

ЗАКАРПАТСЬКИЙ УГОРСЬКИЙ ІНСТИТУТ ІМ. Ф. РАКОЦІ ІІ

II. RÁKÓCZI FERENC KÁRPÁTALJAI MAGYAR FŐISKOLA

ANGOL NYELVTAN

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HALLGATÓK RÉSZÉRE

GRAMMAR GUIDE

FOR 1st YEAR ENGLISH MAJORS

Összeállította

Nagy Enikő

Beregszász - 2014

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PART I.

INTRODUCTION

The Practical English Grammar course **aims** to develop students' level of proficiency of the target language with special focus on different areas of the English Grammar. It is offered in the hope that students will have plenty of opportunities to practice various points of grammar in order to acquire knowledge and skills necessary for teachers of English as a foreign language. It is intended to serve as a seminar covering the areas enlisted in the syllabus.

The first year syllabus has the following main features:

- to get the students familiarize with the necessary terminology in English Grammar;
- to provide appropriate amount of practice for reaching grammatical accuracy in all areas the course covers;
- to get the students acquainted through demonstration with different methods and approaches of teaching grammar.

In addition to traditional grammar teaching the course wishes to examine and practise the use of grammar in authentic passages and audio materials. Special attention should be paid to pronunciation and spelling of the most difficult grammatical forms.

Course requirements

By the end of the course the students should be able:

- to recognise, form and use both in formal and informal style the topic areas of the English Grammar taught during the terms;
- to know the rules of tense formation and usage;
- to know the rules of the sequence of tenses and to transform sentences from direct into indirect speech and vice versa;
- to know the irregular verbs;
- to know the regular and irregular plural forms of the noun, the subject-verb agreement;

- to know the proper use of the countable and uncountable nouns, the regular and irregular plural forms, etc;
- to be able to recognise and use different types of pronouns;
- to know the theoretical material and be able to apply them in oral and written communication;

Students are expected to use the grammar material taught during the course in situation and everyday communication as well as to know the theoretical material.

Assessment

The course will be evaluated on the basis of test results and participation in the classrooms. Attendance will be monitored and registered. Students may miss up to *four classes* during the term.

Assessment will be in the form of random tests, module tests and end-term tests. At the end of the first term an examination will be taken. The extent and the quality of class participation will be taken into consideration for the final grade. The overall grade is taken into account at the exam where students *should show their knowledge of the theoretical material taught in the given term as well as practical skills* in the areas covered.

Students are required to fulfill the following requirements in order to be allowed to take an end-term examination:

- after each module, students in the 1st year will be required to take a module test consisting of 100 points. Students who fail to obtain a minimum of 60% on the module test will have to write a re-sit module test covering the material of the given module. Students who successfully complete the re-sit module test can only receive a satisfactory grade;
- the course finishes with an end-term test and an oral exam. Students are allowed to take the final test if they have successfully passed the module tests;
- students are expected to be present for all the tests;
- students who have not written a test due to an excused absence are allowed to retake it.
- students who have missed a test due to an unexcused absence will receive an unsatisfactory grade on the test and are not entitled to retake it.

Pre-requisite for the exam: a test of irregular verbs at upper-intermediate level.

The same requirements are applied for **correspondent students**. Two module tests are required to be written as a home assignment and must be handed in at least two weeks before the end-term examination.

Assessment will be based on:

Participation	10%
Random tests	10%
Module assessing test	30%
End-term test	50% of the overall grade

1ST YEAR CURRICULUM

Term I.

The Verb Phrase (I). Classification of the English Verbs. Verb categories: tense, mood, aspect, voice, number and person. Regular and Irregular Verbs. Spelling Rules. The Conjugation of the English Verb: Simple and Compound Tenses. The Formation and Use of the Present Simple and Present Continuous. Verbs Not Normally Used in the Continuous Aspect. The Formation and Use of the Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous. The Use of Present Tenses for Expressing Future.

The Verb Phrase (II) The Formation and Use of the Past Simple and Past Continuous. The Use of Past Simple and Present Perfect. The Formation and Use of the Past Perfect and Past Perfect Continuous. The Formation and Use of the Future Simple, Future Continuous, Future Perfect and Future Perfect Continuous.

The Verb Phrase (III). The formation of the Passive Voice. Simple Tenses in Passive (Present Simple and Past Simple). The Passive Voice: Compound Tenses. Continuous Tenses in Passive. Future and Perfect Tenses in Passive.

The Verb Phrase (IV). Sequence of Tenses. Main clauses and subordinate clauses. The rules of the sequence of tenses.

Reported Speech. Changes in reported speech. Shift of pronouns and demonstratives. Reported Statements. Reported questions, commands, requests, advice, invitation, offers etc. Indirect Exclamations. Changes in word order. Modal Verbs in Reporting. Cases when no tense change is required.

The Article. General notions. Use of article with common nouns. The generic and the specific use of the definite article. Articles with names of substances. The usage of the indefinite article. The usage of the zero article. Articles with nouns referring to unique objects. Articles with nouns in some syntactic positions. Articles with names of seasons. Articles with names of times of the day and night. Articles with abstract nouns. Articles with material nouns. Articles with names of meals. Articles with names of diseases. Articles with the names of languages.

Articles with the nouns 'School', 'College', 'Hospital' etc. Articles with the nouns 'Society', 'Town', 'Radio', 'Television'.

The Noun Phrase. Syntactical and morphological characteristics of the noun. Morphological composition. The category of gender. Classification of the nouns. The category of case. Material and abstract nouns. The category of number. Countable and uncountable nouns. Formation of plural. General rules. The plural of compound nouns. Irregular plural forms. Nouns used only in the singular. The plural identical in form with the singular. Nouns used only in the plural. Plurals with Different Meaning. Collective nouns and other words construed as the singular and plural.

The Adjective. Morphological characteristics. Spelling rules. Syntactical characteristics. Classification. Grammatical characteristics of qualitative and relative adjective. Participle Adjectives. Gradable and ungradable adjectives. Position and stress, word order of Adjectives. Comparison. Synthetical comparison. Analytical comparison. Irregularities in the comparison of adjective. The adjective and the adverb.

The Adverb. Morphological structure. The functions of adverbs. Converted adverbs. Adverbial particles. Degrees of comparison. Comparison of adverbs. Adverbs of place, time, frequency, degree, negation, concession manner, adverbs of manner and modality as sentence adverbs.

Numerals. Cardinal Numerals (Adjectives and Pronouns) Decimals. Functions in a sentence. Ordinal Numerals (Adjectives and Pronouns) Fractions. Functions in a sentence. Dates. Mathematical operation. The English weights. Plurals of ounce, pound, ton and kilo. The English table of length. Plurals of inch, mile, centimetre, foot. Liquid measure.

TOPICS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK

Regular and Irregular Verbs. Verbs Not Normally Used in the Continuous Aspect. The Use of the Present Perfect. The Use of Present Tenses for Expressing Future.

The Use of Past Simple and Present Perfect. The Use of the Future Continuous and Future Perfect. The Use of the Future Perfect.

The Simple Tenses in Passive. Present and Past Continuous Passive. Present and Past Perfect Passive. Future Tenses in Passive.

Reported Statements. Reported Questions and Commands. Modal Verbs in Reporting.

The category of case and gender. The category of number. Irregular plural. Countable and uncountable nouns.

Gradable and ungradable adjectives.

End-term assessment: examination.

COURSE REVISION QUESTIONS

1. Classification of Verbs. Formal Classification
2. Classification of Verbs. Functional Classification
3. Verb Categories. Mood, Voice, Aspect.
4. Verb Categories. Tense, Number and Person.
5. Spelling rules.
6. The formation and use of Present Continuous
7. The formation and use of Present Simple
8. The formation and use of Past Simple
9. The formation and use of Past Continuous
10. The formation and use of Present Perfect
11. The formation and use of Present Perfect Continuous
12. The formation and use of Past Perfect
13. The formation and use of Past Perfect Continuous
14. The formation and use of Used to/would
15. Present tenses for the future (min. 5 usage).
16. Will or be going to
17. Present Simple vs Present Continuous
18. Present Perfect vs Present Perfect Continuous
19. Past Simple vs Past Continuous
20. Past Perfect and Past Perfect Continuous
21. Past Simple vs Present Perfect
22. Past Perfect vs Past Simple
23. The formation and use of Future Simple

24. The formation and use of Future Continuous
25. The formation and use of Future Perfect
26. The formation and use of Future Perfect Continuous
27. Will, going to and Present Continuous
28. Conjunctions used in Present Perfect
29. When- and if- sentences. Other conjunctions used in present tenses
30. The Formation of the Passive Voice
31. Simple Tenses in Passive (Present Simple and Past Simple)
32. The Passive Voice: Compound Tenses. Continuous Tenses in Passive
33. The Passive Voice: Compound Tenses. Future and Perfect Tenses in Passive
34. The Causative Structure
35. Sequence of tenses
36. Modal Passives
37. Passive infinitives and gerunds
38. Passive verbs (Verbs with and without objects. Verbs with two objects)
39. Reporting in the passive
40. Passives with by-phrases
41. Changes in Reported Speech. Shift of Pronouns and Demonstratives. Reported Statements
42. Reported Questions
43. Reported Commands, Requests
44. Reported Advice, Invitation, Offers etc. Indirect Exclamations. Changes in Word Order
45. The Article. General notions. Use of article with common nouns
46. The generic and the specific use of the definite article
47. Articles with names of substances
48. The usage of the indefinite article
49. The usage of the zero article
50. Articles with nouns referring to unique objects. Articles with names of seasons
Articles with names of times of the day and night. Articles with abstract nouns
51. Articles with material nouns. Articles with names of meals. Articles with names of diseases. Articles with the names of languages. Articles with the nouns 'School', 'College', 'Hospital' etc. Articles with the nouns 'Society', 'Town', 'Radio', 'Television'

52. The Noun. Definition. Syntactical and morphological characteristics. Morphological composition. Classification.
53. Nouns used only in the singular. Collective nouns and other words construed as the singular and plural.
54. Details of agreement. The category of case. The category of number.
55. Formation of plural. General rules. The plural identical in form with the singular. Borrowed plural forms.
56. The plural of compound nouns. Nouns with identical singulars and different plurals.
57. Countable and uncountable nouns. Material and abstract nouns. Nouns used only in the plural.
58. The Adjective. Morphological characteristics. Spelling rules. Syntactical characteristics.
59. Classification. Grammatical characteristics of qualitative and relative adjectives. Gradable and ungradable adjectives Position and stress, word order of Adjectives
60. Comparison. Synthetical comparison. Analytical comparison. Irregularities in the comparison of adjective.
61. The adjective and the adverb.
62. The Adverb. Morphological structure. The functions of adverbs. Converted adverbs. Adverbial particles.
63. Degrees of comparison. Comparison of adverbs.
64. Adverbs of place, time, frequency, degree, negation, concession, manner, adverbs of manner and modality as sentence adverbs.
65. Cardinal Numerals (Adjectives and Pronouns) Decimals. Functions in a sentence.
66. Ordinal Numerals (Adjectives and Pronouns) Fractions. Functions in a sentence.
67. Dates. Mathematical operation. The English weights. Plurals of ounce, pound, ton and kilo. The English table of length. Plurals of inch, mile, centimetre, foot. Liquid measure.

PART II.
THE VERB
CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

Verbs in the English language are a part of speech and typically describe an action, an event, or a state.

1. Formal Classification of Verbs

1.1. The inflectional forms of the English verb

The names of the inflectional forms of the English verb (V) are the following:

1. The **Infinitive**: (to) V-∅
2. The **Past Tense Form**: V-ed
3. The **Past Participle Form**: V-en
4. The **s-form**: V-s
5. The **ing-form**: V-ing

The conjugation of the English verb is based on the first three principal forms. They are the dictionary forms of the English verb:

First Form: V Infinitive (Főnévi igenév)	Second Form: V-ed Simple Past (Múlt idő)	Third Form: V-en Past Participle (Múlt idejű melléknévi igenév)
open	opened	opened
close	closed	closed
give	gave	given

English verbs are either **regular** or **irregular**, distinguished by the formation of the past tense and the past participle.

1.2. Regular Verbs

1.) Regular verbs have one **common form** (V- \emptyset). From this the other forms can be made:
work, worked (V-ed and V-en), works, working

2.) In all regular verbs the **past tense** (V-ed) and the **past participle** (V-en) are formed by adding [d/t/ɪd], in spelling -(e)d to the infinitive.

The ending is pronounced:

- [d] if the verb ends in a **vowel** or a **voiced consonant**, except [d]: *played, opened*;
- [t] if the verb ends in a **voiceless consonant**, except [t]: *washed, dressed, watched, looked, dropped, laughed*;
- [ɪd] if the verb ends with [d] or [t]: *ended, wanted*.

3.) The **s-form** and the **ing-form** are regular in all verbs

The only personal inflexion of the verb in the Present-Day English is the inflexion [z/s/ɪz], in spelling -(e)s of the third person singular in the present tense of the indicative mood.

The ending is:

- [z] after **vowels** and **voiced consonants**, except [z], [ʒ], [ʒ] : *plays, gives*;
- [s] after voiceless consonants, except [s], [ʃ], [ʃ] : *likes, writes*;
- [ɪz] after [z] - [s], [ʒ] - [ʃ], [ʒ] - [ʃ] : *closes, dresses, wishes, judges, watches*.

4.) Spelling Rules

a) In regular verbs the **past tense** and the **past participle** are formed by adding -d (when the verb ends in -e), or -ed to the infinitive:

close – closed – closed; open – opened – opened.

b) Most English verbs form their **s-forms** by adding -s to the infinitive, but -es is added to verbs ending in:

-s, -ch, -sh, -x, -z: dresses, watches, brushes, boxes, buzzes;

-o: goes, does;

c) Silent -e is dropped before the suffix -ing:

love – loving; come – coming; write – writing.

d) Verbs which end in -y preceded by a consonant change -y into -i before -es and -ed:

try – tries – tried; apply – applies – applied.

Final -y remains unchanged if it is preceded by a vowel or before the suffix -ing:

lay – lays – laying; enjoy – enjoys – enjoyed – enjoying;

Exceptions: lay – laid, pay – paid, say – said.

e) Verbs that end in *-ie* change this to *-y* before *-ing*:

die – *dying*, *lie* – *lying*, *tie* – *tying*;

f) The final consonant is doubled before the suffixes *-ed* and *-ing*:

- when a verb of *one syllable* has a short vowel marked by one letter and ends in a single consonant marked by one letter:

star – *starred* – *starring*; *beg* – *begged* – *begging*; *plan* – *planned* – *planning*; *stop* – *stopped* – *stopping*

- if the stress is on the *second* syllable of the verb:

admit – *admitted* – *admitting*; *prefer* – *preferred* – *preferring*

- if the verb ends in *-l*:

cancel – *cancelled* – *cancelling*; *control* – *controlled* – *controlling*

- if the verb ends in *-ap* or *-ip*, and if the stress is on the **first** syllable:

kidnap – *kidnapped* – *kidnapping*; *worship* – *worshipped* – *worshipping*.

- final *-ic* takes *-ked* and *-king*, as in:

picnic – *picnicked* – *picnicking*.

1.3. Irregular Verbs

The **past tense** and the **past participle** of irregular verbs vary and must be learnt. Irregular verbs may have three, four or a maximum of five inflectional forms (except **to be**: *be, am, is, are, was, were, been, being*).

a) Three forms: *cut, cuts, cutting*

b) Four forms: *find, found, finds, finding*

c) Five forms: *give, gave, given, gives, giving*

1.4. Simple Forms and Compound Forms

1. **Simple forms** consist of one word only.

2. **Compound forms** are formed by placing one, two, three or four auxiliary verbs before one of the three inflectional forms (V- \emptyset , V-en, V-ing) of the principal verb (full verb).

1.5. One-Word Verbs and Group-Verbs

1. One-Word Verbs

a) **Simple Verbs:** *work, play, learn, eat, drink*, etc.

b) **Derivative Verbs** (formed by means of affixes: prefixes or suffixes): *discover, mislead, blacken*.

c) **Compound Verbs:** *understand, overburden, blackmail, hitch-hike*.

