after the verb. For example:
- I must not*
 - She should not*
 - We could not*
2. The **meaning** of these verbs can **only** be seen when they are with a main verb. For example, we can understand
- They smoke*
 - She arrived*
 - She must come*
 - You can't help*
 - etc.
- but we **cannot** understand
- They could*
 - She must*
 - We can*
-



Some common modal verbs explained



can / could / be able to *He can read English well*

This verb is used for:

1. Ability:
 - He can read German but can't speak it well*
 - He could play the piano well as a child*
 - He was able to speak Italian when he was 6*
2. Permission (present and future):
 - Can I come in?*
 - No, you can't*
 - Could I talk to you tomorrow?*
 - be able to* is **not** used for permission
3. Possibility and impossibility:
 - Nobody can be sure*
 - The train could be late*
 - She can't be so silly!*
 - be able to* is **not** used to talk about possibility



may / might

You may not park here!

This verb is used for:

1. Permission:
You may ask a question now
May I smoke here?
You may not leave before 6
2. Possibility and impossibility (present and future):
We may arrive a little late
He might come early
Might he be late?
I might not arrive on time



shall / should

Shall we take the dogs for a walk?

This verb is used for:

1. To make questions:
Shall I do my homework now?
2. To make suggestions:
Shall we go?

Should is much more common and can express:

1. Obligation:
You should write to your mother more often
2. Logical certainty:
He should be there by now
Notice that the negative of *He should be there by now* is *He can't be there yet.*
3. Advice:
You should take something for your cold



will / would

Would you like milk?

This verb is used for:

1. Willingness:
I'll get the milk
Will you have another biscuit?

2. Offers (*would only*):
Would you like some cake?
Would you enjoy a little music?
3. Intention or a promise:
I'll send you an email soon
He told me he would write soon
4. Possibility and certainty:
It'll probably rain soon; it often does in November
He knew it would rain
He believed I would come



must / have to
You must not say that!

This verb is used for:

1. Obligation:
You mustn't speak to me like that
You must be home at 6
2. Logical necessity / deduction:
That must be his father
There must be an error in the data

Making the negative of *must* is not easy. For example, with

You must take the medicine every day

The negative can be

You mustn't take the medicine every day (i.e., you are obliged not to)

or

You don't have to take the medicine every day (but you can if you want to)

and with:

The figure must be correct

The negative can be

The figure mustn't be correct (i.e., you must give the **wrong** figure)

or

The figure can't be correct (i.e., there is clearly a mistake here)



ought to
She ought to be in bed.

This verb is used for:

1. Obligation (weaker than *must*):
She ought to ask if she doesn't know
2. Logical deduction / expectation:
The bus ought to be here by now



Time and tense

Only some modal verbs have past-tense forms. Here's a list.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
<i>can</i>	<i>could</i>
<i>may</i>	<i>could / might</i>
<i>shall</i>	<i>should</i>
<i>will</i>	<i>would</i>
<i>must</i>	<i>had to</i>
<i>ought to</i>	----

The past of *may*

may has two past forms. One for possibility, one for permission. We can say

I could ask questions (permission: I was **allowed** to ask questions)

and

I might ask questions (possibility: it is **possible** that I will ask questions)

The past of *must*

is usually *had to*.

I must go tomorrow → *I had to go yesterday*

I must do it now → *I had to do it then*

Test:

There is [a test on eltconcourse.com](http://eltconcourse.com) on the main meanings of these verbs.

Chapter 7

Saying where and when: prepositions

Prepositions tell us where or when something happens or something is. For example:



The train arrives **at** 6 o'clock (when)

The train arrives **on** Platform 3 (where)

It is important to know what comes first in the sentence and where we put the preposition. In English, the preposition comes after the verb and before the place or the time. Like this:

1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th
noun	verb	preposition	time or place
The train	arrives	at	6 o'clock
The train	arrives	on	Platform 5

The preposition tells us how the verb and the noun work together.









How many prepositions?










There are over 200 prepositions in English but, don't worry, most of them are unusual. In this part, we will look at the prepositions you need. You can add to the list later.







Prepositions of place













Here are the 18 most important prepositions of place.

Preposition	Use	Example	Remember the picture
on	fixed for surfaces sides public transport media	<i>on the wall</i> <i>on the table</i> <i>on the left</i> <i>on the bus</i> <i>on television / the radio</i>	 
in	buildings private transport books, boxes, rooms etc.	<i>in the house</i> <i>in a car</i> <i>in the book</i> <i>in the box</i> <i>in the study</i>	 
at	exact place events work places	<i>at platform 6</i> <i>at the party</i> <i>at work</i> <i>at school</i>	 
by next to beside	sides	<i>by me</i> <i>next to her</i> <i>beside Mary</i>	

under	lower	<i>under the water</i>	
over	higher than more than from one side to the other	<i>over the river</i> <i>over 21</i> <i>over the road</i>	
above	higher	<i>above the city</i>	
across	from one side to the other on the other side	<i>(walk) across the road</i> <i>(be) across the road</i>	
through	between two limits	<i>through the tunnel</i>	
to	movement towards	<i>to London</i>	
into	movement to inside	<i>into the water</i>	
towards	movement in direction of	<i>walk towards me</i>	
onto	movement → on	<i>onto the water</i>	

(away) from	movement away	from the garden walk away from me	 
out of	movement to the outside	get out of the building get out of the car	
off	downward or away movement	get off the bus	

Here's a picture of some prepositions of place. Notice that some of them are used for movement, some for place and some for both movement and place.






Dimension	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE	
	direction	position	direction	position
point	to 	at 	(away) from 	away from 
line or surface	on(to) 	on 	off 	off 
area or volume	in(to) 	in 	out of 	out of 



Prepositions of time

Here are the 10 most important prepositions of time:

Preposition	Use	Example	Remember the picture
on	days	<i>on Monday</i> <i>on my birthday</i>	
in	months time of day year periods of time	<i>in January</i> <i>in the morning</i> <i>in 1998</i> <i>in two years</i>	
at	night weekend / holidays point in time	<i>at night (time)</i> <i>at the weekend</i> <i>at Christmas</i> <i>at 4 o'clock</i>	
since	from a point in time	<i>since then</i> <i>since 2009</i>	
for	a period of time	<i>for a week</i>	
ago	this comes after the noun for period of time	<i>two years ago</i>	

before	earlier than a point in time	<i>before 10</i>	
to till / until	showing start and finish duration	<i>from morning to evening</i> <i>until the end of the day</i>	
past to	time telling	<i>twenty past 6</i> <i>a quarter to ten</i>	 
by	at the latest	<i>by 10 o'clock at least</i>	

Tests:

There are two tests on eltconcourse:

[Prepositions of place](#)

[Prepositions of time](#)

Chapter 8

Joining ideas: conjunctions



Words which join ideas together are called conjunctions. In English, conjunctions **connect** ideas. For example:

*I went home **and** cooked dinner*

*I took a coat **because** it was cold*

*I looked for him **but** didn't find him*

*I don't have the money **so** I can't buy it*



3 types of conjunction



Joining equal ideas



These are called coordinating conjunctions. The ideas they join together can be in different sentences and you still understand the meaning. The most important ones are *but*, *so*, *and* and *or*. For example:

*It was raining. I didn't take a coat → It was raining **but** I didn't take a coat*

*It was raining. I took a coat → It was raining **so** I took a coat*

*It was raining. The wind was strong → It was raining **and** the wind was strong*

*It was raining **or** (it was) snowing all day*

These conjunctions can **only** come **between** the ideas. You cannot say:

But I didn't take a coat, it was raining. That's **WRONG**.

2

Joining unequal ideas

I took a coat

because it was raining

These are subordinating conjunctions. You cannot understand one of the ideas without the other. The most important ones are *because, if, although, before, after, when*. For example:

*I took a coat **because** it was raining*

*Take a coat **if** it is raining*

*I didn't take a coat **although** it was raining*

*It started to rain **before** I put on my coat*

*I put on my coat **after** it started to rain*

*I put on my coat **when** it started to rain*

You can move these conjunctions to the beginning but you must use a comma, like this:

***Because** it was raining, I took a coat*

***If** it is raining, take a coat*

***Although** it was raining, I didn't take a coat*

***Before** I put on my coat, it started to rain*

***After** it started to rain, I put on my coat*

3

Double conjunctions



These conjunctions always come together and join two ideas or two nouns. The most important ones are *whether ... or, not only ... but (also), as ... as, both ... and (also), either ... or*. For example:

***Not only** did it rain **but** the wind was very strong*

*The weather is **as** bad today **as** it was yesterday*

***Both** the rain **and also** the strong wind made me uncomfortable*

***Either** it will rain **or** the sun will shine*



With not only ... but also the grammar changes. You must make a question form after Not only.

Don't say: ***Not only it rained but the wind was strong.***

Say: *Not only **did it rain** but the wind was strong.*



The meaning of conjunctions

Conjunctions do three main things:

Add things together



and, plus, not only ... but also, both ... and do this. For example:

I came on time and John was late

Not only was the weather cold but it was also raining

Both Mary and I want to come to the party and meet your friends

Give reasons



so and *because* do this. For example:

I will come early so I can help

Because it is raining, I'm not going out

Make an opposite idea



but and *although* do this. For example:

I was sure it was her but it wasn't!

Although she was unhappy, she smiled

Give different ideas



either ... or and *whether ... or* do this. For example:

Either he will arrive on time or he will be very late

Whether he comes or not is important

Chapter 9

Describing things: adjectives



The red tomatoes are delicious

Adjectives tell us about nouns



Adjective first, noun second

The **red** tomatoes

The **delicious** tomatoes

Here, we have two adjectives: *red* and *delicious*.

Both the adjectives come before the noun. Here are some more examples:

The **blue** sea

The **delicious** food

The **old** car

The **new** house

The **happy** man

The **beautiful** churches

The **wonderful** news

Most adjectives in English can do that.

In English, adjectives do not change for singular and plural nouns. Do they change in your language?

When the adjective comes before the noun, it is called an **attributive** adjective. In English nearly all attributive adjectives come before the noun. Where do they come in your language? Before or after? Do you say:

The interesting book

or

The book interesting?



Noun first, Adjective second

The tomatoes are **red**

The tomatoes are **delicious**

When the adjective comes after the noun, it is called a **predicative** adjective.

We must connect the noun and the adjective with a linking verb. Here are some examples.

The tomatoes tasted **good**

The car was **old**

The house seems **empty**

The dog smells **terrible**

The man appears **stupid**

He grew **tired**

He's getting **old**

The milk went **sour**

I feel **ill**

It **looks** lovely

That **sounds** nice



There are some more linking verbs in English but they all do the same thing: they join the subject to the adjective.

The most common linking verbs are: *appear, be, feel, get, go, grow, look, seem, smell, sound, taste*. The verb we use most is *be*.



Noticing adjectives

You do not usually know if a word is an adjective just by looking at it but sometimes you can. Look at the ending of the word. For example:

- words ending in *-able* or *-ible* are usually adjectives:
 - *countable, comfortable, thinkable, edible, horrible, flexible* etc.
- words ending in *-ish* or *-like* are usually adjectives:
 - *childish, foolish, childlike* etc.
- words ending in *-ful* and *-less* are usually adjectives:
 - *hopeful, childless, homeless, wonderful* etc.
- words ending in *-ous* are usually adjectives:
 - *delicious, obvious, dangerous* etc.
- words ending in *-y* are often adjectives:
 - *pretty, dirty, happy, tidy, woody* etc.



Grading adjectives

Most adjectives can be made stronger by putting *very, extremely, a lot, greatly* etc. in front of them.

Most adjectives can also be made weaker by putting *slightly, a bit, a little, somewhat* etc. in front to them.

So, we can say, for example:

*John is **a little** angry*

*Mary is **very** old*

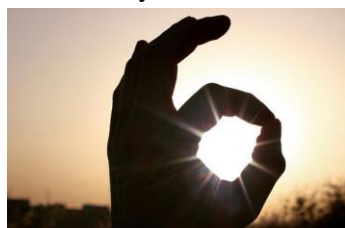
*It's an **extremely** expensive car*

*It's a **somewhat** dirty house*

These adjectives are **gradable**.

With other adjectives, we cannot use *very* or any of the other words. There are four types of non-gradable adjectives:

Absolute adjectives



These are adjectives like *unique* and *perfect* which cannot be made stronger or weaker. You **cannot** say, for example:

it's extremely perfect

or

a slightly unique man

or

a very complete book

Yes-No adjectives



These adjectives are either 100% or 0%. For example:

A door is either *open* or *closed*. A door cannot be *very open* or *slightly closed*.

A person is either *dead* or *alive*

and so on.

This is the same in most languages, of course.

Top and bottom adjectives



These adjectives are already at the top or the bottom of the scale and can go no further. For example:

freezing is the coldest so we can't say *very freezing* and *boiling* is the hottest so we can't say *very boiling*

wonderful and *awful* are the best and worst so we can't say *very wonderful* or *very awful*.

Class adjectives



Some adjectives tell you what type of noun it is and we can't use *very* with these. We can say, for example:

a very old car but not *a very vintage car*

a very young boy but not *a very teenage boy*

a very fast computer but not *a very digital computer*



Comparing adjectives

Many adjectives come in three forms:

1. The base (or positive) form:
small, light, dark, interesting, beautiful, wet etc.
2. The comparative form:
smaller, lighter, darker, more interesting, more beautiful, wetter etc.
3. The superlative form:
the smallest, the lightest, the darkest, the most interesting, the most beautiful, the wettest etc.

Here are the easy rules for what we do to make these forms. It depends on the form of the base adjective. One-syllable adjectives and two syllable adjectives **ending in -y, -er, -le, -ow** make the comparative with **-er** and the superlative with **-est**. For example:

kind-kinder kindest
big-bigger-biggest (double the consonant after a short vowel)
dry-drier-driest (change the y to i)
pretty-prettier-prettiest
clever-cleverer-cleverest
simple-simpler-simplest
yellow-yellower-yellowest

But: if the adjective comes from a verb and ends in **-ed** or **-ing** (e.g., *bored, boring, tired, tiring, worried, worrying, pleased, pleasing*) use **more** and **most**: *more/most bored, most tired/most tiring* etc.

Two-syllable adjectives not in the list above and three-syllable (and more) adjectives, make the comparative **more** and the superlative with **most**:

beautiful-more beautiful-most beautiful
intelligent-more intelligent-most intelligent
frequent-more frequent-most frequent
pleasant-more pleasant-most pleasant
content-more content-most content
helpful-more helpful-most helpful
childish-more childish-most childish
hopeless-more hopeless-most hopeless
modern-more modern-most modern
basic-more basic-most basic

Irregular words:

good-better-best
far-further/farther-furthest/farthest
little-less-least
more-most



The *a*- adjectives

There are a number of adjectives in English called the *a*-series and they are a little different. The most common ones are *asleep*, *alive*, *afraid*, *alike*, *awake*, *aware*.