2. Group-Verbs or Phrasal Verbs

a) **Verb + preposition:** *call on, look at, look for, take after, turn into*, etc.

b) **Verb + adverbial particle:** *come back, put on, sit up, take off, throw up*, etc.

c) **Be + certain adjectives:** *be able, be glad, be sorry*, etc.

d) **Verb + (preposition) + noun (phrase) + (preposition):** *have breakfast/lunch/tea/dinner, have a rest/drink/game, take care of*, etc.

2. Functional Classification of Verbs

2.1. Full Verbs and Auxiliary Verbs

According to their syntactical functions verbs may be divided into **full/ordinary/content verbs** and **auxiliary/function verbs**:

1. A **full verb** has a meaning of its own and can form the predicate by itself, e.g.:

We work a lot. I often go home. They played football.

2. An **auxiliary verb** has no independent meaning of its own, but helps to build up the compound forms of the English verb.

Auxiliaries serve as:

a) Tense-formers (temporals):

(to) be: am, is, are, was, were, been, being; (to) have: have, has, had; do, does, did; used (to); shall, will; should, would;

b) Mood formers (modals):

can – could, may – might, shall – should, will – would; must, ought (to), have (to), need, etc.

2.2. Non-Finites and Finites

1. The verb forms that cannot form the predicate by themselves are **non-finites** (or **verbals**). The non-finites are:

- the infinitives,
- the gerunds,
- the participles.

2. Any part of a verb can be called **finite**, which is connected with some subject. (The word 'finite' means "limited", that is, limited or bound to its subject.)

Note that certain verb forms function sometimes as non-finites and sometimes as finites.

Examples:

Non-Finites	Finites
We could not <i>meet</i> him. (Present Infinitive)	We often <i>meet</i> him. (Present Tense)
It was <i>made</i> in Hungary. (Past Participle)	He <i>made</i> a big mistake. (Past Tense)

2.3. Anomalous Finites

The following 24 verbs are sometimes called anomalous (=irregular) finites or special finites: *am, is, are, was, were; have, has, had; do, does, did; used (to); will, would; shall, should; can, could; may, might; must, ought (to), need, dare.*

These verbs are anomalous because they have negative forms ending in *-n't* and are not used with *to do*.

Anomalous finites are used:

1. To form the **emphatic affirmative**.

Strong forms of the finites used in **stressed** positions:

I 'do think so. He 'does work a lot.

2. To form the **negative**.

Isn't, aren't, wasn't, weren't, etc.

He *doesn't* go home every day.

She *isn't* happy.

3. To form the **interrogative**.

Anomalous finites are placed after the subject in statements and before it in questions.

Have you finished your work?

Why *did* you help him?

4. To form **short answers**.

Are they working? – Yes, they *are*./No, they *aren't*.

5. To form questions-tags:

You know him, **don't** you?

She isn't ill, **is** she?

6. To express concepts such as:

a) ability: I *can* help you.

b) permission: *May* I come in?

c) obligation: We *must* hurry.

d) possibility: They *must* have been at home.

e) condition: I *should* like to go with you.

3. The Conjugation of the English Verb

In many languages the tenses are distinguished by a system of inflexions known as the conjugation of the verb. Although in English they are formed by the use of auxiliaries rather than inflexions, it is usual to apply the same term “**conjugation**” to the system of English verb forms, which can indicate **mood, voice, aspect, tense, number** and **person**.

3.1. Simple Tenses

English verbs have only two simple tenses: the **present tense** and the **past tense**.

a) The Present Tense

The conjugation of the verbs *to be* and *to have* in the present tense:

To Be

Affirmative	Negative
<i>I am</i>	<i>I am not</i>
<i>he/she/it is</i>	<i>he/she/it is not</i>
<i>we/you/they are</i>	<i>we/you/they are not</i>
Interrogative	Negative-Interrogative

<i>am I?</i>	<i>am I not?</i>
<i>is he/she/it?</i>	<i>is he/she/it not?</i>
<i>are we/you/they</i>	<i>are we/you/they not?</i>

To Have

Affirmative	Negative
he/she/it <i>has</i>	he/she/it <i>has not</i>
I/we/you/they <i>have</i>	I/we/you/they <i>have not</i>
Interrogative	Negative-Interrogative
<i>has he/she/it?</i>	<i>has he/she/it not?</i>
<i>have I/we/you/they?</i>	<i>have I/we/you/they not?</i>

The conjugation of **ordinary verbs** in the present tense: all the persons, except the third person singular have the same form.

b) The Past Tense

The conjugation of the verbs to be and to have in the past tense:

To Be

Affirmative	Negative
I/he/she/it <i>was</i>	I/he/she/it <i>was not</i>
we/you/they <i>were</i>	we/you/they <i>were not</i>
Interrogative	Negative-Interrogative
<i>was I/he/she/it?</i>	<i>was I/he/she/it not?</i>
<i>were we/you/they?</i>	<i>were we/you/they not?</i>

To Have

Affirmative	Negative
I/he/she/it/we/you/they <i>had</i>	I/he/she/it/we/you/they <i>had not</i>
Interrogative	Negative-Interrogative
<i>had I/he/she/it/we/you/they ?</i>	<i>had I/he/she/it/we/you/they not?</i>

The conjugation of **ordinary verbs** in the past tense: all the verbs add *-ed* to their first form except for the irregular verbs.

3.2. Compound Tenses

The compound forms of the present tense and the past tense

The emphatic affirmative, negative, interrogative and negative-interrogative constructions of the present tense and the past tense of ordinary verbs are **compound forms**.

a) The Present Tense

Emphatic Affirmative	Negative
he/she/it <i>does V-ø</i>	he/she/it <i>does not V-ø</i>
I/we/you/they <i>do V-ø</i>	I/we/you/they <i>do not V-ø</i>
Interrogative	Negative-Interrogative
<i>does he/she/it V-ø?</i>	<i>does he/she/it not V-ø?</i>
<i>do I/we/you/they V-ø?</i>	<i>do I/we/you/they not V-ø?</i>

4. Verb Categories

4.1. Mood

Mood (Igemód) is a grammatical category which indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality. In other words mood means the manner or mode of the action expressed by the verb.

English verbs have three moods: the **indicative**, the **imperative**, and the **subjunctive**.

4.1.1. The Indicative Mood

The **Indicative Mood** (Kijelentő mód) shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a fact.

We **went** home early in the evening.

The Indicative Mood is also used to express a real condition, i.e. a condition the realization of which is considered possible.

If it **rains**, I **shall stay** at home.

If Catherine **disobeys** us, we **shall punish** her.

4.1.2. *The Imperative Mood*

The **Imperative Mood** (Felszólító mód) expresses a command or a request. In Modern English the Imperative Mood has only one form which coincides with the infinitive without the particle *to*; it is used in the second person (singular and plural).

Be quiet and **hear** what I tell you.

Come here.

In forming the negative the auxiliary verb *to do* is always used, even with the verb *to be*.

Don't make noise!

Don't be angry!

The auxiliary verb *to do* may also be used in affirmative sentences to make the request more emphatic.

Do sit down, please.

But now, **do sing** again to us.

Let can be used to introduce suggestions and orders.

a) **First-person plural imperative: let's...**

We can use *let us* (formal) or *let's* (informal) to make suggestions or to give orders to a group that includes the speaker.

Let us pray!

Let's have a drink.

Shall we? is used as a question tag in British English; *let's* can be used as a short answer.

Let's go for a walk, **shall we?** – Yes, **let's**.

Negatives are *let us not* / *do not let us* (formal); *let's not* / *don't let's* (informal).

Do not let us forget those who came before us. (formal)

Don't let's stay up too late tonight. (informal)

b) **First-person singular imperative: let me...**

Let me is used to 'give instructions to oneself'; the expressions *Let me see* and *Let me think* are very common.

What time shall we leave? – **Let me think**. Yes, eight o'clock will be OK.

c) **Third-person imperative: let him...**

Let can also introduce a suggestion or order for someone or something else, not the speaker or hearer. This is common in formal and ceremonial language, but informal uses are also possible.

Let the child **go** home at once.

Let our enemies understand that we will not hesitate to defend our territory.

4.1.3. The Subjunctive Mood

The **Subjunctive Mood** (Kötőmód) shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desired. The Subjunctive Mood is also used to express an emotional attitude of the speaker to real facts.

The formal difference between the subjunctive and the indicative has almost disappeared in Present-day English, The remaining forms in which the subjunctive mood differs from the indicative are:

To Be	
Present	Past
I/he/she/it/we/you/they <i>be</i>	I/he/she/it/we/you/they <i>were</i>

To Have
I/he/she/it/we/you/they <i>have</i>

Ordinary Verbs
I/he/she/it/we/you/they <i>V-ø</i>

Note that the third person singular has no s-inflexion.

The “past” subjunctive has the same form as the past tense (V-ed) in all verbs except *to be*, whose “past” subjunctive is *were* for all persons.

E.g. Long *live* the forces and peace.

God *save* the King!

It is necessary that all *be* present.

4.2. Voice

Voice (Igeragozás/Igenem) is the form of the verb which indicates whether a person or thing is doing or receiving an action. In other words voice is the category of the verb which indicates relation of the predicate to the subject and the object.

There are two voices in English: the **active** and the **passive**.

4.2.1. The Active Voice

The **active voice** (Cselekvő igeragozás/igenem) shows that the person or thing denoted by the subject is the doer of the action. In the active voice we concentrate our attention on the doer and we make the doer of the action the subject of the sentence:

Her grandparents *brought her up*.

A new company *has taken it over*.

4.2.1. The Passive Voice

The **passive voice** (Szenvedő igeragozás/igenem) indicates that the person or thing denoted by the subject is the receiver or the sufferer of the action. In the passive we make the object of the action the subject of the sentence. The doer of the action is usually not expressed in a passive construction:

English *is spoken* all over the world.

He *was educated* in Cambridge.

The doer can be expressed by a prepositional phrase (by)

She *was brought up by her grandparents*.

The passive is extensively used in English in the following instances:

a) When it is more convenient or interesting to emphasize the thing done than the doer of it:

These books *have been found* in the classroom.

b) When the doer of the action is unknown or cannot easily be stated:

My money *has been stolen*.

c) When the doer is not mentioned for some special reason (unimportant or irrelevant, tact or delicacy of feeling):

We *were told* to go away.

4.3. Aspect

The category of aspect (Igeszemplélet) shows the way in which the action develops, whether it is in progress or completed. In the English tense-system activity is seen from several different points of view:

1) The **general idea** of an act (when no particular time is thought of):

When water *boils* it *changes* into steam.

2) A **single** act:

a) An act performed once, an act seen as a completed whole:

They *have arrived*.

b) An uncompleted act, imagined as action in progress:

She *is working* in the kitchen.

3) A **series** of acts (an act performed repeatedly):

a) A completed series of acts:

During the summer I *went* swimming every afternoon.

b) An uncompleted series of acts:

They have been playing football every day this week.

The duration, completeness or incompleteness of an action, the emotional attitude of the speaker toward an action can be indicated by the two aspects, the **common** and the **continuous**.

4.3.1. The Common Aspect

In the **common aspect** the act is thought of as a bare statement, a fact (a general or habitual fact, or a particular fact), as a completed whole.

The sun *rises* in the east (general fact).

We *get up* at six every morning (habitual fact).

I *saw* him ten minutes ago (particular fact).

4.3.2. The Continuous Aspect

The continuous aspect expresses an action as a process going on at a given moment or over a period of time.

According to the meaning of the verb the continuous aspect may express:

a) **Duration**: He *has been sleeping* for two hours.

b) **Repetition**: She *was always asking* me for money.

c) The **beginning** of an act: It *is beginning* to rain.

d) The **end** of an act (the action or state is progressing toward an end): She *is becoming* deaf.

e) The **temporary** or **particular character** of an act: We *are getting up* early this week.

4.4. Tense

It is important not to confuse the words **tense** and **time**. The notion of time is universal, and is independent of any particular language. The word **tense** stands for verbal constructions expressing certain time relations.

The English tense system comprises twelve tenses. There are only eight tenses in the passive voice.

English tenses are verbal constructions expressing aspects of time combined with aspects of activity. They may indicate:

a) Tenses referring to present time:

Present Tense: The teacher *comes in*.

Present Continuous: What *are you doing*?

Present Perfect: I *have been* ill for two weeks.

Present Perfect Continuous: We *have been waiting* for him for half an hour.

b) Tenses referring to past time:

Past Tense: When *did you come* home?

Past Continuous: It *was raining* all day yesterday.

Past Perfect: He said he *had spent* two months there.

Past Perfect Continuous: By that time I *had been learning* English for five years.

c) Tenses referring to future time:

Future Tense: We *will meet* them at seven.

Future Continuous: They *will be travelling* all night.

Future Perfect: I *will have done* it by four o'clock.

Future Perfect Continuous: By the first of January they *will have been working* here for ten years.

4.5. Number and Person

There are **two numbers** of the verb: **singular** and **plural**.

There are **three persons** in the verb:

1. The **first** person – I am reading. We are reading.
2. The **second** person – You are a clever boy. You are nice people.
3. The **third** person – He/She/It eats a lot. They eat a lot.

Notes:

- a) The second person singular is not used in Present-Day English; it has been replaced by the second person plural.
- b) The verb *to be* has three forms for person and number in the present tense (am, is, are); and two forms in the past tense (was, were).

5. The Simple Present Tense

Form

The Present Simple Tense is formed from the infinitive without the particle *to*.

In the third person singular the ending *-s* or *-es* is added.

a) Most verbs: add *-s* to infinitive:

work → works; sit → sits; stay → stays

b) When **y** follows a consonant we change the **y** into **i** and add **-es**:

cry → cries; hurry → hurries; reply → replies

but verbs ending in **y** following a vowel obey the usual rule:

obey → obeys; say → says

c) Verbs ending in **-z, -s, -ss, -sh, -ch, -x** and **-o** add **-es** instead of **-s** alone, to form the third person singular:

miss → misses; buzz → buzzes; watch → watches; push → pushes; fix → fixes

Exceptions: have → has; go → goes; do → does.

The interrogative and the negative forms are formed by means of the Present Simple of the auxiliary verb *to do* and the infinitive of the notional verb without the particle *to*.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I work	Do I work?	I do not/don't work
You work	Do you work?	You don't work
He works	Does he work?	He does not work
She works	Does she work?	She does not work
We work	Do we work?	We do not work
You work	Do you work?	You do not work
They work	Do they work?	They do not work

Contractions: the verb **do** is normally contracted in the negative and negative interrogative: I don't work, he doesn't work, don't they work?, doesn't he work?

Pronunciation of third person singular forms

The pronunciation of the *-(e)s* ending depends on the sound that comes before it. The rules are the same as for the plural *-(e)s* ending.

Irregular pronunciations: says /sez/ .

Common Uses

The present tense is used to express:

1. A state or a single action at the present moment

She *looks* ill.

The teacher *enters* the classroom.

2. Habitual or repeated actions

Time-indicators: *usually, generally, normally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, always, rarely, seldom, never, on Mondays, every day / week / month etc.*

They *usually* get up very early.

Do you *never* drink coffee?

He comes to Hungary *every year*.

3. General statements covering all time

a) Actions permanently characterizing the subject:

I *prefer* coffee to tea.

She *smokes* too much.

English *is spoken* all over the world.

b) Natural, scientific, eternal truths:

Heat *expands* gas.

Actions *speak* louder than words.

Other Uses

1. The Present Simple Tense is used to denote actions going on at the moment (with verbs not used in the Continuous form).

I *see* George in the street. Tell him to come in.

I *hear* somebody knock. Go and open the door.

The list of verbs which are normally not used in the Continuous form (but there are exceptions) is as follows: *want, prefer, like, love, hate, belong, see, hear, know, realize, believe, suppose, mean, understand, remember, forget, seem, have* (when the meaning is 'possess'), *think* (when the meaning is 'believe').

2. It is used by radio commentators at sports events, public functions. It can be used in newspaper headlines.

Jones *passes* the ball to Hunter – he *shoots* – it's a goal.

Mass murderer *escapes*.

3. When the speaker is showing how something is done and accompanies his words by the action:

Now watch! I *take* the glass in my left hand, then I *pour* some water into it, etc.

4. It is also used when describing works of art:

The picture *portrays* Milton dictating Paradise Lost.