These adjectives:

- **never** come before the noun
 - *the man is asleep* but not ***the asleep man***
 - *the baby is awake* but not ***the awake baby***
 - *the girl seems afraid* but not ***the afraid girl***
- **always** make comparative and superlative forms with *more* and *most*
 - *more afraid*, *most aware* not ***afraider*** or ***awarest***
 - (Adjectives like *alive* and *asleep* are not gradable, of course.)



Ordering adjectives

In some grammar books, you will find complicated rules for ordering adjectives in English. This is a simple grammar, so we have a simple rule. Our examples are:

The pretty, blue, glass, perfume bottle

The interesting, old, French, sailing boat

The horrible, noisy, English, racing car

and in these we have 4 adjectives. How do we decide which one comes first?

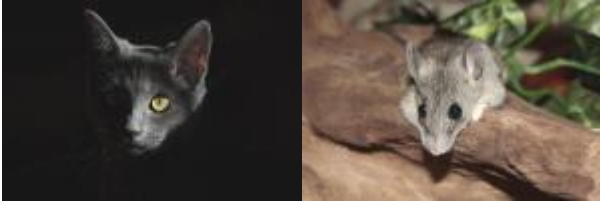
Here is the way, starting from the noun and working backwards.

1. Classifiers like, *sailing*, *racing* and *perfume* tells us the type of bottle, boat or car and go next to the noun.
2. Adjectives which are ungradable (i.e., cannot be more or less) come next. The examples here are *glass*, *French* and *English*. Something is either *glass* or it isn't. Often these tell us the material something is made of or where it comes from.
3. Adjectives which are gradable but not my opinion come next. The examples here are *blue*, *old* and *noisy*. If something is blue, it's blue and it doesn't matter what I think.
4. Adjectives which are just my opinion come furthest from the noun. The examples here are *pretty*, *interesting* and *horrible*. I can think something is pretty but perhaps you think it is ugly.

It looks like this with another example:

Some lovely, new, leather, walking shoes





Adjectives from verbs

We can make two types of adjectives from verbs in English (and we do it a lot).

1. **-ed** adjectives such as
interested, bored, frightened, excited, terrified
These adjectives say how someone or something feels
2. **-ing** adjectives such as
interesting, boring, frightening, exciting, terrifying
These adjectives say how something makes you (or something else) feel

Here are some examples using the pictures of the cat and the mouse:

- *The cat thinks the mouse is interesting*
- *The mouse thinks the cat is frightening*
- *The cat is frightening to the mouse*
- *The mouse is interesting to the cat*
- *The mouse is frightened*
- *The cat is interested*

So ...

do not say	but do say
<i>The film is bored</i>	<i>The film is boring</i>
<i>I am boring by the film</i>	<i>I am bored by the film</i>
<i>I am interesting by the book</i>	<i>I am interested by the book</i>
<i>The music is excited</i>	<i>The music is exciting</i>

Notice, too, that all adjectives formed from verbs like this take *more* and *most* to form comparative and superlative forms. You can **never** say *boringer*, *exciteder* etc.

Chapter 10

Describing actions: adverbs

Adverbs do two things in English:

1. They add information to the verb. For example:

*He ran **slowly***

*She arrived **late***

*She **greatly** liked the book*

2. They change the way we understand an adjective or another adverb. For example:

*The book is **really** interesting*

*That's **absolutely** wonderful*

*She's **slightly** worried*

*They are **terribly** angry*

*She drove **very** slowly*

*They came **terribly** late*

We'll look at these separately and then put them together.



Adding information to verbs

He ski-ed really quickly

There are five types of adverbs like these.



How?

They moved slowly

These are adverbs of manner. They tell us **how** something happens. Here are some more examples:

*They drove **carefully***

*She travelled **fast***

*She welcomed me **warmly***

*They read the book **carefully***

*He **excitedly** opened the box*

*It **suddenly** rained*

Where do they come in the sentence?

These adverbs **usually come after the verb** but if the verb has an object they come **before** the verb:

*They **carefully** read the book*

*She **warmly** welcomed me*

They can also come after the object:

*They drove the car **slowly***

They can **never** come between the verb and the object:

*They drove **carefully the car*** is **WRONG**.



Where?

He worked **outside**

These are adverbs of place. They tell us **where** something happens. Here are some more examples:

*She welcomed him **in***

*They had lunch **outside***

*They drove **northwards***

*They went **inside***

*I waited **there***

*I want to stay **here***

Where do they come in the sentence?

These adverbs **come after the verb or after the object**.

*She sat **there***

*They ate breakfast **indoors***

They can **never** come between the verb and the object.

*They ate **outside breakfast*** is **WRONG**.

They can **never** come before the verb.

*They **outside ate breakfast*** is **WRONG**.



When?

They came **late**

These are adverbs of time. They tell us **when** something happens. Here are some more examples:

*She arrived **early***

*I'm leaving the house **tomorrow***

*I know **now***

*They travelled **overnight***

*I want to stay **forever***

Where do they come in the sentence?

These adverbs **come after the verb or after the object**.

*She came **today***

*They ate breakfast **early***

They can **never** come between the verb and the object.

*They ate **early breakfast*** is **WRONG**.

They can **never** come before the verb.

*They **overnight travelled*** is **WRONG**.



How often?

The trains frequently arrive late

These are adverbs of frequency. They tell us **how often** something happens. Here are some more examples:

*She **always** arrived at 9*

*I **usually** walk to work*

*I can **never** do it*

*They **often** travelled by car*

*She is **frequently** late*

Where do they come in the sentence?

These adverbs **come before the main verb** but **after the auxiliary verb** (*be, have, can* etc.).

*She **often** smiled*

*She has **often** spoken to him*

*They can **often** help*

They can **never** come between the main verb and the object.

They ate often breakfast is **WRONG**.

They **can** come after an intransitive verb:

She helps often

and

She often helps

are both OK.

They can never come before the auxiliary verb.

They always have helped me is **WRONG**.



How much?

She completely filled it

These are adverbs of degree. They tell us how much. Here are some more examples:

*She **really** enjoyed the party*

*I **greatly** liked your stories*

*I can **fully** understand what you want*

*I **absolutely** agree with you*

Where do they come in the sentence?

These adverbs usually **come before the main verb** but **after the auxiliary verb** (*be, have, can* etc.).

They can come after the main verb and at the end of the sentence.

*I agree with you **fully***

*I agree **fully** with you*

They can never come before the auxiliary verb.

They fully can understand is **WRONG**.

They do not come at the beginning of a sentence.

Completely they understand is **WRONG**.



Adverbs at the beginning

Adverbs of manner, place, time and frequency can come at the beginning of the sentence to make them more important.

For example:

Slowly and carefully, she drove into the car park

Here he is!

Tomorrow, I'm am leaving

Frequently, they come late

BUT:

1. You must have a comma after the adverbs of manner, time and frequency (but not place)
2. Adverbs of degree **cannot** come at the beginning:
3. **Fully, I agree with you** is **WRONG**
4. **Completely, he filled the glass** is **WRONG**



Adverbs in front of adjectives and other adverbs

Adverbs can also change adjectives and other adverbs. They do this in two main ways.



Making the adjective or adverb stronger

She's really fit

The adverbs *really*, *very*, *too* and *extremely* are the most common. For example:

The car was **really** expensive

He drove **really** slowly

The house was **very** large

She did it **very** carefully

The man was **extremely** tall

The man spoke **extremely** rudely

It was **too** expensive

He ran **too** quickly and fell over



Making the adjective or adverb weaker

It's *slightly* windy

The adverbs *slightly*, *quite*, and *somewhat* are the most common. For example:

*I felt **slightly** cold*

*She spoke **slightly** quickly*

*She was **somewhat** angry*

*I did it **somewhat** reluctantly*

*He was **quite** rude*

*He spoke **quite** rudely*

There are some other ways to make an adjective or adverb weaker but they are not adverbs. For example, we can say:

It's a bit expensive

It's a little rainy

She came a bit late

enough

This adverb is unusual because it comes **after** the adjective or adverb. For example:

*It was cheap **enough***

*She was polite **enough***

*He didn't come early **enough***

*He walked quickly **enough***



Comparing adverbs

We use *more* and *most* to make these forms with adverbs, especially those ending in *-ly*, so we have: *more often* not *oftener*, *more deeply* not *deeplier* etc.

but

1. Some adverbs keep the same form as the adjective and for these we use the same rules as the adjectives follow so we have:

*He drove fast – She drove **faster***

*He worked hard – She worked **harder***

*She arrived early – He arrived **earlier***

*He came late – She came **later***

2. Some adverbs are irregular so we have:

*He drove well – She drove **better***

*He drove far – She drove **further/farther***

*He drove badly – She drove **worse***

3. The adverb *soon* has no adjective form and we get: *soon-sooner-soonest*.

Chapter 11

Pronouns

Pronouns in English are words which stand for other words. For example:

We can say:

- *John came in and **he** sat by the fire*
 - *John and he are the same person: **John = he***
- *The car broke down and we took **it** to the garage*
 - *The car and it are the same thing: **the car = it***
- *I spoke to all the people I met at the party and **everyone** was very nice to me*
 - *all the people and everyone are the same: **all the people = everyone***
- *A: Have you seen my glasses?*
 - *B: **They** are on the kitchen table*
 - *my glasses and they are the same thing: **my glasses = they***

Usually, pronouns stand for something that came before, like this:

A: Have you seen *my glasses*?

B: *They* are on the kitchen table

But sometimes they can stand for something which comes afterwards, like this:

When I looked for *them* ...

... I found *my glasses* on the table



Case in English

Notice that in the first sentence, the pronoun *they* stands for *the glasses*.

In the second sentence, it is the word *them* that is the pronoun.

This is because in the first sentence, the pronoun is the **subject** and in the second sentence, the pronoun is the **object** of the verb.

English only has three cases: subject, object and possessive. Many languages (yours?) have more. Some have lots more.

Read the chapter on verbs to understand more about objects and subjects.



Personal pronouns

There are three main types of personal pronouns



Object and Subject

John looked at Paris

He looked at it

These look like this:

			subject	object
1st person	singular		I	me
	plural		we	us
2nd person	singular	you		
	plural			
3rd person	singular	masculine	he	him
		feminine	she	her
		neuter	it	
	plural		they	them

Examples:

1. Subject pronouns:
 - a. First person singular: *I answered his question.* Here, *I* is the subject of the verb *answer*.
 - b. First person plural: *I met two friends and we went to the cinema.* Here, *we* stands for *I and two friends* and is the subject of the verb *go*.
 - c. Second person singular: *John came in and he spoke to Mary. She told John to go away. It became a nasty argument.* Here *he, she* and *it* are all the subjects of the verbs *speak, tell* and *become*.
 - d. Second person plural: *John and Mary sat together and they talked.* Here, *they* stands for *John and Mary* and is the subject of the verb *talk*.
 - e. In English, *they* is used for everyone. It doesn't matter if it means more than one woman, more than one man or more than one thing. It's always *they*.
 - f. Third person singular: *You didn't answer the telephone.* Here, *you* is subject of the verb *answer*.
 - g. Third person plural: *I came to the house but you were both out.* Here, *you* stands for more than one person and is the subject of the verb *be*.
 - h. In English, there is **no difference between you singular and you plural**. In most languages there is a difference. What happens in your language?
2. Object pronouns:
 - a. First person singular: *John answered me.* Here, *me* is the object of the verb *answer*.

- b. First person plural: *John told us*. Here, *us* is the object of the verb *tell*.
- c. Second person singular: *John gave her a car*. *Mary thanked him but she sold it*. Here *her* is the object of *give*, *him* is the object of *thank* and *it* is the object of *sell*. Notice that the subject and the object for things is *it*. It doesn't change in English.
- d. Third person singular: *Mary told you*. Here, *you* is the object of *tell*.
- e. Third person plural: *Mary told you and you both know now*. Here *you* is the object of *tell*.
- f. Notice that *you* never change *you*: the subject, object, singular and plural are all *you*. That is different in many languages.
- g. English also makes no difference between people you know well and strangers. In many languages the words for *you* are different.



Possessives

The squirrel's food
Its food

There are also two groups of these. Some come before the noun (they are determiners) and some stand for the noun (they are real pronouns):

adjective / determiner	noun / nominal
my	mine
our	ours
your	yours
his	
her	hers
its	
their	theirs

1. The difference between the two columns:
 - a. In the first column, the words are **determiners**. They describe other nouns in some way just like words like *the*, *some* and *that* do. For example:
 - I ate some bread*
 - I ate her bread*
 - I stole the money*
 - I stole their money*
 and so on. The words in the first column are sometimes called **possessive adjectives** or **possessive determiners**.
 - b. In the second column, the words can stand as nouns (pronouns). For example:
 - My coat is here, hers isn't*
 - Their car is bigger than mine*
 We can replace possessive pronouns by the noun with the possessive adjective so *mine* = *my car*, *hers* = *her coat* etc. For example:
 - My work is finished but her work / hers is not started.*
 - Their house is bigger than our house / ours.*

These words are **possessive pronouns** or **nominal possessives**.

- The word *its* is only a determiner, not a pronoun. We can say:

What's wrong with the table? Its leg is loose

but not

Which leg is loose? Its. That is **wrong**.

- Notice that *his* is both a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun

It is his book

It is his



Reflexive pronouns

He took a picture of himself

These pronouns refer to the same thing.

First person	singular	myself
	plural	ourselves
Second person	singular	yourself
	plural	yourselves
Third person	masculine	himself
	feminine	herself
	non-personal	itself
	plural	themselves

Notes:

- These pronouns refer to the same thing. We do not say, for example:

I wrote me a note. That's **wrong**.

but

I wrote myself a note

When the object and the subject are the same, we use a reflexive pronoun.

- English does not use many reflexive verbs. We don't, for example, *meet ourselves* (as we do in German), *remember ourselves* (as we do in many languages) or (usually) *wash ourselves*. However, we can make many verbs reflexive if we want to:

I poured myself a drink

She drove herself home

etc.

- This is the only area where English makes a difference between *you* plural and *you* singular: *yourself* (singular); *yourselves* (plural).

Here's a summary as a graphic so you can save or print it out easily.