5. It can be used for dramatic narrative. This is particularly useful when describing the action of a play, opera, etc.

When the curtain *rises*, Juliet is writing at her desk. Suddenly the window *opens* and a masked man *enters*.

6. Present Simple is used after *here* and *there*:

Here comes our friend!

There goes our bus!

7. Present Simple with a future meaning:

We use the present simple when we talk about timetables, programmes, etc. (for public transport, cinemas etc.)

His train *arrives* at 11:46.

I *start* my new job tomorrow.

And the simple present is often used instead of will... in subordinate clauses that refer to the future.

I will phone you when I *get* home.

The simple present is also used in suggestions with *Why don't you...?*

Why *don't* you *take* a day off tomorrow?

We use the present simple to refer to the future after these words: *when, after, before, unless, in case, as soon as, until, by the time, the next time*.

Let's run home *before* it rains.

Take an umbrella *in case* it rains.

This tense can be used with a time expression for a definite future arrangement:

The boys start school on Monday. I leave tonight. instead of the more normal present continuous tense:

The boys are starting school on Monday. I am leaving tonight.

The difference between them is:

- a) The simple present is more impersonal than the continuous. *I'm leaving tonight* would probably imply that I have decided to leave, but *I leave tonight* could mean that this is part of a plan not necessarily made by me.
- b) The simple present can also sound more formal than the continuous. A big store planning to open a new branch is more likely to say: *Our new branch opens next week* than *Our new branch is opening next week*.

6. The Present Continuous Tense

Form

The present continuous tense is formed with the present tense of the auxiliary verb *be* + *the present participle*.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I am working	Am I working?	I am not working
You are working	Are you working?	You are not/aren't working
He/She/It is working	Is he/she/it working?	He/She/It is not/isn't working
We are working	Are we working?	We aren't working
You are working	Are you working?	You aren't working
They are working	Are they working?	They aren't working

Negative-interrogative: *Aren't you working? Isn't he/she working? / etc.*

Contractions: in speech and informal writing, the verb *be* is contracted.

I'm, you're, he's/she's/it's, we're, they're.

Questions: Yes/No questions are formed by inverting the subject and the auxiliary *be*.

Am I writing? Are you writing? Is he/she writing? etc.

Spelling rules

- a) When a verb ends in a single *-e*, this *-e* is dropped before *-ing*.

argue → arguing; hate → hating; love → loving

except after age, dye and singe: ageing, dyeing, singeing

and verbs ending in *ee*: agree → agreeing; see → seeing

b) When a verb of one syllable has one vowel and ends in a single consonant this consonant is doubled before *-ing*:

hit → hitting; run → running; stop → stopping;

c) Verbs of two or more syllables whose last syllable contain only one vowel and end in a single consonant double this consonant if the stress falls on the last syllable:

admit → admitting; begin → beginning; prefer → preferring

but budget → budgeting; enter → entering (stress not on the last syllable).

d) A final *l* after a single vowel is, however, always doubled:

signal → signalling; travel → travelling

e) *-ing* can be added to a verb ending in *-y* without affecting the spelling of the verb:

carry → carrying; enjoy → enjoying

f) if the verb end in *-ie*, it changes to *-y*:

lie → lying

Common Uses

The present continuous is used to denote:

1. An action being performed at the moment of speaking or writing

Time-indicators (expressed or implied): *now, just, at the moment, etc.*

I am not wearing a coat as it isn't cold.

What *are you doing*? – I'm *making* tea.

He *is being questioned* at the moment.

2. Temporary habit or activity (the action is happening about this time but not necessarily at the moment of speaking or writing)

He *is working* hard this term.

I *am reading* a book by Shakespeare.

When two continuous tenses having the same subject are joined by **and**, the auxiliary may be dropped before the second verb.

She was knitting and listening to the radio.

3. Changing and developing states

We use the present continuous when we talk about changes happening around now, especially with these verbs: *get, change, become, increase, rise, fall, grow, improve, begin, start.*

Is your English getting better?

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

Other Uses

1. With a point in time to indicate an action which begins before this point and probably continues after it:

At six I am bathing the baby. (I start bathing him before six.)

2. With always: *He is always losing his keys.*

This tense is used to express the constant repetition of an event; an action permanently characterizing the subject (this is a habit, and usually one that annoys or causes a strong feeling of some kind in the speaker):

Other time-indicators: *always, continually, constantly, perpetually, for ever, etc.* Note that there should always be a stress on the adverb.

He is always doing things for other people.

She is always grumbling at something.

3. Present Continuous with a future meaning

a) **This tense may be used for a future arrangement or plan** (the most usual way of expressing one's immediate plans):

I am going to the cinema tomorrow. I'm meeting Peter tonight.

Note that the time of the action must always be mentioned, as otherwise there might be confusion between present and future meanings. *Come* and *go*, however, can be used in this way without a time expression.

b) To express refusal

With the 1st person, it expresses a straightforward refusal on the part of the speaker:

I'm not doing it again. (I refuse to do it again.)

I'm not paying in advance. (I refuse to pay in advance.)

With the second and third person, it expresses the refusal to allow an action.

You're not using my pen again. (I won't allow you to use my pen again.)

7. Verbs not normally used in the continuous tenses (Non-Progressive Verbs)

The continuous tenses are chiefly used for deliberate actions. Some verbs are, therefore, not normally used in the continuous and have only one present tense, the simple present. These verbs (state verbs) can be grouped as follows:

a) Verbs of the senses: *feel, hear, see, smell, taste, appear, look like;*

b) Verbs expressing feelings and emotions: *like, hate, love, prefer, want, wish, admire, desire, respect, value;*

c) Verbs of mental activity: *agree, believe, forget, know, think (have an opinion), understand, remember, suppose;*

d) Verbs of possession: *belong, owe, own, possess;*

e) Verbs denoting abstract relations: *to have, to consist, to depend, to belong;*

State verbs and action verbs

States – a state means something is staying the same.	Actions – an action means something is happening.
The flat <i>is</i> clean.	I'm <i>cleaning</i> the flat.
The farmer <i>owns</i> the land.	The farmer <i>is buying</i> the land.
He box <i>contained</i> old books.	He <i>put</i> out the books in the box.
<i>State verbs cannot usually be continuous.</i>	<i>Action verbs can be simple or continuous.</i>

Sometimes we can use a verb either for a state for an action.

States (simple tenses)	Actions (simple or continuous)
I <i>think</i> you are right. (= believe)	I'm <i>thinking</i> about the problem. (= considering)
We <i>have</i> three cars. (= own)	We're <i>having</i> lunch. (= eating)
I <i>come</i> from Sweden. (= live in)	I'm <i>coming</i> from Sweden. (= travelling)
I <i>see</i> your problem. (= understand)	Mark <i>is seeing</i> his boss. (= meeting)
It <i>smells</i> bad. (= perceive a scent/an odour)	Your dog <i>is smelling</i> the flowers. (= sniff at)
The soup <i>tastes</i> bad. (= has a bad taste)	She <i>was tasting</i> the pudding to see if it was sweet enough. (= to test the flavour of)
Look, feel – There is almost no difference of meaning between the simple and continuous.	
I feel awful!	I'm <i>feeling</i> awful.
How do you <i>feel</i> now?	How <i>are you feeling</i> now?

The list of verbs NOT normally used in progressive tenses.

The senses	Emotional	Mental	Possession	Existence
feel*	amaze	believe	belong	belong
hear	appreciate	desire	have*	have*
see*	astonish	doubt*	own	own
smell*	care*	feel*	possess	possess
taste*	dislike	forget*		
know	envy	imagine*		
	fear	know		
	hate	mean*		
	like	realize		
	love	recognize		
	mind	remember*		
	need	suppose		
	please	think*		
	prefer	understand		
	surprise	want*		
	want			

Verbs with a * can sometimes be used, but it has a special meaning

8. Present Simple vs Present Continuous

In most cases to refer to something which happens at the present moment either the Present Simple or the Present Continuous is used. The differences between the two forms are summarized below.

Present Simple	Present Continuous
<p><i>1. Permanent habit:</i> John <i>works</i> for the City Hall. (this is his permanent job)</p>	<p><i>1. Temporary habit:</i> John <i>is working</i> for the City Hall. (this is his temporary job)</p>
<p><i>2. Permanent event:</i> Jane <i>writes</i> letters every day.</p>	<p><i>2. Temporary event:</i> Jane <i>is writing</i> a letter now.</p>
<p><i>3. Permanent state:</i> He often <i>sleeps</i> after lunch.</p>	<p><i>3. Temporary state:</i> He <i>is sleeping</i> now.</p>

<p>4. <i>General truth/statements:</i> Water <i>boils</i> at 100 C.</p> <p>5. <i>Commenting the events which begin and end at the very moment of speech:</i> John <i>comes</i> up to the door, <i>takes</i> out a key, <i>opens</i> the door...</p>	<p>4. <i>Continuous habit which irritates the speaker:</i> She <i>is always begging</i> for money.</p> <p>5. <i>Changing or developing states:</i> The climate <i>is getting</i> warmer.</p>
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9. The Present Perfect Tense

Form

The present perfect tense is formed with the present tense of **have** + the past participle: *I have cleaned* etc.

The past participle in regular verbs has exactly the same form as the simple past, i.e. *loved, walked* etc. In irregular verbs, the past participles vary.

The negative is formed by adding **not** to the auxiliary.

The interrogative is formed by inverting the auxiliary and subject.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I have cleaned	Have I cleaned?	I have not /haven't cleaned
You have cleaned	Have you cleaned?	You haven't cleaned
He/She/It has cleaned	Has he/she/it cleaned?	He/She/It has not/hasn't cleaned
We have cleaned	Have we cleaned?	We haven't cleaned
You have cleaned	Have you cleaned?	You haven't cleaned
They have cleaned	Have they cleaned?	They haven't cleaned

Negative interrogative: *hasn't he cleaned?* etc.

Contractions: *have/has* and *have not/has not* can be contracted.

I've cleaned, you haven't cleaned, hasn't he cleaned? etc.

Common Uses

This tense always implies a strong connection with the present and is chiefly used in conversations, letters, newspapers and television and radio reports.

The present perfect is used to express:

1. The present result of a past action or experience

a) The accomplished action is the cause of the present state which is its result.

I have closed the door. (Now it is closed.)

The doors *have been painted* green. (Now they are green.)

The rain *has stopped*. (Now it is not raining any longer.)

b) The accomplished action gives the subject a certain experience by which the subject still profits:

I have seen this film. (I know it.)

We have studied this subject. (We know it.)

He has travelled a lot. (He is an experienced traveller).

Actions expressed by the present perfect + *yet* usually have results in the present:

He *hasn't come* yet.

2. The present perfect is used for recent actions when the time is not mentioned.

I have read the instructions but I don't understand them.

Compare with:

I read the instructions last night. (time given, so simple past)

3. It can also be used for actions which occur further back in the past, provided the connexion with the present is still maintained, that is that the action could be repeated in the present.

I have seen wolves in that forest. – implies that it is still possible to see them.

4. Present Perfect is used for actions occurring in an incomplete period.

a) An incomplete period may be indicated by *today* or *this morning/afternoon/evening/week/month/year/century* etc.

Note that the present perfect can be used with *this morning* only up to about one o'clock, because after that *this morning* becomes a completed period and actions occurring in it must be put into the simple past:

(at 11 a.m.) Tom *has rung up* three times this morning already.

(at 2 p.m.) Tom *rang up* three times this morning.

Similarly, *this afternoon* will end at about five o'clock.

b) **lately**, **recently** used with the present perfect also indicate an incomplete period of time.

In the sentences *Has he been here lately/recently?* and *He hasn't been here lately/recently*, **lately/recently** means 'at any time during the last week/month etc.'; and in *He has been here recently*, **recently** means 'at some undefined time during the last week/month etc.'

There *have been* some changes lately/recently.

c) The present perfect can be used similarly with *ever, never, always, occasionally, often, several times* etc. and *since* + a point in time, *since* + clause, or *since*, adverb:

Have you ever fallen off a horse?

5. The present perfect can be used for an action which lasts throughout an incomplete period.

Time expressions include *for, since, all day/night/week, all the time, always, lately, never, recently*.

a) The action usually begins in the past and continues past the time of speaking in the present:

He has been in the army for two years. (He is still in the army.)

b) Sometimes, however, the action finishes at the time of speaking:

I haven't seen you for ages (but I see you know.)

6. The present perfect used with *for* and *since*

For is used with a period of time: *for two weeks, for ten minutes, for four years, for three months, for years, for ages, for the last two months*.

He has used his car for ten years. I have known him for two months.

Since is used with a point in time and means 'from that point to the time of speaking': *since May, since last week, since they moved, since then, ever since*.

John has been ill since Sunday. We have been very busy since we came back.

8. The Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Form

This tense is formed by the present perfect of the verb *to be* + the *-ing* form of the verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I have been working	Have I been working?	I have not/haven't been working
You have been working	Have you been working?	You haven't been working
He/She/It has been working	Has he/she/it been working?	He/She/It hasn't been working
We have been working	Have we been working?	We haven't been working

You have been working	Have you been working?	You haven't been working
They have been working	Have they been working?	They haven't been working

Negative interrogative: *have I not/haven't I been working?* etc.

The present perfect continuous is used to express the same kind of meaning as the present perfect, though the action is very often still happening. This tense answers the question *How long?* or emphasizes the length of time the action has taken. There is no clear division between the use of the present perfect of the common aspect and the present perfect continuous.

Note that the sentence *I've studied French for two years* can mean either 'at some unspecified time earlier in my career' or 'starting two years ago', while *I've been studying French for two years* can only convey the latter meaning.

Common Uses

1. This tense is used for an action which began in the past and still continuing or only has just finished.

I've been waiting for an hour and he still hasn't turned up.

I'm so sorry I'm late. *Have you been waiting* long?

Remember that a number of verbs are not normally used in the continuous form, but that some of these can be used in this form in certain cases. We can therefore say:

I've been thinking it over.

I've been hearing all about his operation.

2. The present perfect continuous can emphasize the length of time of the action.

I've been waiting here all morning.

I've been feeling ill for weeks.

3. The present perfect continuous can emphasize that the action is temporary:

I've been staying in a hotel for the past month.

4. The present perfect continuous can be used for repeated actions.

I've been phoning her for days, but she's never at home.

Time expressions: *all day, all morning, for days, for ages, lately, recently, since, for, etc.*

Present Perfect or Present Perfect Continuous?

1. An action which began in the past and is still continuing or has only just finished can, with certain verbs, be expressed by either the present perfect simple or the present perfect continuous. Verbs which can be used in this way include *expect, hope, learn, lie, live, look, rain, sleep, sit, snow, stand, stay, study, teach, wait, want, work*.

How long have you learnt English?

How long have you been learning English?

He has slept for ten hours.

He has been sleeping for ten hours.

This is not of course possible with verbs which are not used in the continuous forms i.e. the present perfect continuous could not replace the simple present perfect in the following examples:

They've always had a big garden.

How long have you known that?

2. We often use the present perfect if our attention is on the finished result, but the present perfect continuous if our attention is on the action.

I've written that email to Jackie and it's taken an hour! I'm exhausted!

I've been writing that email to Jackie and it's taken an hour! I'm exhausted!

3. If we give details of how many or how much we do not use a continuous form.

I've written four emails.

I've done a lot of cooking and cleaning this afternoon.

9. The Simple Past Tense

Form

The simple past tense in regular verbs is formed by adding **-ed** to the infinitive:

Infinitive: to work Simple past: workeded

Verbs ending in *-e* add *-d* only.

Infinitive: to love Simple past: lovedd

The same form is used for all persons:

I worked; you worked; he worked etc.

The negative of regular and irregular verbs is formed with did not (didn't) and the infinitive.

I did not/didn't work

The interrogative of regular and irregular verbs is formed with did + subject + infinitive:

did I work?; did you work?

Negative interrogative: *did you not/didn't you work? etc.*

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I worked	Did I work?	I did not/didn't work
You worked	Did you work?	You didn't work
He/She/It worked	Did he/she/it work?	He/she/it didn't work
We worked	Did we work?	We didn't work
You worked	Did you work?	You didn't work
They worked	Did they work?	They didn't work

Spelling rules

1. Verbs ending with one vowel and one consonant double the final consonant.

admit → admitted, stop → stopped, travel → travelled

2. Verbs ending in -y following a consonant change the -y into -I before adding -ed.

carry → carried, try → tried

but -y following a vowel does not change: *obey, obeyed.*

Irregular verbs

These vary considerably in their simple past form:

Infinitive: *to eat, to leave, to see, to speak*

Simple Past: *ate, left, saw, spoke*

The simple past form of each irregular verb must therefore be learnt, but once this is done there is no other difficulty, as irregular verbs (like regular verbs) have no inflexions in the past tense (See Appendix 1.)

Common Uses

1. It is used for actions completed in the past at a definite time. It is therefore used:

a) for a past action when the time is given:

I met him yesterday. Pasteur died in 1895.

Time indicators: *...ago (five minutes, two weeks), yesterday, the day before yesterday, yesterday evening, last night, last week/month/year/summer/January, in May, on 5th of June, on Monday, in 2011, at 5 o'clock, at half past six etc.*

b) or when the time is asked about:

When did you meet him?

c) or when the action clearly took place at a definite time even though this time is not mentioned:

The train was ten minutes late.

How did you get your present job?

d) Sometimes the time becomes definite as a result of a question and answer in the present perfect:

Where have you been? – I have been to the opera. – Did you enjoy it?

2. The simple past tense is used for an action whose time is not given but which

a) occupied a period of time now terminated, or

He worked in that bank for four years. (but he does not work there now)

She lived in Rome for a long time. (but she is not living there now)

b) occurred at a moment in a period of time now terminated.

My grandmother once saw Queen Victoria.

Did you ever hear Maria Callas sing?

3. The simple past tense is also used for a past habit.

Ha always carried an umbrella. They never drank wine.

4. The past tense is used to express consecutive past actions. It is primarily the tense of narration.

Oliver *walked* twenty miles that day, and all that time he *ate* nothing but his piece of bread. He *stopped* once or twice at a farm and *asked* for some water. When the night *came* he *crept* under a hayrick. He *decided* to lie there till morning. He *felt* frightened at first, but he *was* terribly tired and soon *fell* asleep.

Used – is a past tense of a defective verb which has no present tense.

1. It is used to express a discontinued habit or a past situation which contrasts with the present:

I used to smoke cigarettes; now I smoke a pipe.

He used to drink beer; now he drinks wine.

2. It is also used to express a past routine or pattern. Here we are not making a contrast between past and present; we are merely describing someone's routine during a certain period. Used to here is replaceable by would (but would cannot replace used to for a discontinued habit etc.)

Tom and Ann were a young married couple. Every morning Tom used to kiss Ann and set off for work. Ann used to stand at the window and wave goodbye.

3. Questions and negatives – with questions and negatives *used to* becomes *use to*.

Did you use to have long hair when you were younger?

I didn't use to play tennis, but now I play most weekends.

Past Simple vs Present Perfect

1. We use the present perfect **if we are thinking about the past and present together**. We do not use the present perfect if there is no connection to the present. Compare:

My sister *has learnt* French. (She can speak French now.)

Shakespeare probably *learnt* Italian. (NOT ~~Shakespeare has probably learnt~~ Italian.)

We *have studied* enough to pass the exam. (The exam is still to come.)

We *studied* enough to pass the exam. (The exam is over.)

2. The present perfect is often used in letters:

I'm sorry I *haven't written* before but I've been very busy lately as Tom *has been* away.

3. With words that mean 'at some/any time up to now' (like ever, before, never, yet, recently, already), we normally use the present perfect.

Have you ever been to Chicago?

I've *seen* this film *before*.

4. We use the present perfect when we are thinking of a period of 'time up to now', even if we do not mention it.

Have you seen 'Romeo and Juliet'? (= Have you ever seen it? or Have you seen the present production?)

On the other hand, we do not use the present perfect when we are thinking of a particular finished time, even if we do not mention it.

Did you see 'Romeo and Juliet'? (It was on TV last night.)

5. We normally use the present perfect to announce news. But when we give more details, we usually change to a past tense.

There *has been* a plane crash near Bristol. Witnesses say that there *was* an explosion as the aircraft *was taking off*...

6. We do not often use the present perfect with words that refer to a completely finished period of time, like *yesterday, last week, then, when, three years ago, in 1970*. This is because

the present perfect focuses on the present, and words like these focus on the past, so they contradict each other. Compare:

Have you seen Lucy anywhere?

I *saw* Lucy yesterday. (NOT ~~I have seen Lucy yesterday.~~)

Tom *has hurt* his leg; he can't walk.

Tom *hurt* his leg last week. (NOT Tom has hurt his leg last week.)

7. We do not use the present perfect in story-telling.

Once upon a time a beautiful princess *fell* in love with a poor farmer.

10. The Past Continuous Tense

Form

The past continuous tense is formed by the past tense of the verb **to be** + the **-ing** form of the main verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I was working	Was I working?	I was not/wasn't working
You were working	Were you working?	You were not/weren't working
He/She/It was working	Was he/she/it working?	He/she/it wasn't working
We were working	Were we working?	We weren't working
You were working	Were you working?	You weren't working
They were working	Were they working?	They weren't working

Negative contractions: *I wasn't working, you weren't working etc.*

Negative interrogative: *was he not/wasn't he working? etc.*

Common Uses

1. The past continuous is used to denote an action going on at a given past moment.

Time indicators: *(at) this time last year, this time last month, at 5 o'clock.*

What *were you doing* at 9 pm? – I *was watching* television.

She *was not cooking* at midday.

2. The past continuous is used to indicate that an action was going on at a time when something else happened.

She *was sitting* at her desk *when I came in*.

What *were you doing* *when the telephone rang*?

Note that in clauses beginning with *while* and *as*, the common aspect is commonly used, as the meaning of these conjunctions already implies a certain duration.

While he talked he rang for his secretary.

We talked the matter over *as* we drove.

3. The past continuous is used to describe an action filling up a whole period of time in the past (when the action is considered in its progress).

Time indicators: *all day yesterday, all last week, all last year, etc.*

I *was taking* notes during the meeting.

It *was raining* all day yesterday.

4. The past continuous can be used to describe several situations in progress, happening at the same time.

While James *was cooking*, David *was phoning* a friend.

What *were you doing* while your wife *was packing*?

Compare:

What *were you doing* when the lights went out? – When the lights went out I *was reading* in bed.

What *did you do* when the lights went out? – When the lights went out, I *went* to bed.

(Consecutive actions)

Other Uses

The past continuous may also be used to express:

1. Certain feelings (impatience, blame, praise, etc.)

I thought you *were* never *coming*. (Impatience)

We thought you *were* never *going*. (Irritation)

He *was* always *making* trouble.

2. Unfulfilled past intention

I *was* just *going* to leave when they came.

We *were* *going* to sell our house, but we couldn't.

3. Cause or reason

He had an accident because he *was driving* too fast.

I didn't come to school because I *was feeling* ill.

4. Past Continuous and simple past: 'background' events

We often use the past progressive together with a simple past tense. The past progressive refers to a longer ‘background’ action or situation; the simple past refers to a shorter action or event that happened in the middle of the longer action, or that interrupted it.

As I *was walking* down the road, I *saw* Bill.

The phone *rang* while I *was having* dinner.

Mozart *died* while he *was composing* the Requiem.

11. The Past Perfect Tense

Form

This tense is formed with had and the past participle.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I had worked	Had I worked?	I had not/hadn't work
You had worked	Had you worked?	You hadn't work
He/She/It had worked	Had he/she/it worked?	He/she/it hadn't work
We had worked	Had we worked?	We hadn't work
You had worked	Had you worked?	You hadn't work
They had worked	Had they worked?	They hadn't work

Negative interrogative: *had I not/hadn't I worked? etc.*

Common Uses

1. The past perfect is used to express a single action or repeated actions which took place before a given past moment. The past moment from which the accomplished action is viewed may be:

a) clear from the **context**:

I was angry with hi because he *had forgotten* to post the letter.

b) fixed by an **adverbial**:

Why didn't you drink it? – Because someone else *had drunk* it already.

c) fixed by **another action** in the past (The action expressed by the past perfect was or was not completed before another action occurred.):

By the time the bell rang, we *had already done* all the exercises.

After I *had learnt* my lesson, I went to the cinema.

The concert *had started* before I got to the hall. (= I got to the hall after the concert *had started*.)

Notes:

a) The past tense may be used when two actions closely follow each other:

As soon as it *began* to rain we ran indoors.

The bus *started* just before we reached the bus stop.

But if we want to stress the time relation and underline that one action happened before the other we use past perfect for the action that happened before another action:

As soon as our guests *had drunk* all our wine they left our house.

b) We can describe two or more actions within the same sentence. In that case we can use the past tense for all of them:

I *got* back home and then I *made* a cup of tea.

We *packed* the suitcases and then *rang* for a taxi.

2. An action begun before a given past moment

a) and still going on at that past moment:

Time indicators: *for/since..., when..., how long..., when...? etc.*

She *had been* ill for two weeks when I learnt about it.

How long *had you been* at home when I rang you up?

b) or coming very close up to that past moment but no longer going on at that past moment (this is shown by the context):

I *had waited* for her for half an hour before she came.

Other Uses

1. The past perfect is used to indicate that an action was prevented or stopped before it was completed:

The teacher wiped the blackboard before I *had finished* copying the new words.

2. The past perfect is used with such verbs as: *hope, expect, intend, mean (= intend), think, suppose, want* to indicate that a past hope, expectation, intention, desire, etc. was not realized:

I *had hoped* that they would be at home.

We *had wanted* to help but couldn't get there in time.

3. The past perfect is also the past equivalent of the simple past tense, and is used when the narrator or subject looks back on earlier action from a certain point in the past:

Tom was 23 when our story begins. His father *had died* five years before and since then Tom *had lived* alone. His father *had advised* him not to get married till he was 35, and Tom intended to follow this advice.

But if we merely give the events in the order in which they occurred no past perfect tense is necessary:

Tom's father died when Tom was eighteen. Before he died he advised Tom not to marry till he was 35, and Tom at 23 still intended to follow this advice.

There is no looking back in the above example so no reason for a past perfect.

4. Clauses with when

a) When one past action follows another, *He called her a liar, She smacked his face*, we can combine them by using **when** and two simple past tenses provided that it is clear from the sense that the second action followed the first and that they did not happen simultaneously:

When he called her a liar she smacked her face.

When two simple past tenses are used in this way there is usually the idea that the first action led to the second and that the second followed the first very closely:

When he opened the window the bird flew out.

The past perfect is used after **when** if we want to emphasize that the first action was completed before the second one started:

When we had shut the window we opened the door of the cage. (We waited for the window to be quite shut before opening the cage.)

b) The past perfect can be used with **till/until** and **before** to emphasize the completion or expected completion of an action. But note that in *till/until + past perfect + simple past* combinations the simple past action may precede the past perfect action; and in *before + past perfect + simple past* combinations the simple past action will always precede the past perfect action.

He refused to go till he had seen all the pictures.

He did not wait till we had finished our meal.

Before we had finished our meal he ordered us back to work.

c) **after** is normally followed by a perfect tense

After the will had been read there were angry exclamations.

12. The Past Perfect Continuous Tense

Form

This tense is formed with **had been** + the **-ing** form of the main verb. It is therefore the same for all persons:

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I had been working	Had I been working?	I had not/hadn't been working
You had been working	Had you been working?	You hadn't been working
He/She/It had been working	Had he/she/it been working?	He/She/It hadn't been working
We had been working	Had we been working?	We hadn't been working
You had been working	Had you been working?	You hadn't been working
They had been working	Had they been working?	They hadn't been working

It is not used with verbs which are not used in the continuous forms, except with **want** and sometimes **wish**:

The boy was delighted with his new knife. He *had been wanting* one for a long time.

Common Uses

1. We use the past perfect progressive to talk about actions or situations which had continued up to the past moment that we are thinking about, or shortly before it.

When I found Mary, I could see that she *had been crying*.

I went to the doctor because I *had been sleeping* badly.

2. The past perfect continuous is used to express a previous action whose result is still continuing at a given past moment although the action itself has ceased:

Why were you crying? – I was crying because I *had been peeling* onions.

3. A repeated action can sometimes be expressed as a continuous action by this tense (instead of the past perfect):

I *had tried* three times to get you on the phone. Or:

I *had been trying* to get you on the phone.

4. But there is a difference between the single action in the simple past perfect and an action in the past perfect continuous:

By six o'clock he *had repaired* the engine. (This job had been completed.)

He had been repairing the engine tells us how he had spent the previous hour/half hour etc. It does not tell us whether or not the job was completed.

5. Another difference is that an action in the past perfect continuous continues up to, or beyond, the time of speaking in the past. An action in the past perfect may occur shortly before the time of speaking, but there could be a quite long interval between them:

He *had been painting* the door. (The paint was probably still wet.)

He *had painted* the door. (Perhaps recently, perhaps some time ago.)

13. The Future Simple

Form

We form it with the help of **will/shall + bare infinitive**.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I will/I'll work or I shall work	Shall I work?	I will not/won't work <i>or</i> I shall not/shan't work
You will/you'll work	Will you work?	You won't work
He will/he'll work etc.	Will he/she/it work?	He won't work
We will/ we'll work or We shall work	Shall we work?	We won't work We shan't work
You will/you'll work	Will you work?	You won't work
They will/they'll work	Will they work?	They won't work

Negative interrogative: *will he not/won't he work? etc.*

Common Uses

The future tense simply refers to a future event. We are not talking about things we want to happen, or things we intend to do, or things we promise to do. We are only looking into the future, and saying what we think is probable. This is simply a prediction of the future. These may be introduced by verbs such as *assume, be afraid, be/feel sure, believe, daresay, doubt, expect, hope, know, suppose, think, wonder* or accompanied by adverbs such as *perhaps, possibly, probably, surely*, but can be used without them.

Depending on the context, the future tense may indicate:

1. A single action or state:

Time-indicators: *tomorrow, the day after tomorrow, tomorrow morning,/afternoon, evening/night, next week/month/year/spring.../Monday.../January.../ then, soon, when?, at/on/in/before/after...*

(I'm sure) she *will speak* to him tomorrow.

She *will arrive* at five o'clock.

They *will go* to a camp next week.

2. Repeated or habitual actions:

He *will come* here every other day.

I *will go* to the library twice a week.

3. An action of a more general character giving a permanent characteristic to the subject:

After graduating from the college you *will know* English well.

Other Uses

1. The future tense is used to express future actions of states which are not controlled by human will but are dependent on external circumstances; therefore the future of verbs of perception and non-conclusive verbs (verbs denoting thought, will, emotion and involuntary activities, e.g. *believe, feel, think, know, understand, remember, forget, recollect, suppose*) is usually expressed by the future tense:

You *will know* the result next week.

She *won't believe* this story.

They *will notice* the difference.

2. The future tense is used to express the speaker's opinions, assumptions, speculations about the future.

I think it *will snow* tomorrow.

I'm sure they *will come* back.

He *'ll probably wait* for us.

3. Sometimes the future tense is used to express general statements, universal truths:

A flower *will die* without water.

Boys are boys and when they quarrel they *will fight*.

4. The future simple is used, chiefly in newspapers and news broadcasts, for formal announcements of future plans and for weather forecasts. In conversations such statements

would normally be expressed by the present continuous or *be going to* form or, for plans only, by the present continuous.

Newspaper: The President *will open* the new heliport tomorrow.

But the average reader/listener will say: The President *is going to open/is opening...*

5. Shall I...? Shall we...? Shall is used mostly in questions.

We use shall I...?/shall we...? to ask somebody's opinion (especially in offers or suggestions):

Shall I open the window? (= Do you want me to open the window?)

I've got no money. What shall I do? (= What do you suggest?)

'Shall we go?' 'Just a minute. I'm not ready yet.'

Compare **shall I...? and will you...?**

Shall I shut the door? (= Do you want me to shut it?)

Will you shut the door? (= I want you to shut it.)

Comparison of *be going to* (used for prediction) with *will* (used for probable future)

Will is a common way of expressing what the speaker thinks, believes, hopes, assumes, fears etc. will happen.

It will probably be cold/I expect it will be cold.

Tomatoes will be expensive this year/I'm sure tomatoes will be expensive.

Will and *be going to* are therefore rather similar and often either form can be used:

It will take a long time to photocopy all the documents =

It is going to take a long time to photocopy all the documents.