The pronoun system			Personal		Reflexive	Possessive	
			subject	object		adjective	pronoun
1 st person	singular		I	me	myself	my	mine
	plural		we	us	ourselves	our	ours
2 nd person	singular		you		yourself	your	yours
	plural				yourselves		
3 rd person	singular	masculine	he	him	himself	his	
		feminine	she	her	herself	her	hers
		non-personal	it		itself	its	
	plural		they	them	themselves	their	theirs

Adapted from Quirk, R & Greenbaum, S, 1973, *A University Grammar of English*, Harlow: Longman (page 102)



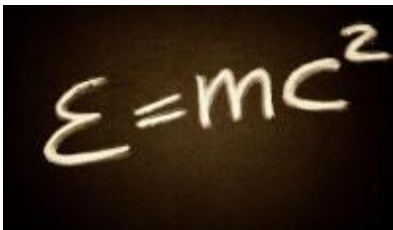
Other pronouns

Something in the window

There are also some pronouns which do not stand for particular, special people or things.

There are lots of these and this is a simple grammar so this part is short. To understand it, you must know the difference between mass and count nouns. Read the chapter on nouns for that.

1. Relative pronouns



Here are some examples:

The car which had the accident is in the garage (which stands for the car)

The man whose wallet you found is coming to collect it (whose stands for the man's)

The people who came to the party (who stands for the people)

That's the car that he sold (that stands for the car)

2. Interrogative (question) pronouns



These look the same as the relative pronouns but make questions. For example

Who came to the meeting? (pronoun usually for people only)

Which is your jacket? (pronoun for objects, used when you can choose from a number of things)

What do you think? (pronoun in the same meaning but used when there is no selection)

Whose hat is this? (possessive pronoun)

3. Demonstrative pronouns



There are only 4 of these: *this, that, these, those*.

They are different for plural and singular things and things close to us or far away.

Here are some examples:

This is my boss, Mary (singular, here)

These are the people I like (plural, here)

Those are my friends (plural, there)

That is her husband (singular, there)

4. Universal pronouns



These are: *everyone, everybody, each, everything, all*. Here are some examples:

Everyone/ Everybody is coming (these can only be used for people)

We have all the plates and all the food (*all* can be used for count and mass nouns)

Every window is broken (*every* can only be used in the singular)

***Every windows are broken* is wrong.** it should be *All the windows are broken*

5. Count pronouns



These are used instead of count nouns. For example:

I don't have many

I have several

I want more (this pronoun is used for both mass and count nouns)

6. Mass pronouns



These are used instead of mass nouns. For example:

I don't have much

I have some

I have a little

I want more (this pronoun is used for both mass and count nouns)

7. The *some-* and *any-* series



These go together with *-thing-*, *-body*, *-one* and *-where* to make words like *anything*, *somebody*, *anyone*, *somewhere*, *anywhere* etc. These words are always singular.

- Usually, we use *some* in positive statements and *any* in questions and negatives:

Positive	Negative	Question
<i>I have some time</i>	<i>I don't have any time</i>	<i>Do you have any time?</i>
<i>I have something to say</i>	<i>I don't have anything to say</i>	<i>Do you have anything to say?</i>
<i>Someone is at the door</i>	<i>There isn't anyone here</i>	<i>Did you see anyone?</i>
<i>It is here somewhere</i>	<i>I haven't been anywhere</i>	<i>Is there anywhere nice to visit?</i>

- But be careful! Sometimes a question is not really a question! For example:

Do you have anything to eat? is a real question and we use *anything* but

Do you want something to eat? is **not** a question, it's an **offer**, so we use *something*.

8. Negative pronouns



These are *nobody*, *no-one*, *nothing*, *neither*, *none*. Here are some examples:

Nobody came (people only)

No-one won the prize (people only)

Nothing was there (things only, mass nouns only)

I asked all my friends but none came (things and people, count and mass nouns)

I wanted a beer but none was in the fridge (things and people, count and mass nouns)

I wanted milk but none was in the bottle (things and people, count and mass nouns)

I asked my two brothers but neither came (two things or people)

There were two red shirts but neither was in my size (two things or people)

9. *One*



This pronoun can be singular and plural but is **only** used for count nouns. We use it like this:

Some girls were in the classroom but I only spoke to the older one

He offered me all of them and I took the blue ones

He offered me all of them and I took the blue one

Chapter 12

My language and English



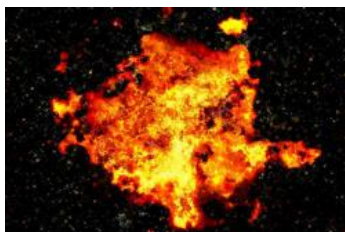
There are about 6000 languages in the world and they are all different.



How does comparing my language with English help me to learn English?

There are two good reasons to do this:

1. If you know how your language is **similar** to English, you can use the information to understand the grammar.
 2. If you know how your language is **different** from English, you can avoid mistakes.
-



Where does English come from?

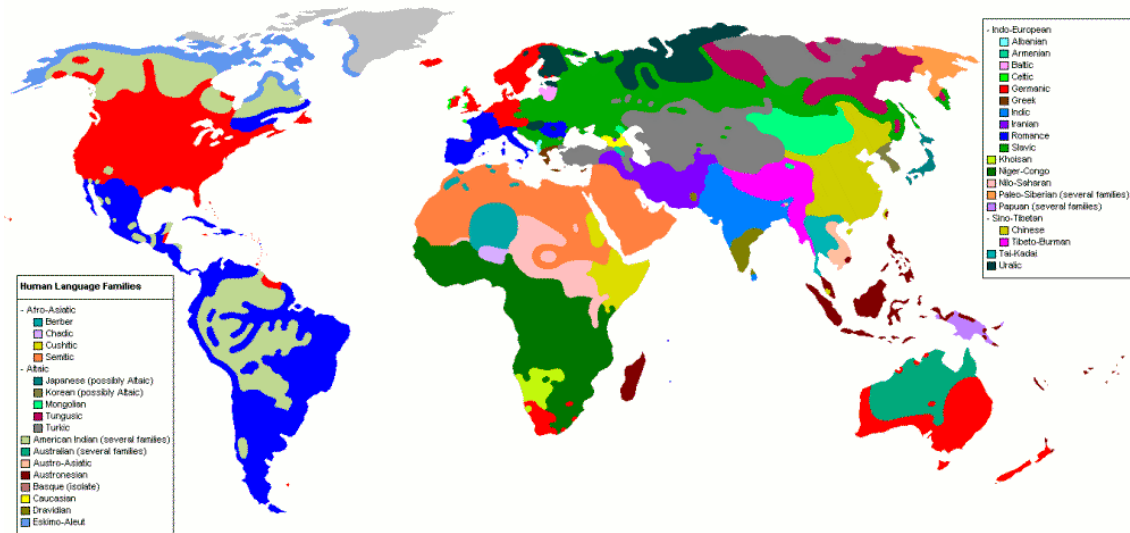
English is a Germanic language. Its closest relatives are languages like German and Dutch as well as Scandinavian languages.

Most European languages are related to each other so they are similar in some ways. The languages come from something people spoke thousands of years ago called proto Indo-European.



What type of language do you speak?

Can you find your language on this map?



For example:

If you come from North Africa or the Middle East, you probably speak a Semitic language like Arabic or Hebrew. If you come from Europe, you probably speak an Indo-European language but there are some different groups of these including Slavic (Polish, Russian, Czech, Slovak etc.), Romance or Italic languages (French, Spanish, Romanian, Portuguese, Italian etc.), Germanic languages (German, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian etc.) and Greek. If you come from the East Asia, you probably speak Japanese, Korean, a Chinese language, Tai-Kadai, Tibeto-Burman or an Austronesian language.