But there are two differences:

1. **Be going to** implies that there are signs that something will happen,

Will implies that the speaker thinks/believes that it will happen.

2. **Be going to** is normally used about the immediate/fairly immediate future;

Will doesn't imply any particular time and could refer to the remote future.

15. The Future Continuous Tense

Form

The future continuous is formed with ***will + be + the -ing*** form of the verb.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I will be working or I shall be working	Shall I be working?	I will not/won't be working <i>or</i> I shall not/shan't be working
You will be working	Will you be working?	You won't be working
He will be working	Will he/she/it be working?	He won't be working
We will be working or	Will we be working?	We won't be working
We shall be working	Shall we be working?	We shan't be working
You will be working	Will you be working?	You won't be working
They will be working	Will they be working?	They won't be working

Negative interrogative: *will he not/won't he be working? etc.*

Common Uses

The future continuous is used to denote:

1. An action going on at a given future moment:

Time-indicators: *at this time tomorrow, this time next year, this time next month, at 5 o'clock.*

What *will you be doing* at this time tomorrow?

I won't be able to meet you at the station at five o'clock because I *will be having* a lesson.

2. An action filling up a whole period of time in the future (when the action is considered to be in progress):

Time-indicators: *all day tomorrow, all next week, all next year, etc.*

I *will be watching* TV all evening.

I *will be preparing* my lessons while you're typing your report.

Other Uses

This tense may be used

1. For an action characteristic of the subject at a given period of time in the future:

We will be very busy in May. We will be preparing for our exams then.

2. For a second, more remote arrangement:

She is leaving school in June, and then *she'll be going* to university.

3. To show that an event will occur as part of a plan or programme:

I *will be seeing* him tomorrow.

They *will be going* to the Institute for formal programmes on 1 June. On June 3 they *will be spending* a day at the University, and on Friday 5 June they *will probably be visiting* a college of some kind which specializes in language teaching.

4. To express a normal course of events:

He's broken his leg, so he *won't be playing* football tomorrow.

5. To express a polite question:

Will you be staying here long?

Where *will you be spending* the weekend?

6. For an assumption about the future:

I expect he *will be feeling* better tomorrow.

I think they *will be arriving* soon.

16. The Future Perfect Tense

Form

Will/shall + perfect infinitive for first persons, **will** + perfect infinitive for the other persons.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I will have worked/ I shall have worked	Shall I have worked?	I will not/won't have worked <i>or</i> I shall not/shan't have worked
You will have worked	Will you have worked?	You won't have worked
He will have worked	Will he/she/it have worked?	He won't have worked
We will have worked	Will we have worked?	We won't have worked
We shall have worked	Shall we have worked?	We shan't have worked
You will have worked	Will you have worked?	You won't have worked
They will have worked	Will they have worked?	They won't have worked

The future perfect is used to express:

1. An action already completed at a given future moment. The future moment from which the completed action is viewed may be indicated:

a) by means of an adverbial expression (e.g. *by...*)

By this time tomorrow they will have crossed the Channel.

Ten houses *will have been built by next summer*.

b) by means of another action

We will have finished this work when you return.

We will have walked a long way before we reach the sea.

2. An action begun before a given future moment and still going on at that future moment:

Time-indicators: *for... by...*

By the first of July we will have been here for a year.

They will have known each other for ten years by the end of this year.

17. The Future Perfect Continuous Tense

Form

Will/shall have been + the -ing form of the main verb for the first persons,

Will have been + present participle for the other persons.

Affirmative	Interrogative	Negative
I will have been working		I will not have been working <i>or</i>
I shall have been working	Shall I have been worked?	I shall not have been working
You will have been working	Will you have been working?	You won't have been working
He will have been working	Will he/she/it have been working?	He won't have been working
We will have been working	Will we have been working?	We won't have been working
We shall have been working	Shall we have been working?	We shan't have been working
You will have been working	Will you have been working?	You won't have been working
They will have been working	Will they have been working?	They won't have been working

Common Uses

Like the future perfect, it is normally used with a time expression beginning with *by*:

By the end of this year he'll have been acting for thirty years.

The future perfect continuous bears the same relationship to the future perfect as the present perfect continuous bears to the present perfect, i.e. the future perfect continuous can be used instead of the future perfect:

1. When the action is continuous:

By the end of the month he will have been living/working/studying here for ten years.

2. When the action is expressed as a continuous action:

By the end of the month he will have been training horses/climbing mountains for twenty years.

But if we mention the number of horses or mountains, or divide this action in any way, we must use the future perfect:

By the end of the month he will have trained 600 horses/climbed 50 mountains.

18. The Passive Voice

Passive verbs, or passives, are formed with *be* plus the past participle of a transitive verbs (*My car was stolen*). We use passive verbs to say what happens to the subject (*Two men were arrested*) in contrast to active verbs which are used to say what the subject does (*The police arrested two men.*)

The house *was built* in 1935. – **Was built** is passive.

Compare active and passive:

Somebody built *this house* in 1935. (active)

This house was built in 1935. (passive)

Form

SIMPLE PRESENT	They build a house / houses.	A house is built . Houses are built .
PRESENT CONTINUOUS	They are building a house / houses.	A house is being built . Houses are being built .
PAST SIMPLE	They built a house / houses.	A house was built . Houses were built .
PAST CONTINUOUS	They were building a house / houses.	A house was being built . Houses were being built .
PRESENT PERFECT	They have built a house / houses.	A house has been built . Houses have been built .
PAST PERFECT	They had built a house / houses.	A house /houses had been built .
SIMPLE FUTURE	They will build a house / houses.	A house / houses will be built .
FUTURE CONTINUOUS	They will be building a house / houses.	A house / houses will be being built .
FUTURE PERFECT	They will have built a house / houses.	A house / houses will have been built .

TO BE GOING TO	They are going to build a house / houses.	A house is going to be built . Houses are going to be built .
TO HAVE TO/TO BE TO	They have to build a house / houses. They are to build a house / houses.	A house has to be built . Houses have to be built . A house is to be built . Houses are to be built .
MUST/CAN/SHOULD ETC.	They must build a house / houses. They can build a house / houses. They should build a house / houses.	A house / houses must be built . A house/ houses can be built . A house / houses should be built .
MUST HAVE / MAY HAVE / SHOULD HAVE	They must have built a house. They may have built a house. They should have built a house.	A house must have been built . A house may have been built . A house should have been built .

Modal passives

We form simple modal passives with a **modal (can, may, will, etc.) + be + a past participle**.

The police will arrest violent demonstrators. So, if you are violent, you *will be arrested*.

We use **could, might, would + be + a past participle** when we need to use a past tense.

'The police can't stop us!' The demonstrators claimed that they *couldn't be stopped*.

We form modal perfect passives with a **modal + have been + past participle**.

Tony didn't study for the test. His answers *must have been copied* from someone else.

We form phrasal modal passives with the present or past of a phrasal modal such as **be going to** or **have to + be + past participle**.

Someone has to tell Chris to stop interrupting. → Chris *has to be told* to stop interrupting.

I had to find a place for all the boxes. → A place *had to be found* for all the boxes.

Passive infinitives and gerunds

Active patterns with verb + -ing

The active pattern **verb + object + -ing** is made passive with **'be' + past participle + -ing**.

They **saw** *the monkey* **climbing** over the fence. (= active)

The monkey **was seen climbing** over the fence. (= passive)

Other verbs in this pattern include *bring, catch, hear, find, keep, notice, observe, send, show*:

In the security video the burglars *are seen entering* the bank through a window.

Some verbs that can be followed by an **-ing** form can be used with a passive form **being + past participle**:

I really *love being given* present.

The children *enjoyed being taken* to the zoo.

Other verbs like this include *avoid, deny, describe, dislike, face, hate, (not) imagine, like, remember, report, resent*.

Verbs which in the active are followed by an object consisting of a noun phrase and **-ing** clause usually have no passive:

I dread *him (or his) finding out*. (but not *He is dreaded finding out*.)

Other verbs like this include *anticipate, appreciate, dislike, forget, hate, imagine, like, (not) mind, recall, remember*.

Active patterns with verb + to-infinitive

The active pattern **verb + object + to-infinitive** is made passive with **'be' + past participle + to-infinitive**. Compare:

Mr Price *has taught* Peter *to sing* for many years.

Peter *has been taught* *to sing* (by Mr Price) for many years.

Other verbs in this pattern include *advise, allow, ask, believe, consider, expect, feel, instruct, mean, order, require, tell, understand*.

Notice that in some contexts it is possible to make both verbs passive:

We *expect* the government *to propose* changes to the taxation system. → Changes to the taxations system *are expected to be proposed*.

Some verbs followed by an **object + to-infinitive** in the active have no passive:

Susan *liked* Tom *to be* there. (but not Tom was liked to be there.)

Verbs like this are to do with 'liking' and 'wanting', and include (*can't*) *bear, hate, love, need, prefer, want, wish*.

The active pattern **verb + to-infinitive + object** is made passive with **verb + to be + past participle**. Compare:

Supermarkets *started to sell* fresh pasta only in the 1990s.

Fresh pasta *started to be sold* by supermarkets only in the 1990s.

Other verbs in this pattern include *appear, begin, come, continue, seem, tend*; also *agree, aim, arrange, attempt, hope, refuse, want*. The verbs in the first group (and *start*) have corresponding meanings in active and passive sentences, but the verbs in the second group do not. Compare:

People have come to regard her as the leading violinist of her generation. (active)
corresponds to

She has come to be regarded as the leading violinist of her generation. (passive)

Verbs with and without objects

We create passives from verbs which can have objects (transitive verbs), not from verbs which don't have objects (intransitive verbs).

He repaired the bike. Then he painted it. → The bike *was repaired*. Then it *was painted*.

Nothing happened. We arrived early. (Not We were arrived early.)

We usually create passives from verbs which describe actions, not states.

They scored a goal in the last five minutes. → A goal *was scored* in the last five minutes.

There are a few verbs that we usually use in the passive.

Her parents *were married* in 1983 and she *was born* two years later.

We create passives from transitive phrasal verbs, not from intransitive phrasal verbs.

She locked her house up. They broke into it. → Her house *was locked up*. It *was broken into*.

Other examples include: *carry out* (= put into practice), *disapprove of*, *hold over* (= delay), *talk down to* (= patronise). However, some transitive two- and three-word verbs are not used in the passive (e.g. *brush up on* (= revise), *cast (your mind) back* (= try to remember), *come up against* (= encounter), *get (something) down* (= write), *take after* (= resemble)):

We came up against a problem. (Not A problem was come up against).

Verbs with two objects

We can create two passive structures when we use those verbs which can have an indirect object (Maria) and a direct object (first prize).

They awarded Maria first prize. → *Maria was awarded* first prize.

They awarded first prize to Maria. → *First prize was awarded* to Maria.

Other verbs like this include: *give, hand, lend, pass, sell, send, show, teach, throw, write*.

The passive structure we choose depends on which person or thing we want to talk about.

In the passive, we put the indirect object as subject or after the preposition *to*, not after the verb.

He handed Cecilia a note. → *Cecilia was handed* a note. Or A note was handed *to Cecilia*. (NOT A note was handed to Cecilia).

When a verb with two objects is used in only one active structure, we can only create one passive. If we can put the indirect object after the active verb, we can use it as subject of the passive.

The judge fined him £250. (NOT The judge fined £250 to him.) → He *was fined* £250. (NOT £250 was fined to him.)

Then we explained our solutions to him. → Then our solutions *were explained* to him.

Other verbs used liked this include: *demonstrate, describe, mention, present, report, suggest*.

In colloquial speech **get** is sometimes used instead of **be**:

The eggs got (= were) broken.

You'll get (= be) sacked if you take any more time off.

Uses of the passive

1. When it is not necessary to mention the doer of the action as it is obvious who he is/was/will be.

The rubbish hasn't been collected.

Your hand will be X-rayed.

2. When we don't know, or don't know exactly, or have forgotten who did the action:

The minister was murdered.

My car has been stolen.

3. When the subject of the active verb would be 'people':

He is suspected of receiving stolen goods. (People suspect him of...)

They are supposed to be living in New York. (People suppose that they are living...)

4. When the subject of the active sentence would be the indefinite pronoun **one**:

One sees this sort of advertisement everywhere would usually be expressed:

This sort of advertisement is seen everywhere.

In colloquial speech we can use the indefinite pronoun **you** and an active verb:

You see this sort of advertisement everywhere.

But more formal English requires **one** + active verb or the more usual passive form.

5. When we are more interested in the action than the person who does it:

The house next door has been bought (by a Mr Jones).

If, however, we know Mr Jones, we would use the active:

Your father's friend, Mr Jones, has bought the house next door.

Similarly:

A new public library is being built (by our local council)

though in more formal English we could use the indefinite pronoun **they** and an active verb:

They are building a new public library. – while a member of the Council will of course say: *We are/The council is building etc.*

6. The passive may be used to avoid an awkward or ungrammatical sentence. This is usually done by avoiding a change of subject:

When he arrived home a detective arrested him.

would be better expressed: *When he arrived home he was arrested (by a detective).*

When their mother was ill neighbours looked after the children.

would be better expressed: *When their mother was ill the children were looked after by neighbours.*

7. The passive is sometimes preferred for psychological reasons. A speaker may use it to disclaim responsibility for disagreeable announcements:

Employer: *Overtime rates are being reduced/will have to be reduced.*

The active will, of course, be used for agreeable announcements:

I am / We are going to increase overtime rates.

The speaker may know who performed the action but wish to avoid giving the name. Tom, who suspects Bill of opening his letters, may say tactfully:

This letter has been opened! instead of *You've opened this letter!*

8. For the have + object + past participle construction,

I had the car mended.

Passives with by-phrases

The agent is the person or thing that does or causes the action. In active sentences, the agent is the subject.

Shakespeare wrote Hamlet. Many famous actors have played the title role.

In passive sentences, we don't usually mention the agent. We can include the agent in a *by*-phrase after the verb when the meaning is not complete without it or for emphasis and contrast.

Hamlet was written by Shakespeare. The title role has been played by many famous actors.

Was the Mona Lisa painted by Michelangelo or (by) Leonardo da Vinci?

We don't usually include pronouns or nouns with general meaning such as *people* in a *by*-phrase.

We/people store equipment in the basement. → Equipment is stored in the basement.

We can use a *by*-phrase for information about causes and the method of 'doing' something.

The girl was bitten by a snake.

The temperature can be controlled by adjusting the thermostat.

We use a *by*-phrase for the agent of an action and a *with*-phrase for the thing used to perform that action. After verbs such as *cover* or *decorate* used in the passive in descriptions, we typically use a *with*-phrase rather than a *by*-phrase.

The rescue was filmed by a man with a video camera.

The box was locked with a gold key.

Reporting with passive verbs

We often use a passive to report what people say, think etc., particularly if it is not important to mention who is being reported:

*People in the area **have been told** that they should stay indoors.*

*Everyone **was asked** to bring some food to the party.*

Another common way of reporting what is said by an unspecified group of people is to use **it + passive verb + that-clause**. Using this pattern can allow us to put important information at the end of the sentence.

It is reported that the damage is extensive. (compare The damage is extensive, according to government sources.)

It has been acknowledged that underfunding contributed to the problem.

Other verbs that can be used in this pattern include: *allege, announce, assume, believe, calculate, claim, consider, demonstrate, discover, establish, estimate, expect, feel, find, know, mention, recommend, reveal, say, show, suggest, suppose, think, understand*. The verbs *agree, decide, hope, intend, plan* and *propose* can also be followed by a *to*-infinitive clause.

Notice that many other verbs connected with reporting are *not* used with **it + passive verb + that clause**, including *encourage, inform, persuade, reassure, remind, tell, warn*.

We have been informed that we have to leave.

19. Sequence of Tenses

A sentence can contain a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A subordinate clause is a group of words containing a subject and verb and forming part of a sentence:

*We knew **that the bridge was unsafe**.*

*He gave it to me **because he trusted me**.*

*He ran faster **than we did**.*

In English the tense of the verb in a subclause (melékmondat) commonly depends on that of the verb in the main clause (fő mondat). This adjustment of the tense of the subclause to the tense of the main clause is called the sequence of tenses:

1. When the verb in the main clause is in a present (present simple, present continuous, present perfect) or future tense, the verb in the subclause will not change.
2. When the verb in the main clause is in the past or past perfect the following shifting of tenses takes place:

Present Tense ↓	Present Perfect ↓	Present Continuous ↓	Present Perfect Continuous ↓
Past Tense →	Past Perfect →	Past Continuous →	Past Perfect Continuous →

Examples:

“I *am* ill.” – He said he *was* ill.