How do languages differ?

These are the main ways that your language may be the same or different from English and you should know about them.



The main word order

English puts the subject first, then the verb and then the object. For example:



<i>I</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>strawberries</i>
Subject	Verb	Object

Now translate *I like strawberries* into your first language. What do you find? Here are the six possibilities:

translation	order	
-------------	-------	--

<i>I</i>	<i>strawberries</i>	<i>like</i>	Subject + Object + Verb	This is the most common order. Is your language in this list? Amharic, Armenian, Azerbaijani, Basque, Bengali, Burmese, Hindi, Hungarian, Japanese, Kazakh, Korean, Kurdish, Nepali, Pashto, Persian, Punjabi, Sinhalese, Somali, Tibetan, Tamil, Telugu, Turkish, Urdu, Uzbek
<i>I</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>strawberries</i>	Subject + Verb + Object	This is the second most common order. Is your language in this list? Albanian, Arabic, Bulgarian, Chinese, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, Kurdish, Greek, Hebrew, Icelandic, Italian, Javanese, Kashmiri, Khmer, Macedonian, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Spanish, Swahili, Thai, Vietnamese
<i>Like</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>strawberries</i>	Verb + Subject + Object	This is third most common order. Is your language in this list? Arabic, Berber, Breton, Cebuano, Classical Hebrew, Hawaiian, Irish, Malagasy, Manx, Māori, Scottish Gaelic, Tagalog, Tongan, Welsh
<i>Strawberries</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>like</i>	Object + Subject + Verb	Your language does not normally do this. No languages do but some allow it in certain structures.
<i>Strawberries</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>I</i>	Object + Verb + Subject	This is very unusual but possible in some languages. It is not the usual order.
<i>Like</i>	<i>strawberries</i>	<i>I</i>	Verb + Object + Subject	This is very uncommon but some Austronesian languages do this.

Almost certainly, your language is one of the first three.

Did you have ***Strawberries, I like them?***

If you did, you probably have a topicalising language. These languages like to put the topic (not the subject) first and then make a sentence. **English does not do this** but many Chinese languages do it a lot.

Other examples are:

John, I saw him yesterday (in English, this must be *I saw John yesterday*)

John, he's coming tomorrow (in English this must be *John is coming tomorrow*)

etc.

Here's a list of some common languages. Is your language here?

Subject-Verb-Object		Subject-Object-Verb	
<i>The man took the money</i>		<i>The man the money took</i>	
Albanian	Indonesian	Afrikaans	Latin
Arabic	Italian	Armenian	Maltese
Bulgarian	Hebrew	Basque	Marathi
Catalan	Norwegian	Bengali	Mongolian
Chinese languages	Polish	Burmese	Pashto
Danish	Portuguese	Dutch	Persian (Farsi)
English	Russian	German (in both lists)	Punjabi
Estonian	Slovak	Gujarati	Sicilian
Finnish	Spanish	Hungarian	Sinhala
French	Swedish	Japanese	Somali
German (in both lists)	Tagalog	Kazakh	Tajik
Greek	Thai	Korean	Tamil
Icelandic	Ukrainian	Kurdish	Turkish

2

Adjectives and determiners

In English, most adjectives come before the noun. We have:
the blue house, the wonderful news, the most interesting film etc.

not

the house blue, the news wonderful, the film most interesting etc.

What happens in your language?

In lots of languages, e.g., French, Italian, Spanish, most adjectives come after the noun.

In English, too, we put determiners like *my, that, twelve, those, our* etc. **before** the noun. Other languages do this differently.

In your language, do you say *my house* or *house my*?

3

Possessives

English is unusual because we can say:

The government's opinion

and

The opinion of the government

In the first sentence, the possessive ('s) comes before the noun. In the second sentence the possessive (*of*) comes after the noun.

What does your language do?

4

Prepositions or postpositions?

In English, the preposition follows the verb and comes before the noun (that's why we call them **pre**-positions).

Some languages, such as Japanese, Hindi, Finnish and Turkish, have post-positions.

What does your language do? Do you say:

He walked over the road

or

He walked the road over

5

Gender



lioness and lion

Modern English does not have male and female nouns (except for people and animals). English sometimes makes a difference between male and female people and jobs. So, for example, we can have *steward* (male) and *stewardess* (female)

actor (male or female) and *actress* (female only)

manager (male or female) and *manageress* (female only)

Most of these words are no longer used so we just have *actor*, *manager* etc.

Many languages (including yours?) have genders for all nouns so, for example, in French, *the moon* is female and *the sun* is male, in German, *girl* is neuter, *group* is female and *cheese* is male. In some other languages, there is a difference in gender between animate and inanimate nouns and so on.

In languages which have a gender, usually the article and the adjectives change to show if something is masculine, feminine or neuter. So, for example, in Spanish a noun, the article and the adjective will all change to show if it is masculine or feminine, singular or plural.

English does not do this at all. We **never** change an adjective or an article to show gender. We have:

an unhappy man, *an unhappy woman*, *three unhappy children* and so on.

What does your language do?

6

Endings and other changes

A lot of languages change the form of the verb, the noun, adjectives, articles and so on to show changes to number and gender. For example, in English we add -s to show that a verb is singular and in the third person:

He arrives on Monday but they come on Tuesday.

English also changes the end of a verb to show past tense:

He usually works in this room but yesterday he worked in that one.

English does not make many other changes but some languages are much more complicated.

For example, German shows whether a noun is the object or the subject of a verb by changes to the article and sometimes the noun itself.

In English, articles, nouns and adjectives do not change to show case. Pronouns do change. For more on that, see the chapter on pronouns.

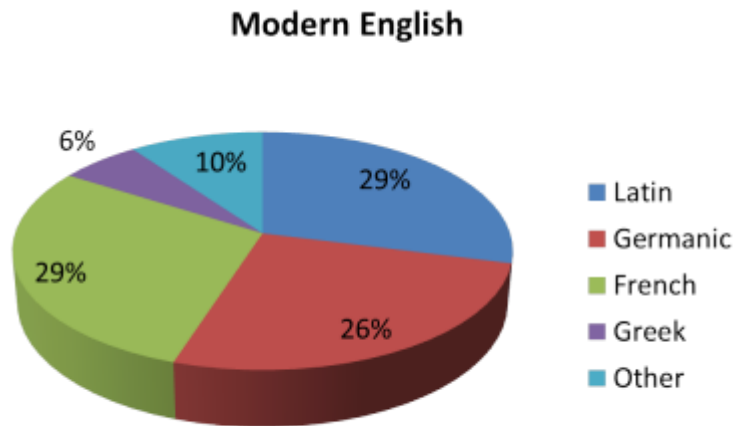
7

Vocabulary

Sometimes, words are borrowed by one language from another.

Sometimes, too, languages which are close to each other will share many words.

English takes its words from earlier languages like this:



It's easy to see that if you speak French or a Germanic or Latin-based language, many words will be easy to understand for you.

Be careful: sometimes the same word in English will have a different meaning from the word in your language.



Pronunciation



Of course, languages are pronounced differently.

In some languages, such as French, Italian, Spanish, Cantonese and Mandarin, every syllable takes up the same time. So, we get:

I ... went ... to ... Lon ... don ... with ... my ... bro ... ther

In other languages, such as English, Dutch, Farsi and Scandinavian languages, some syllables take longer to say than others. So, we get:

*Iwentto ... **L o n** d'n ... withmy ... **b r o** the(r)*

Here's a list. Can you find your language here?