“What *are* you *doing*?” – He asked what I *was doing*.

“We *have done* our homework.” – They said they *had done* their homework.

“I *have been working* for eight hours.” – He said he *had been working* for eight hours.

“We *met* him yesterday.” – They said that they *had met* him the day before.

“What *were* you *doing* in my room?” – He asked what I *had been doing* in his room.

The past perfect and the past perfect continuous remain unchanged.

More examples:

“I *’ll leave* it on the table.” – He said he *would leave* it on the table.

“He *’ll be working* all day.” – They told me that they *would be working* all day.

“I *will have done* it by two o’clock. – He said that he *would have done* it by two o’clock.

“We *will have been living* in London for twenty years by the end of May.” – He said that they *would have been living* in London for twenty years by the end of May.

3. It should be noted that these changes are **not automatic**. The rules of the sequence of tenses is not observed in the following cases:

a) No change of tense is required if the situation has not changed:

He told me this morning that his father *is* ill. (He is still ill.)

George said that he never *gets up* early. (Habit)

The teacher told his pupils that the earth *moves* round the sun. (Eternal truth)

He said that he *is playing* football this afternoon. (When the present continuous is used to express a future idea, a tense change is not common if the event referred to is not yet past.

He told me this morning that he *was* in Budapest yesterday. (When *yesterday* does not refer to a day prior to another day in the past, the past tense remains unchanged.)

Note that *shall/will* usually changes to *should/would*, even when the event referred to is not yet past:

They told me that they *would come and see* us tonight.

b) The past tense usually remains unchanged

- when a definite past moment is indicated?

I *was born* in 1993. → He said that he *was born* in 1994.

- when the time of the main clause in the direct speech is fixed by a subclause of time attached to it:

“We *were not* at home when the postman came.” → She said that they *were not* at home when the postman came.

c) The past tense and the past continuous tense used in subclauses of time do not normally change. The main verb of such sentences can either remain unchanged or become the past perfect:

“When I *was working/worked* there I often *saw* your sister.” → He said that when he *was working/worked* there he often *saw/had* often *seen* my sister.

d) Conditional tenses remain unchanged, as do past tenses used after *wish, would/should, rather, it is time*:

“If it *had* time, I *would* go with you.” → He said that if he *had* time he *would come* with us.

“I wish I *were* there.” → He said that he wished he *were* there.

e) *Would, should, ought to, had better, might, could, must* and *used to* do not normally change:

“I would help you if I *could*.” → He said that he would help me if he *could*.

“I *ought to go* home.” → He told me that he *ought to go* home.

20. Reported Speech

Direct and indirect (or reported) speech

There are two ways of relating what a person has said: direct and indirect.

In direct speech we repeat the original speaker's exact words:

He said, 'I have lost my umbrella.'

Remarks thus repeated are placed between inverted commas, and a comma or colon is placed immediately before the remark. Direct speech is found in conversations in books, in plays, and in quotations.

In indirect speech we give the exact meaning of a remark or a speech, without necessarily using the speaker's exact words:

He said (that) he had lost his umbrella.

When we report what people think or what they have said, we often report in our own words when the information they convey is more important than their exact words. When we do this we can use sentences that have a *reporting clause* and a *reported clause*.

Clause is a part of sentence which contains a subject and a verb, usually joined to the rest of a sentence by a conjunction (a word like *and, but, although, because, when, if*).

Reporting clause	Reported clause
She explained	(that) she couldn't take the job until January.
He didn't ask me	where to put the boxes.

The reporting clause can come:

- **before**
- **within**
- or **at the end of the quotation.**

In the English used in stories and novels, the reporting verb (*e.g. say, reply, think*) is often placed before the subject when the reporting clause comes after the quotation:

'When will you be back?' asked Arnold. (or ... Arnold asked.)

However, **we don't use this order** when the subject is a **pronoun** (except in a literary style):

'And after that I moved to Italy', she continued. (not ... continued she.)

You put **single** ('...') or **double** ("...") **quotation marks** at the beginning and end of a report of someone's exact spoken or written words. This is often referred to as direct speech:

'It's a pity you can't come this weekend.'

"I'm really hungry. I fancy a cheese sandwich."

At the end

If there is a **reporting clause** (e.g. *she said, exclaimed Tom*) **after** the quotation, you put a comma before the second quotation mark:

‘I think we should go to India while we have the opportunity,’ argued Richard.

If you are quoting a question or exclamation, you use a question mark or exclamation mark instead of a comma:

“Can I make an appointment to see the doctor?” asked Bill.

‘You must be mad!’ yelled her brother.

Within

If the reporting clause comes **within** the quotation, you put a comma before the second quotation mark of the first part of the quotation, a comma at the end of the reporting clause, and you start the second part of the quotation with a lower case (not a capital) letter:

“It tastes horrible,” said Susan, “but it’s supposed to be very good for you.”

If the second part of the quotation is a new sentence, you put a full stop at the end of the reporting clause, and start the second part of the quotation with a capital letter:

“You should go home,” Sandra advised. “You’re looking really ill.”

Before

If the reporting clause comes **before** the quotation, you put a comma at the end of the reporting clause, and a full stop (or question or exclamation mark) at the end of the quotation:

John said, “Put them all on the top shelf.”

A colon is sometimes used at the end of the reporting clause instead of a comma:

She stood up and shouted to the children: “It’s time to go home!”

When you quote what a person thinks, you can either use the conventions just described or separate the quotation from the reporting clause with a comma (or colon) and leave out quotation marks:

“Why did she look at me like that?” wondered Mary.

Perhaps the door is open, thought Chris.

Suddenly she thought: Could they be trying to trick me?

Negatives in reporting

To report what somebody **didn't** say or think, we make the reporting verb negative:

He **didn't tell me** how he would get to London.

If we want to report a negative sentence, then we usually report this in the *reported clause*:

'You're right, it isn't a good idea.' → He *agreed* that it *wasn't* a good idea.

although it may be reported in the reporting clause, depending on meaning:

'I disagree. It's not a good idea at all.' → He *didn't agree* that it was a good idea.

However, with some verbs, to report a negative sentence we usually make the verb in the *reporting clause* negative:

'I expect he won't come.' / 'I don't expect he will come.' → She *didn't expect* him to come.

(*rather than* She expected he wouldn't come.)

Other verbs like this include *believe, feel, intend, plan, propose, suppose, think, want*.

Statements in indirect speech: tense changes necessary

Indirect speech can be introduced by a verb in a present tense: *He says that...* This is usual when we are:

- a) reporting a conversation that is still going on
- b) reading a letter and reporting what it says
- c) reading instructions and reporting them
- d) reporting a statement that someone makes very often, e.g. *Tom says that he'll never get married.*

When the introductory verb is in a present, present perfect or future tense we can report the direct speech without any change of tense:

Paul (phoning from the station): *I'm trying to get a taxi.*

Ann (to Mary, who is standing beside her): *Paul says he is trying to get a taxi.*

But indirect speech is usually introduced by a verb in the past tense. Verbs in the direct speech have then to be changed into a corresponding past tense. The changes are shown in the following table:

SIMPLE PRESENT Jack eats a lot of chocolate.	SIMPLE PAST She said that Jack ate a lot of chocolate.
PRESENT CONTINUOUS	PAST CONTINUOUS

Jack is eating chocolate.	She said that Jack was eating chocolate.
SIMPLE PAST Jack ate some chocolate.	PAST PERFECT She said that Jack had eaten some chocolate.
PAST CONTINUOUS Jack was eating chocolate.	PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS She said that Jack had been eating chocolate.
PAST CONTINUOUS/SIMPLE PAST Jack was eating chocolate when I entered .	PAST CONTINUOUS/SIMPLE PAST She said that Jack was eating chocolate when she entered .
PRESENT PERFECT Jack has eaten some chocolate.	PAST PERFECT She said that Jack had eaten some chocolate.
PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS Jack has been eating chocolate.	PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS She said that Jack had been eating chocolate.
PAST PERFECT Jack had eaten some chocolate.	PAST PERFECT She said that Jack had eaten some chocolate.
PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS Jack had been eating chocolate.	PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS She said that Jack had been eating chocolate.
SIMPLE FUTURE Jack will eat some chocolate.	WOULD She said that Jack would eat some chocolate.
FUTURE CONTINUOUS Jack will be eating chocolate.	WOULD BE -ING She said that Jack would be eating chocolate.
FUTURE PERFECT Jack will have eaten some chocolate.	WOULD HAVE She said that Jack would have eaten some chocolate.
FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS Jack will have been eating chocolate.	WOULD HAVE BEEN -ING She said Jack would have been eating chocolate.
IS/ARE GOING TO Jack is going to eat chocolate.	WAS/WERE GOING TO She said that Jack was going to eat chocolate.

Shift of personal pronouns:

I	he/she
you	I/me/we/us
my	his/her
we	they
us	them
our	their

Adverbs and adverbial phrases of time change as follows:

now	then, at that time
ago	before, earlier
a few days ago	a few days before, a few days earlier
today	that day
tomorrow	the following day, the next day
this morning	that morning
the day after tomorrow	in two days' time
the day before yesterday	two days before
next week/year	the following week/year; the week/the year after
last week	the previous week/year, the week/the year before
this	that
these	those
here	there

When we report statements, we often use a *that*-clause in the *reported clause*.

He said (that) he was enjoying his work.

My husband mentioned (that) he had seen you the other day.

After the more common reporting verbs such as

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|---------|
| - agree | - notice | - say |
| - mention | - promise | - think |

we often *leave out THAT* particularly in informal speech.

However, it is less likely to be left out after less common reporting verbs such as:

- | | | |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| - answer | - confide | - reply |
|----------|-----------|---------|

Verbs with TO + prepositional object

- admit
- explain
- propose
- suggest
- announce
- indicate
- recommend
- complain
- mention
- report
- confess
- say

Verbs with WITH + prepositional object

- agree
- check
- argue
- disagree
- joke

We agreed (with Susan) that the information should go no further.

Verbs with OF + prepositional object

- ask
- demand
- require

The club asks (of its members) that they pay their fees by 31st December.

Verbs say and tell

Say and tell are the verbs most commonly used to report statements. We use a direct object after tell, but not after say.

After **tell** we use a direct object (a personal pronoun or a noun). We use it in a sentence when we wish to mention the person who the original message was told to.

He told me (that)...

He told John (that)...

After **say** we do not use a direct object.

He said (that)...

However, we can use *to+object* after **say**, but not after **tell**!

I said to John that he had to work harder.

There are some well-known verbs after which we use a that-clause:

I'm a police officer.	She	claimed insisted informed me	(that) she was a police officer.
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They *assured me* they would arrive on time.

1. After the verb TELL we use different structures when *we report an affirmative sentence and when commands, exclamations are reported*.

He told me what the time was. (affirmative sentence)

He told me to stop shouting. (command)

2. After the following verbs can stand *to + direct object* (közvetett tárgy) – *the person to whom the original sentence was addressed to*.

- | | | |
|-----------|------------|------------|
| - admit | - mention | - announce |
| - say | - complain | - suggest |
| - explain | | |

He *complained to the waiter* that the food was cold.

Verb + Direct Object + Infinitive (Verb + to sy/sth to do sth)

This structure is used for commands, requests, warnings, giving advice, etc. The listener (i.e. the person the original message was directed to) must be *mentioned* in the reported sentence as the *direct object* of the reporting verb.

He *told the intruder to get out* of his house.

She *asked the young man to help* her.

If we report a negative command, request, etc., **to** must be preceded by the particle **not**.

They *told me not to forget*.

He *persuaded her not to go*.

The following list contains *verbs* which are used with *this structure*:

- | | | |
|-----------|------------|-------------|
| - advise | - ask | - encourage |
| - forbid | - instruct | - invite |
| - order | - persuade | - remind |
| - request | - tell | - urge |

But in case the *subject of the main clause* (to-clause) coincides with the *subject of the sub-clause*, than the listener (the person the original message was addressed to) is not mentioned after the following verbs:

- | | | |
|---------|-----------|----------|
| - agree | - ask | - decide |
| - offer | - promise | - refuse |

- swear

- VOW

The *agreed to* turn the radio down.

They *asked to* have their bill.

She *offered to* call an ambulance.

1. We use a different structure after ask if it introduces a request and a question.

He *asked me to post* the letter. (request)

He *asked me what* the name was. (question)

2. It is forbidden to use the infinitive after the verb suggest. (He suggested ~~to go~~...)

Verb + Gerund

After some verbs it is common to use **the -ing form** of the verb:

- admit

- deny

- describe

- mention

- propose

- report

- recommend

- suggest

He *admitted causing* the damage to the fence.

The developers *proposed building* a multi-story car park.

She *suggested going* to the swimming pool.

We use the construction *suggest doing sth.* when we report an offer which involves the speaker (the person who offers) as well in the action. (both constructions can be used)

I suggested going to the disco / that we should go to the disco.

On the other hand, we use the construction *suggested that... should do sth.*, in case the *offer refers just to someone else*, when the offerer does not intend to take part in the action (in this case suggest -ing construction cannot be used).

I *suggested that he should* see a doctor.

Verb + Preposition

Those reporting verbs which are followed by prepositions firstly inform us of the content of the utterance, secondly they inform us *of what induced the speaker* to utter the given sentence.

In this construction in most cases we report *not word by word*.

He *enquired about* their plans for the weekend.

She *spoke of* her shock when she heard the news.

The following list contains those verbs which are *followed by prepositions about, of, on, to* and *for*. Again the verbs marked by an asterisk(*) must be followed by the listener, i.e. the person the original sentence was directed to.

argue ask boast complain consult* enquire explain joke moan remind* tell*	about	assure* complain convince* inform* inform speak talk	of
agree comment congratulate* insist	on	admit agree confess refer	to
		apologise criticise plead praise* thank*	for

The two players *argued about* the referee's decision.

The patient *complained of* pains in his back.

The teacher *congratulated her on* her exam result.

The robber *admitted to* the offence.

Their sons *apologised for* the mess.

If we want to give *extra information* about the *original message* we can add after the *preposition an -ing clause* (Important: after prepositions following reporting verbs the sub-clause always containing an -ing verb).

Their sons *apologised for playing* loud music.

Question word (wh-word) sub-clauses

We use wh-question-words as conjunctions in the following cases:

1. to report Wh-questions

He asked me **why** I had been late.

They wanted to know **where** the bank was.

2. To report answers to Wh-Questions:

She told me **how far** it was to the beach.

They told the police **why** they had parked there.

3. To report asking for advice with infinitive:

She asked him **how to open** a window.

4. For expressing uncertainty with an infinitive in the sub-clause:

They weren't sure which way to go.

He didn't know what to do.

Sub-clauses with If

We use if-clauses for reporting 'Yes' or 'No' questions.

They asked me *if* they were on the right road for London.

He wanted to know *if* I had seen his glasses.

Reporting Questions

Yes or No questions

We join the subordinate / reported clause of reported sentences to the main clause with the help of the conjunction *if*:

'Are you busy?' → She asked *if* I was busy.

'Did you come here by bus?' → He asked *if* I came there by bus.

‘Have you ever read, ‘War and Peace?’ → He asked if I have ever read ‘War and Peace.’

Besides the reporting verb ASK we can use other verbs and expressions as well:

- He *wondered*...

- He *wanted to know*...

‘Will there be another bus soon?’ → She wondered *if there would be* another bus soon.

‘Have you seen my cheque book?’ → He wanted to know *if I had seen* his cheque book.

Instead of IF we can use WHETHER which expresses that the speaker is not that certain.

‘Have you heard the news?’ → He asked me *if/whether* I had heard the news.

After conjunction whether we can often use words *or not, whether or not*, but we *cannot do the same with if*.

He asked whether or not I was interested in his idea.

Wh-questions

We must be really careful in this type of questions with the word order. In direct questions the subject stand after the auxiliary but in *reported sentences the subject precedes the verb*.

‘How are you?’ → He asked *how I was*.

‘What time is it?’ → She asked *what the time was*. / She wondered what the time was.