LANGUAGES LIKE ENGLISH	LANGUAGES LIKE FRENCH
ARABIC	CHINESE LANGUAGES (also tonal)
CATALAN	FRENCH
DUTCH	GREEK
ENGLISH	INDIAN LANGUAGES
FARSI	ITALIAN
GERMAN	JAPANESE
PORTUGUESE (EUROPEAN)	PORTUGUESE (BRAZILIAN)
RUSSIAN	SPANISH
SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES	SWAHILI
	THAI (also tonal)
	TURKISH
	VIETNAMESE (also tonal)

WEST AFRICAN LANGUAGES

Tonal languages such as Vietnamese can change the meaning of a word by changing the pitch of the voice. Does your language do this?



What do I do with this information?

First, make a note of how your language is different from English like this:

- What is the main word order in your language? Remember that most positive sentences in English are SUBJECT + VERB + OBJECT.
- Can your language have something like: *That factory, that is where my father works?* Remember that English does not do this. You should say: *That factory is where my father works* or *My father works in that factory*
- Does your language say *a beautiful day* or *a day beautiful*? Remember that most adjectives in English come before the noun.
- Does your language say *This is Mary's pencil* or *This is the pencil of Mary*? Remember that English does both but with people you should say *Mary's pencil*.
- Does your language say *He walked under the bridge* or *He walked the bridge under*? Remember that English uses **pre**positions not **post**positions. Put the preposition between the verb and the noun: *He is standing on the chair*.
- Does your language make a difference between masculine and feminine nouns? Remember that English does not do this for most nouns so you should not use *he* or *she* for things. Don't say: *I have lost my pen and don't know where she is*. In English, that is *I have lost my pen and don't know where it is*.
- Does your language change the end of adjectives? English never does this so don't say *The greens houses*. In English, that is *The green houses*.
- Are there lots of words in your language that look like English words? Try these:
 - *land*
 - *house*
 - *democracy*
 - *extraordinary*
 - *notebook*
 - *club*
 - *sensitive*
- Use this information but be careful to check that the meaning is the same in your language.
- Listen to someone speaking in English (try the listening exercises on eltconcourse.com) and try to copy the pattern of strong words and syllables. Don't say: *I have been to London*. Try to say *I'vebinto **LONdn***.

Grammar words

These are the words we have used to describe English grammar.

Term	Meaning	Example
A-adjective	A special kind of adjective beginning with a-. These adjectives do not come before the noun.	<i>The dog is <u>asleep</u></i> <i>NOT</i> <i>The asleep dog</i>
Absolute adjective	Adjectives which cannot be made stronger or weaker	<i>A <u>perfect</u> meal</i> <i>NOT</i> <i>A more perfect meal</i>
Absolute tense	A tense which is fixed in time and not relative to any other time	<i>He <u>came</u> yesterday</i>
Adjective	A word which describes a noun	<i>The <u>large</u> dog</i>
Adjective phrase	A group of words doing the work of an adjective	<i>The <u>very large, black</u> dog</i>
Adverb	A word which describes a verb, an adjective or another adverb	<i>She walked <u>quickly</u></i> <i>The book was <u>very</u> expensive</i> <i>He drives <u>extremely</u> slowly</i>
Adverb of degree	A word which tells you how much something happens	<i>I <u>really</u> enjoyed the book</i>
Adverb of frequency	A word which tells you how often something happens	<i>He <u>usually</u> goes home at 6</i>
Adverb of manner	A word which tells you the way something happens	<i>It <u>quickly</u> became dark</i>
Adverb of place	A word which tells you where something happens	<i>I came <u>inside</u></i>
Adverb of time	A word which tells you when something happens	<i>She left <u>then</u></i>
Adverb phrase	A group of words doing the job of an adverb	<i>They walked home <u>slowly and sadly</u></i>
Article	The words a, an, or the	<i>She bought <u>a</u> house</i> <i>They have <u>an</u> idea</i> <i>I am <u>the</u> boss here</i>
Aspect	The word to describe how we see an action or event	<i>She has arrived (perfect aspect)</i> <i>They left (simple aspect)</i> <i>She was cycling (progressive aspect)</i>
Attributive	Describing adjectives coming before nouns	<i>The <u>black</u> horse</i>
Auxiliary verb	A verb which has no meaning alone but works with main verbs	<i>I <u>have</u> done the work</i> <i>I <u>must</u> go home now</i>
Case	The way to describe what a noun phrase is doing in a sentence	<i><u>They</u> saw me (subject or nominative case)</i> <i>They saw <u>me</u> (object or accusative case)</i> <i>That's <u>my</u> car. (possessive or genitive case)</i>

Classifier or class adjective	An adjective which cannot be changed and tells us what type of thing the noun is	A <u>sports</u> car A <u>school</u> book
Collective noun	A noun which refers to a group of things or people	The <u>army</u> A <u>group</u>
Comparative	The form which is used to show more of something	A <u>bigger</u> house A <u>more beautiful</u> cat
Complex sentence	A sentence which has at least one main and one subordinate clause	<i>I came so I could help</i>
Compound sentence	A sentence which has two equal clauses	<i>I came and I talked to her</i>
Compound-complex sentence	A sentence which has at least one main and one subordinate clause and one equal clause	<i>I came and I talked to her although she was very angry</i>
Conjunct	An adverbial acting to connect clauses	<i>I wanted out go out. <u>However</u>, it was raining</i>
Conjunction	A word to join two ideas – words, phrase, clauses or sentences	<i>She went home <u>because</u> she felt ill They ate cake <u>and</u> ice cream</i>
Content word	A word which has meaning when alone (compare function word)	<i>house, bring, pretty, usually, French</i>
Continuous	An aspect of a verb tense to describe something on-going	<i>She <u>thinks</u> I love her They <u>are working</u> in Italy</i>
Coordinating conjunction	A word which joins two equal ideas	<i>They were happy <u>but</u> I was sad.</i>
Copular verb	A verb which joins two nouns together, a noun and an adjective or a noun and a prepositional phrase	<i>She <u>became</u> a teacher They <u>grew</u> tall She <u>was</u> in the garden</i>
Correlating conjunction	A conjunction in two parts to join equal ideas	<i>She was <u>not only</u> angry <u>but also</u> sad</i>
Count noun	A noun which can have a plural and take a plural verb	<i>The <u>cats</u> are in the house</i>
Count pronoun	A pronoun which stands for a count noun	<i>Do you have any apples? I don't have <u>many</u>.</i>
Demonstrative	A class of determiner telling us what noun we are talking about	<i><u>This</u> house <u>That</u> garden <u>Those</u> cars <u>These</u> people</i>
Demonstrative pronoun	A pronoun which stand for a demonstrative plus its noun	<i><u>This</u> is my wife <u>Those</u> are his friends</i>
Determiner	A word which comes before a noun to say what we know about it	<i><u>Many</u> people <u>The</u> car <u>My</u> house <u>Those</u> children</i>
Direct object	The first object of a verb – accusative case	<i>He spent <u>the money</u></i>
Ditransitive	Describing a verb which can take more than one object	<i>He <u>gave</u> her the book</i>
Exclamation	A sentence expressing anger or	<i>How wonderful!</i>

	surprise etc.	
Function word	Words which have no meaning when alone but make the grammar work	<i>prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns etc.</i>
Gender	A grammatical term for the class of a noun: usually feminine, masculine or neuter but there are others	<i>The gender of house in French is feminine (la maison), in Spanish the word for garden is masculine (el jardín) and in German the word for house is neuter (das Haus)</i>
Gradable	Describing adjectives which can have very in front of them or make a comparative	<i>A very <u>nice</u> house The <u>highest</u> mark</i>
Grammar word	See Function word	
Habitual	An aspect of a verb describing what we usually do	<i>I <u>used to go</u> to the cinema a lot I <u>play</u> tennis on Sundays</i>
Imperative	The form of the verb used to tell someone what to do	<i><u>Go</u> home <u>Don't tell</u> her</i>
Indefinite pronoun	A pronoun which does not stand for a particular thing or person	<i><u>Somebody</u> is at home Can <u>anyone</u> help me?</i>
Indicative	The mood of a verb which indicates a fact or asks a question	<i>The food <u>is</u> delicious What <u>makes</u> it a verb?</i>
Indirect object	The second object of a ditransitive verb	<i>He gave <u>me</u> the money</i>
Infinitive	An unmarked verb form often preceded by <i>to</i>	<i>I came to <u>help</u> We should <u>go</u></i>
Interrogative	A question form	<i>Do you know her?</i>
Interrogative pronoun	A pronoun which makes a question form	<i><u>Who</u> came?</i>
Intransitive	Describing a verb which cannot have an object	<i>She <u>stood</u> alone.</i>
Iterative	An aspect of a verb describing repeated actions	<i>They <u>have been ringing</u> the bells They <u>keep asking</u> questions</i>
Linking verb	See copular verb	
Mass noun	A noun which can have no plural and takes a singular verb	<i>The <u>milk</u> is in the fridge</i>
Mass pronoun	A pronoun which stands for a mass noun	<i>Do you have <u>any</u> milk? I don't have <u>much</u>.</i>
Modal auxiliary verb	A verb which tells us how the speaker feels about the main verb	<i>I <u>should</u> talk to her It <u>may</u> rain again</i>
Negative	A sentence which refers to something not happening	<i>It <u>didn't</u> rain</i>
Negative pronoun	A pronoun which stands for a negative noun phrase	<i><u>Nothing</u> was broken</i>
Noun	A word for a person, place, thing, feeling or characteristic	<i>John London hammer happiness stupidity</i>
Noun phrase	A group of words acting as a noun	<i><u>The old man</u> sailed the boat</i>

Object	The thing the verb acts on	<i>The old man sailed <u>the boat</u></i>
Perfect	An aspect of the verb describing its relationship to another time	<i>He <u>has arrived</u> (describing the relationship to the present)</i> <i>He <u>had arrived</u> (describing the relationship to the past)</i>
Personal pronoun	A pronoun for a person	<i>Give it to <u>me</u></i>
Phrase	A group of words with one job in a sentence	<i>He went <u>to the shops</u></i> <i><u>The three boys</u> left</i> <i>They <u>carefully opened</u> the box</i>
Plural	More than one	<i>8 <u>horses</u></i>
Positive	A sentence which is not a negative or a question	<i>I am 25 years old</i>
Possessive determiner	A determiner showing possessive case	<i>That is <u>her</u> house</i>
Postpositions	In some languages, the link between the verb and the noun goes after the noun	<i>She went the road <u>across</u></i>
Predicative	Describing an adjective which comes after the noun and is linked to it by a copular verb	<i>She was <u>happy</u></i> <i>They became <u>very tired</u></i>
Preposition	A word which links the verb to a noun and comes between the verb and the noun	<i>He walked <u>across</u> the park</i>
Prepositional phrase	A group of words which includes the preposition and its noun	<i>over the bridge</i> <i>under the river</i>
Present participle	The <i>-ing</i> participle (q.v.)	<i><u>Going</u> across the road</i>
Primary auxiliary verb	An auxiliary verb which forms a tense, voice or aspect with a main verb	<i>It <u>was</u> destroyed</i> <i>I <u>got</u> my car cleaned</i> <i>I <u>have</u> been to London</i>
Progressive aspect	The aspect of the verb which shows something happening at the time	<i>I <u>am writing</u> this sentence</i> <i>He <u>worked</u> all night</i>
Pronoun	A word which stands for a noun	<i>Give <u>me</u> <u>it</u></i>
Proper noun	A noun for a person, place or job	<i>The President</i> <i>Mr Smith</i> <i>The Alps</i>
Prospective	The aspect of a verb which relates a time to a future time	<i>I <u>am going</u> to London tomorrow</i> <i>She <u>was going</u> to see me</i>
Quantifier	A determiner which tells us how much of a noun	<i>three horses</i> <i>several people</i>
Question tag	A verb phrase attached to the end of a positive or negative sentence to make it a question	<i>You are coming, <u>aren't you?</u></i> <i>You aren't going to eat that, <u>are you?</u></i>
Referent	The item which is being referred to	<i>When <u>Mary</u> came in she sat in the corner (Mary is the referent of she)</i>
Reflexive pronoun	A pronoun used when the subject and object are the same (co-referential)	<i>He photographed <u>himself</u></i> <i>She poured <u>herself</u> some coffee</i>
Relative pronoun	A pronoun used in a complex	<i>They have found the car <u>which</u> was</i>

	sentence to refer to the object or the subject	<i>stolen</i> <i>The man <u>who</u> asked is here today</i>
Relative tense	Tenses which only make sense in relation to other times	<i>She <u>has completed</u> the work (so now it is finished)</i> <i>She <u>will have spoken</u> to him</i>
Simple sentence	A sentence which only has one subject, one verb and sometimes one object	<i>She <u>cried</u></i> <i>She <u>opened</u> the book</i>
Singular	One. Mass nouns and one only of count nouns are singular	<i>A horse came across the road</i> <i>The milk is in the fridge</i>
Subject	The doer of a verb	<i><u>The man</u> broke the glass.</i>
Subordinating conjunction	A conjunction which shows that one event or action depends on another event or action	<i>Tell me <u>if</u> you see him</i> <i>I must talk to him <u>when</u> I see him</i>
Superlative	The form of an adjective or adverb which means the most or least	<i>The <u>tallest</u> boy in the class</i> <i>The <u>most expensively</u> dressed man</i>
Tag question	See question tag	
Tense	The form of the verb marked for time or aspect	<i>He <u>walked</u></i>
Transitive	Describing a verb which must (or can) take one or more objects	<i>She <u>smokes</u> (intransitive)</i> <i>She <u>smoked</u> a cigarette (transitive)</i>
Ungradable	Describing an adjective which cannot be made greater or less with 'very'	<i>A <u>wonderful</u> meal</i> <i>A <u>horrible</u> accident</i>
Universal pronoun	A member of the every- and all series of pronouns	<i><u>Everyone</u> was happy</i> <i><u>All</u> came late</i>
Verb	The action, state or event in a sentence	<i>She <u>came</u> late</i> <i>It <u>rained</u></i> <i>She <u>was</u> happy</i>
Verb phrase	A group of words acting as a verb	<i>She <u>slowly drove</u> the car home</i>
Wh- word	The words what, who(m), when, where, why, how and which.	<i><u>Where</u> is your car?</i> <i><u>Who</u> told you?</i>
Word order	The usual way a language puts words into a sentence. Languages are often different in terms of word order	<i>She <u>broke the pen</u> (subject-verb-object)</i> <i>The <u>open book</u> (adjective-noun)</i> <i>Two <u>lions</u> (determiner-noun)</i>