‘When will the train leave?’ → She asked *when the train would leave*. / She wanted to know when the train would leave.

‘Where are my keys?’ – He asked *where his car keys were*. / He wondered where his car keys were.

We use the same way direct word order when we report answers which contain wh-question words functioning as *conjunctions* in given sentences.

She told me how old *she was*.

He explained why *he was late*.

Wh-Question words with particle to

With the exception of question word *why*, all the question words can be followed by the infinitive (in such cases we can use conjunction *whether* as well but *not if*). We often use this construction when we report

- Requests

She asked him how to get to the bank.

- And when we report uncertainty

He wandered what to do.

Reporting orders and requests

We usually report orders using *tell* with an object and an infinitive.

‘Don’t touch it!’ – He told us not to touch it.

Other less common verbs used to report orders include: *command, direct, instruct, order*.

We can also report orders in a *that*-clause with the modals *have to* or *must*. After verbs such as *demand* and *insist*, a subjunctive is sometimes used in more formal situations.

‘Stop arguing!’ → Their mother told them that they *had to/must* stop arguing.

‘Do it yourself!’ → He insisted that I *had to do* it myself.

We usually report requests using *ask* with an object and an infinitive. When we report requests by speakers about their own actions, we don’t include an object before the infinitive.

‘Please, don’t smoke.’ → I *asked him not to* smoke.

‘May I leave?’ → She *asked to* leave.

We can also report requests in an *if*-clause with the modals *could* or *would*.

‘Please, help me.’ → The old man *asked (us) if we could/would* help him.

Reporting advice

We can report advice by using verbs such as *recommend* or *suggest* followed by a *that*-clause with *should* or a subjunctive in more formal uses. We can also use a gerund for the suggested action when we don’t want to mention who will perform the action.

‘You should go by train.’ → He recommended that we *should go* by train.

‘You should take the express train.’ → He suggested that we *take* the express train.

‘You should drive.’ → He recommended *driving*.

We can use the verb *advise* with an object and an infinitive or with a *that*-clause or a gerund.

‘Wait a few days.’ → She advised *him to wait* a few days.

She advised (him) that he (should) wait a few days. / She advised waiting a few days.

We can use different reporting verbs such as *remind* and *warn* with *that*-clauses to introduce different kinds of reported advice.

‘A taxi will be much faster.’ → She *reminded* him that a taxi *would* be much faster.

‘You must be careful.’ → She warned them that they *must/had to* be careful.

We can also report a warning by using an infinitive. *She warned them to be careful.*

Reporting opinions

We use ‘thinking’ verbs with *that*-clauses to report opinions.

‘Oh, it’s nice!’ → She thought it was nice.

‘I’ll win!’ → He believes that he will win.

Other verbs used like this include: *expect, feel, imagine, reckon, suppose, suspect.*

We can use the verbs *say* and *tell* in the continuous to report general opinions in informal situations.

The students *were saying* that the test was unfair. Teachers *are telling* us there’s a problem.

We can also report opinions and feelings with nouns and adjectives before *that*-clauses.

‘Girls mature earlier than boys.’ → It is her view that girls mature earlier than boys.

Other nouns used like this include: *belief, conclusion, diagnosis, hypothesis, opinion, theory.*

‘It’s a mistake.’ → I was *sure* that it was a mistake. Or She is *certain* that it was a mistake.

Other adjectives used like this include: *aware, convinced, doubtful, positive, sorry, worried.*

Modal verbs in reporting

When there is a modal verb in the original statement, suggestion, etc., it sometimes changes when we report what was said or thought. The changes are summarised here:

<i>modal verb in original</i>	<i>modal verb in report</i>
could, would, should, might, needn't, ought to, used to, could have, should have, etc.	could, would, should, might, needn't, ought to, used to, (i.e. no change) could, have, should have, etc.
will, can, may	would, could, might will, can, may (existing or future situations and present tense verb in reporting clause) will or would, can or could, may or might (existing or future situations and past tense verb in reporting clause)
shall	would, should (offers, suggestions, etc.)
must (= necessity) must (= conclude) mustn't	must or had to must mustn't

We sometimes use a modal verb in a report when there is no modal verb in the original:

'You're not allowed to smoke here' → She told me that I *mustn't* smoke there.

'My advice is to look for a new job now.' → She said that I *should* look for a new job now.

The verbs *could, would, should, might, needn't, ought to, used to, and could have, should have, etc.* don't change in the report:

'I *could* meet you at the airport.' → He said that he *could* meet us at the airport.

'You *should have* contacted me earlier.' → She said I *should have* contacted her earlier.

Will usually changes to *would*, *can* to *could*, and *may* to *might*. However, if the situation we are reporting *still exists* or *is still in the future* and the verb in the *reporting clause* has a *present tense*, we use **will**, **can**, and **may** in the *reported clause*. Compare:

'I'll be in Paris at Christmas.' → She *tells* me she *'ll* be in Paris at Christmas. and

'Careful! You *'ll* fall through the ice!' → I *warned* him he *would* fall through the ice.

If the situation we are reporting still exists or is still in the future and the verb in the *reporting*

clause has a *past tense*, then we can use either *would* or *will*, *can* or *could*, or *may* or *might* in the *reported clause*:

‘The problem can be solved.’ → They *said* the problem *can/could* be solved.

When *shall* is used in the original to talk about the future, we use *would* in the report:

‘I *shall (I’ll)* call you on Monday.’ → She told me she *would* call me on Monday.

However, when *shall* is used in offers, requests for advice and confirmation, etc. then we can use *should* in the report, but not *shall* or *would*:

‘Where *shall* I put this box?’ → He asked where he *should* put the box.

When *must* is used in the original to say that it is necessary to do something, we can usually use either *must* or *had to* in the report, although *had to* is more natural in speech:

‘You *must* be home by 9 o’clock.’ → She said I *must/had to* be home by 9 o’clock.

However, when *must* is used in the original to conclude that something (has) happened or that something is true, then we use *must*, not *had to*, in the report:

‘I keep forgetting things. I *must* be getting old.’ → Neil said he *must* be getting old.

If *mustn’t* is used in the original, we can use *mustn’t* in the report but not *didn’t have to*:

‘You *mustn’t* tell my brother.’ → He warned me that I *mustn’t* tell his brother.

Context summarisation in reported speech

1. When we use a *that*-subclause we actually do nothing else than repeat the words of the speaker taking into account all the necessary time and adverb changes:

‘I really *don’t like* TV soap operas.’ → He said he really *didn’t like* TV soap operas.

However, it is not always advisable to report sentences word by word. Since

- there are certain words that we *omit* in reported sentences, like *please* and *now*.

‘Can I come in, please?’ → She asked *him if she could come in*.

‘Now what’s the problem?’ → He asked *him what the problem was*.

- there are cases when the reporting person decides to use absolutely different words to report the same information.

‘It’s time I went home.’ → She *wanted to go home*.

2. The reporting person can often function as a ‘commentator’ and *give some extra meaning* to the sentence by choosing a reporting verb.

He *claimed* he didn’t feel very well.

He *mumbled* that he hadn’t done the work.

3. It often happens that the original message is *too long* to be reported. In such cases we summarise rather the main points of the original sentence(s).

‘I’ve lost every penny. I’ve lost my house, my wife, my children, my job, my Rolls Royce and all my friends.’ → Smith told reporters a few minutes ago *that he had lost everything*.

Wh-questions for context summarisation

We often use the Wh-question to summarize context. In such cases we do not report word by word the sentences of the speakers, we rather imagine the context.

He showed me how to make an omelette.

The teacher told the students what books they were going to study that term.

To solve this problem we use the *sub-clauses* joined to the main clause with a wh-conjunction and thus we can summarize the context as well.

He didn’t tell me *where* to get off the bus.

She wouldn’t say *what* she had done.

Prepositional phrases for context summarisation

We often use preposition phrases to summarise the sentence of some speakers. We do not report the original words either. We often use the following prepositions and expressions connected to them: *about, of, to, for*.

He told me *about* his plans.

She spoke *of* her past.

She objected *to* being searched by the police.

He apologised *for* making so much noise.

21. The Article

There are three articles in English: **the definite article**, **the indefinite article**, and **the zero article** (the absence of the article).

Common uses of the articles:

In discussing the use of articles, we can make a distinction between **specific (definite or indefinite)** and **generic reference**.

1. With **definite specific reference**, the **definite article** is used for all noun classes. In this function it means “you know the one I mean”.

He is working in *the* garden.

Give me *the* book you promised to lend me.

2. With **indefinite specific reference**, singular countable nouns take the **indefinite article** (in this function “a/an” means “one of a class of objects, no matter which”), while plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns take **zero article** or, usually, the “**quantitative article**” some/any.

Give me *a* pen, please.

There are *some* letters on your desk.

With **generic reference**, the distinctions for number and definiteness are neutralized with countable nouns. With uncountable nouns, only the **zero article** is possible.

A cow gives milk. Cows give milk. *The* cow gives milk.

In these sentences, a cow, cows, or the cow mean ‘any one of the things we call cows’.

21.1. The indefinite article

The form **a** is used before a word beginning with a consonant, or a vowel with a consonant sound:

a man a hat a university a European

The form **an** is used before words beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or words beginning with a mute **h**:

an apple an island an uncle

an egg an onion an hour

or individual letters spoken with a vowel sound:

an L-plate an Mp an SOS

a/an is the same for all genders (*a man, a woman, an actor, an actress*)

Common Uses:

1. The indefinite article is only used before singular countable nouns when it is mentioned for the first time and represents no particular person or thing (including such words as barracks, bellows, gas-works etc. which, though plural in form, may be singular in meaning).

I need a visa. They live in a flat.

2. A/an is used before a singular countable noun which is used as an example of a class of things:

A car must be insured. = All cars/Any car must be insured.

3. A/an is used with a noun complement. This includes names of professions:

It was an earthquake. She'll be a dancer.

4. In certain expressions of quantity:

*a lot of a couple
a great many a dozen
a great deal of*

5. With certain numbers

a hundred a thousand

Before *half* when *half* follows a whole number: 1^{1/2} kilos = one and a half kilos or a kilo and a half.

6. In expressions of price, speed, ratio etc.:

5 p a kilo 10 p a dozen sixty kilometres an hour

7. In exclamations before singular, countable nouns:

*Such a long queue! What a pretty girl! But
Such long queues! What pretty girls!*

8. A can be placed before Mr/Mrs/Miss + surname:

a Mr Smith A Mrs Smith A Miss Smith

a Mr Smith means 'a man called Smith' and it implies that he is a stranger to the speaker. Mr Smith, without a, implies that the speaker knows Mr Smith or knows of his existence.

21.2. The definite article

Its form (the) is the same for singular and plural and for all genders:

the boy the girl the day
the boys the girls the days

The definite article may be used before singular as well as plural nouns whether countable or uncountable.

The definite article is used:

1. When the object or group of objects is unique or considered to be unique:

the earth the sea the sky the equator the stars

2. Before a noun which has become definite as a result of being mentioned a second time:

His car struck a tree; you can still see the mark on the tree.

3. Before a noun made definite by the addition of a phrase or clause:

the girl in blue the man with the banner the boy that I met

4. Before a noun which by reason of locality can represent only one particular thing:

Ann is in the garden. (the garden of this house)

Please pass the wine. (the wine on the table)

5. Before superlatives and first, second etc. used as adjectives or pronouns, and only:

the first (week) the best day the only way

The + singular noun can represent a class of animals or things:

The whale is in danger of becoming extinct.

The deep-freeze has made life easier for housewife.

The + adjective represents a class of persons:

the old = old people in general

The is used before certain proper names of seas, rivers, groups of islands, chains of mountains, plural names of countries, deserts, regions:

the Atlantic the Netherlands

the Thames the Sahara

the Azores the Crimea

the Alps the Riviera

and before certain other names:

the City the Mall

the Sudan the Hague

the Strand the Yemen

The is also used before names consisting of noun + of + noun:

the Bay of Biscay the Gulf of Mexico
the Cape of Good Hope the United States of America

The is used before names consisting of adjective + noun (provided the adjective is not east, west etc.)

the Arabian Sea the New Forest the High Street

The is used before other proper names consisting of adjective + noun or noun + of + noun:

the National Gallery the Tower of London

It is also used before names of choirs, orchestras, pop groups etc.:

the Bach Choir the Philadelphia Orchestra the Beatles

and before names of newspapers (*The Times*) and ships (*the Great Britain*).

The with names of people has a very limited use. **the** + plural surname can be used to mean 'the . . . family':

the Smiths = Mr and Mrs Smith (and children)

The + singular name + clause/phrase can be used to distinguish one person from another of the same name:

We have two Mr Smiths. Which do you want? ~ I want the Mr Smith who signed this letter.

The is used before titles containing **of** (*the Duke of York*) but it is not used before other titles or ranks (*Lord Olivier, Captain Cook*), though if someone is referred to by title/rank alone **the** is used:

The earl expected . . . The captain ordered . . .

Letters written to two or more unmarried sisters jointly may be addressed *The Misses* + surname: *The Misses Smith*.

21.3. Zero article (No article)

Omission of **a/an**

a/an is omitted;

1. Before plural nouns.

a/an has no plural form. So the plural of *a dog* is *dogs*, and of *an egg* is *eggs*.

2. Before uncountable nouns.

3. Before names of meals, except when these are preceded by an adjective:

We have breakfast at eight.

He gave us a good breakfast.

The article is also used when it is a special meal given to celebrate something or in someone's honour:

I was invited to dinner (at their house, in the ordinary way) but

I was invited to a dinner given to welcome the new ambassador.

Omission of **the**

The definite article is not used:

1. Before names of places except as shown above, or before names of people.

2. Before abstract nouns except when they are used in a particular sense;

Men fear death but The death a/the Prime Minister left his party without a leader.

3. After a noun in the possessive case, or a possessive adjective:

the boy's uncle = the uncle of the boy It is my (blue) book = The (blue) book is mine.

4. Before names of meals:

The Scots have porridge/or breakfast but The wedding breakfast was held in her/other's house.

5. Before names of games: *He plays golf.*

6. Before parts of the body and articles of clothing, as these normally prefer a possessive adjective:

Raise your right hand. He took off his coat.

Omission of **the** before **home**, before **church**, **hospital**, **prison**, **school** etc. and before **work**, **sea and town**

A - home

When *home* is used alone, i.e. is not preceded or followed by a descriptive word or phrase, **the** is omitted:

He is at home.

home used alone can be placed directly after a verb of motion, i.e. it can be treated as an adverb:

He went home. I arrived home after dark.

But when *home* is preceded or followed by a descriptive word or phrase it is treated like any other noun:

They went to their new home.

We arrived at the bride's home.

B - bed, church, court, hospital, prison, school/college/university

The is not used before the nouns listed above when these places are visited or used for their primary purpose. We go:

to bed to sleep or as invalids

to hospital as patients

to church to pray

to prison as prisoners

to court as litigants etc.

to school/college/university to study

Similarly we can be:

in bed, sleeping or resting

in hospital as patients

at church as worshippers

at school etc. as students

in court as witnesses etc.

We can be/get back (or be/get home) *from school/college/university*.

We can leave school, leave hospital, *be released* from prison.

When these places are visited or used for other reasons **the** is necessary:

I went to the church to see the stained glass.

He goes to the prison sometimes to give lectures.

C - sea

We go to *sea* as sailors.

To be *at sea* = to be on a voyage (as passengers or crew).

But to go *to* or be *at the sea* = to go to or be *at the seaside*. We can also live *by/near the sea*.

D - work and office

work (= place of work) **is** used without **the**:

He's on his way to work. He is at work.

He isn't back from work yet.

Note that *at work* can also mean 'working'; *hard at work* = working hard:

He's hard at work on a new picture.

office (= place of work) needs **the**: *He is at/in the office.*

To be *in office* (without **the**) means to hold an official (usually political) position. To be *out of office* = to be no longer in power.

E - town

the can be omitted when speaking of the subject's or speaker's own town:

We go to town sometimes to buy clothes.

We were in town last Monday.

22.The Noun

Formal classification of nouns

According to their form nouns may be divided into:

1. **Simple nouns**, such as *book, man, house, ball, etc.*
2. **Compound nouns**, such as *housewife, blackboard, grandfather, chairman, newspaper, schoolboy, sunshine, etc.*
The elements composing a compound may be almost any part of speech, e.g. housewife (noun + noun), blackboard (adjective + noun), whitewash (adjective + verb), pickpocket (verb + noun), overlap (adverb + verb), weighing-machine (gerund + noun), etc.
3. **Derivative nouns**, such as *friendship, teacher, referee, happiness, government, arrival, ability, decision.*
4. **Parasynthetic compounds** (composition combined with derivation) such as *goal-keeper, homesickness, hand-writing, school-teacher, trade-unionist, watch-maker etc.*
5. **Many English nouns are formed from other parts of speech by means of conversion**

(without any change of form):

Will you *help* me on with my overcoat, please? (Verb)

Thank you for your kind *help*. (Noun)

He is reading an *English* novel. (Adjective)

The *English* like tea with milk. (Noun)

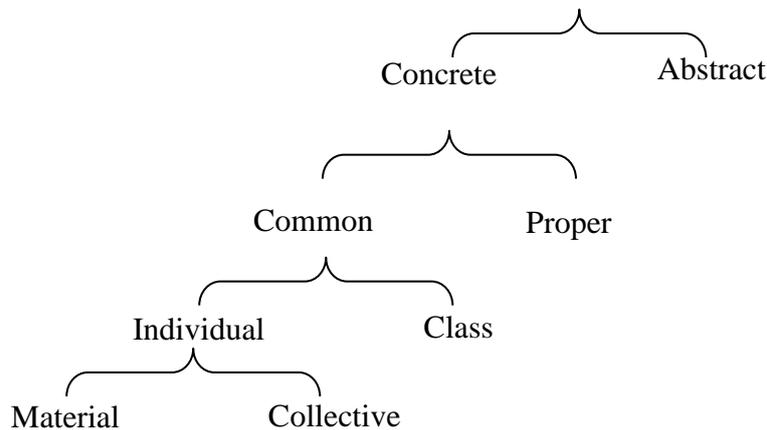
He felt *wounded* in his honour. (Past Participle)

The *wounded* have been taken to hospital. (Noun)

Logical categories of nouns

Nouns may be classified logically into the following categories:

Nouns



Examples:

Concrete nouns: *water, iron, wool, cloth; crowd, class, company, family; man, girl, book, house; John, England, Washington*

Abstract nouns: *beauty, darkness, time, summer, length, choice*

Common nouns: *water, iron, wool, cloth; crowd, class, family, man, girl, book, house*

Proper nouns: *John, England, Washington*

Individual nouns: *man, girl, book, house*

Class-nouns: *crowd, class, company, family; man, girl; book, house*

Material nouns: *water, iron, wool, cloth*

Collective nouns: *crowd, class, company, family.*

Notes:

a) Individual nouns indicate things or persons belonging to a class.

Collective nouns denote a number of things or persons collected together so that they may be regarded either as an entity or as a collection of individuals.

b) Proper nouns may also include a group of individuals: the Browns, the Hungarians, the English.

c) Abstract nouns may turn into concrete nouns when they denote concrete objects: *a beauty, a youth.*

The category of case

Case is the special form of a noun to indicate its function in a sentence. In Old English there four cases: *nominative, genitive, dative* and *accusative*. In Present-Day English there are only two cases: the common case (N- \emptyset and N-s) and the genitive/possessive case (N's and N-s').

The noun in the common case may have various syntactical functions:

Birds (“nominative case” – subject) fly.

He is my *teacher* (“nominative case” – subject complement –állítmánykiegészítő).

Can you see the *plane* (“accusative case” – direct object)?

He gave the *child* (“dative case” – indirect object) an apple (“accusative case” – direct object.)

The category of gender

In Present-Day English there is no grammatical gender. What is still traditionally called gender in English is a division of nouns into three classes according to their lexical meaning:

- **Masculine** (referred to as *he*): *man, boy, brother*

- **Feminine** (referred to as *she*): *woman, girl, sister*

- **Neuter** (referred to as *it*): *book, house, friendship, horse, pigeon*

Notes:

a) There are nouns which may be applied to both males and females: *child, cousin, friend, parent, neighbour, servant, clerk, director, doctor, engineer, journalist, mechanic, novelist, stranger, student, teacher; bear, bird, eagle, elephant, sparrow, turkey, wolf, etc.*

b) The nouns *child* and *baby* are sometimes referred to as *it* (but this form is not over-favoured):

The *child* has broken *its* toy.

c) Neuter nouns are frequently personified and, therefore, take another gender:

Some become masculine:

- the *sun*;

- nouns suggesting such ideas as strength, fierceness: *winter, the Fatherland, death, anger, war*;

- nouns denoting larger and bolder animals: *elephant, horse, dog, eagle*.

Most nouns become feminine:

- the earth, the moon;

- the names of vessels (ship, boat, streamer, etc.);

- the names of vehicles (car, coach, carriage, etc.);

- the names of countries, cities, and towns;

- nouns suggesting such ideas as gentleness, beauty: *spring, peace, nature, luck, fortune, fame, victory, birth.*

- nouns denoting smaller and weaker animals: *cat, hare, parrot;*

- nouns of animals when their maternal instinct is referred to.

Examples:

It is pleasant to watch the *sun* in *his* chariot of gold and the *moon* in *her* chariot of pearl (Wilde). The *earth* awoke from *her* winter sleep. *She* is a good *sheep*. *She* is a fine *car*.

d) Apart from personifications, there are three ways in which masculine and feminine gender are differentiated:

- by the ending of a word: actor (masculine) – actress (feminine), widower (masculine) – widow (feminine);

- by the use of a different word: king – queen, sir – madam;

- by the use of a compound, one element of which denotes the gender: man-servant – maid-servant, boyfriend – girlfriend

For further information on gender, see: BA Students' English Grammar (Budai, 2009), Appendix 3.

The category of number

There are two numbers in English:

a) the **singular** to denote one (a man, a horse, a house);

b) the **plural** to denote more than one (men, horses, houses).

Only countable nouns can be used in the plural.

1. Countables and Uncountables

Names of persons and things which can be counted and can be used with determiners denoting number are called **countables**. Countables are also called class-nouns. They may be *singular* or *plural*: one book – two books, one family – two families.

Names of things that cannot be counted (but which may sometimes be measured), which cannot be used with determiners denoting number are called **uncountables**. These are always singular, but cannot be used with the indefinite article.

Uncountables may be:

Concrete, such as *wool, iron, paper, chalk, meat, furniture*

Abstract, such as *happiness, beauty, law, music, weather*

Notes:

a) Many uncountables may become countables when they are used with the meaning “a kind of..., different kinds or varieties of...”:

There are many different *wines* on this list.

They produce high quality *steels*.

Hungary has some wonderful *fruits* (i.e. some wonderful kinds of fruit). But: Have you put the fruit on the table?

b) Abstract nouns acquire both numbers (and thus become countables) when they have concretizing or individualizing force:

The *joys* of childhood. The *pleasures* of winter sport.

This is a brilliant *idea*. This girl is a *beauty*.

c) With some uncountables the plural is used to intensify the meaning expressed by the singular or to suggest great quantity or extent:

He swayed between *hopes* and *fears*. Good *Heavens!* *Thanks*.

The *sands* of the desert; the *snows* and *frosts* of the Antarctic.

d) Many seemingly uncountable nouns have other meanings in which they are countable:

coffee	I like <i>coffee</i> very much (material noun, uncountable). Two <i>coffees</i> , please (i.e. two cups of coffee, countable).
glass	A <i>glass</i> (an article made of this substance, countable) is made of <i>glass</i> (material noun, uncountable).
ice	Ice is cold (material noun, uncountable). I bought two strawberry <i>ices</i> for the children (used as an abbreviation of <i>ice-cream</i> , countable).
iron	It is made of <i>iron</i> (material noun, uncountable). I have an electric <i>iron</i> (a tool used for making fabric smooth, countable).
paper	There is <i>paper</i> on the wall (material noun, uncountable). I want to buy an evening <i>paper</i> (i.e. a newspaper, countable).
time	The world exists in space and <i>time</i> (abstract noun, uncountable). I have told you a thousand <i>times</i> not to do that (a synonym of occasion, countable).
tin	The price of <i>tin</i> rose last year (material noun, uncountable). The food is packed in <i>tins</i> (i.e. metal boxes, countable).
wood	Put some more <i>wood</i> on the fire (material noun, uncountable). There are a lot of <i>woods</i> in this region (i.e. forests, countable) etc.

e) The word *hairs* is used only with the meaning of *a few separate hairs*:

He has *a few grey hairs*. But: His *hair* is dark.

a hair - e.g. There is *a hair* in my soup.

f) Many countables may become uncountables:

- When the name of an animal is used to denote its flesh used as food:

We had *fish* for lunch. I prefer *chicken* to *duck*.

- When the name of an object becomes the name of the material:

You've got some *egg* on your chin. There is *egg* on your coat, too.

- When the name of trees are used to denote the corresponding kind of *wood as material* or as *live plants*.

This table is made of *oak*. The path entered a belt of *oak*.

g) The following nouns are uncountable: *advice, bread, business, furniture, homework, information, knowledge, luggage, money, news, progress, soap, work*.

Give me some good *advice*. Do you eat much *bread*? I received much valuable *information*.

Concrete instances: a piece of information, a piece of advice, an item of information, two pieces of luggage, a cake of soap.

For further information on number, see: A Practical English Grammar (Thomson, Martinet, 1986).

Use and Meaning of the Number Forms

Generally speaking, the two number forms are used in a logical way (the singular form is used to denote one, the plural form to denote more than one), but form is often in conflict with meaning and function:

a) Some words have one form for both singular and plural:

1) A few names of fish and animals: *fish, cod, mackerel, salmon, pike, plaice, trout; sheep, deer, swine*.

2) Some measurements and numerals: *the word hundred, thousand, million, dozen, score*.

Examples: *two hundred soldiers, five thousand pounds, ten million people, two dozen eggs; but hundreds of soldiers, thousands of birds, millions of people*.

3) Names of inhabitants of countries, cities etc. that end in a hissing sound, such as Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Vietnamese, Viennese, Swiss;

Many Chinese live in this city. They are Swiss.

4) The nouns *series* and *species*: *a series/two series* of experiments, *a species of* blackbirds, *many species* of birds.

b) **Nouns such as** *people, folk, vermin; cavalry, clergy, gentry, infantry, nobility, peasantry, police; cannon, foot, horse (= cavalry), craft (= boats, ships); cattle, poultry, the poor, the rich, the blind, the wounded, the accused, are treated as plural nouns.*

Most *people* like it. Only the old *folk* were left. The *police* have not made any arrests.

Notes:

people is the plural of *person* (emberek)

- The singular *a people* means a nation, the plural form *peoples* means nations:

The English are *a Germanic people*. Defence of peace is the cause of all *peoples* of the world.

- Names of peoples in -ch, -sh are used with the definite article to denote the whole nation: *the Dutch, the French, the English, the Irish, the Scottish*. But *an Englishman, two Englishmen*.

- *Cattle* and *poultry* are used with the numerative head: *ten head of cattle*.

- *Poultry* may be treated as a singular or as a plural word:

His *poultry* is often killed by foxes. The *poultry* are in the yard.

c) Many nouns denoting *boards, committees, communities, institutions, names of sports teams and clubs*, although formally singular, are mainly construed as plural nouns.

The Labour Party were proud of having built the Health Service.

Note that the verb is singular if the collective denoted by the noun is taken as a whole unit.

Compare:

My *family* is small. My *family* are early risers (the persons which form the collective are considered separately).

d) The following nouns are never used in the singular form:

1) N-s + ARE:

- Names of things consisting of two similar halves, such as *bellows, breeches, drawers, knickers, knickerbockers, pants, pyjamas, shorts, slacks, trousers, compasses, glasses, pincers, pliers, scales, scissors, shears, spectacles, tongs*.

Note that number is expressed by means of *pair*: *a pair of pyjamas, two pair(s) of scissors*;

- Names of diseases or illnesses: *measles, mumps*;

- Names of some games: *billiards, bowls, cards, dominoes, draughts*;

- Many verbal nouns in -ing: *beginnings, doings, earnings, goings-on, parings, peelings, tidings, surroundings, sweepings, winnings, filings, savings, shavings etc.*

- The following nouns: *ashes, clothes, contents, credentials, dregs, goods, oats, outskirts, proceeds, remains, riches, slums, stairs, wages, whiskers.*

2) N-s + IS:

Nouns ending in *-ics*: *acoustics, athletics, economics, gymnastics, mathematics, optics, phonetics, physics, politics, statistics, tactics, etc.*

Mathematics was her weakest point. *Phonetics* is the science of sounds.

Note that this usage is not fixed:

Politics *have/has* always interested him.

Names of sciences are treated as plurals when practical application is meant.

Plurals

1) The plural of a noun is usually made by adding **s** to the singular:

day → days; dog → dogs; house → houses

's' is pronounced /s/ after a **p, k** or **f** sound. Otherwise it is pronounced /z/.

When 's' is placed after **ce, ge, se** or **ze** an extra syllable (/iz/) is added to the spoken word.

Other plural forms

2) Nouns ending in **-o** or **-h, -ch, -tch, -sh, -s, -ss** or **-x** form their plural by adding **-es**:

tomato → tomatoes, brush → brushes, box → boxes, church → churches, kiss → kisses.

But words of foreign origin or abbreviated words ending in **-o** add **-s** only:

dynamo → dynamos, kimono → kimonos, piano → pianos, kilo → kilos, photo → photos

When **-es** is placed after **-ch, -sh, -ss** or **-x** an extra syllable (/iz/) is added to the spoken word.

3) Nouns ending in **-y** following a consonant form their plural by dropping the **-y** and adding **-ies**:

baby → babies, country → countries; fly → flies, lady → ladies.

Nouns ending in **-y** following a vowel form their plural by adding **-s**:

boy → boys, day → days, donkey → donkeys, guy → guys.

4) Twelve nouns ending in **-f** or **-fe** drop the **-f** or **-fe** and add **-ves**. These nouns are *calf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf*:

loaf → loaves, wife → wives, wolf → wolves, etc.

5) A few nouns form their plural by a vowel change:

foot → feet, louse → lice, mouse → mice, woman → women, goose → geese, man → men, tooth → teeth.

The plurals of *child* and *ox* are *children*, *oxen*.

6) Names of certain creatures do not change in the plural. *Fish* is normally unchanged, *fishes* exists but is uncommon. Some types of fish do not normally change in the plural:

carp, pike, salmon, trout, cod, plaice, squid, turbot, mackerel

but if used in a plural sense they would take a plural verb. Others add -s:

crabs, herrings, sardines, eels, lobsters, sharks

deer and *sheep* do not change: *one sheep, two sheep*.

Sportsmen who shoot *duck, partridge, pheasant* etc. use the same form for singular and plural. But other people normally add -s for the plural: *ducks, partridges, pheasants*.

The word *game* used by sportsmen to mean an animal/animals hunted, is always in the singular, and takes a singular verb.

7) A few other words don't change:

aircraft, craft (boat/boats), *quid* (slang for £1), *counsel* (barristers working in court)

Some measurements and numbers do not change.

8) Collective nouns, *crew, family, team* etc., can take a singular or plural verb; singular if we consider the word to mean a single group or unit:

Our team is the best

or plural if we take it to mean a number of individuals:

Our team are wearing their new jerseys.

When a possessive adjective is necessary, a plural verb with **their** is more usual than a singular verb with **its**, though sometimes both are possible:

The Jury *is* considering *its* verdict.

The jury *are* considering *their* verdict.

9) Certain words are always plural and take a plural verb:

clothes, police

garments consisting of two parts:

breeches, pants, pyjama trousers, etc.

and tools and instruments consisting of two parts:

binoculars, pliers, scissors, spectacles, glasses, scales, shears, etc.

Also certain other words including:

<i>arms</i> (weapons)	<i>particulars</i>
<i>damages</i> (compensation)	<i>premises/quarters</i>
<i>earnings</i>	<i>riches</i>
<i>goods/wares</i>	<i>savings</i>
<i>greens</i> (vegetables)	<i>spirits</i> (alcohol)
<i>grounds</i>	<i>stairs</i>
<i>outskirts</i>	<i>surroundings</i>
<i>pains</i> (trouble/effort)	<i>valuables</i>

10) A number of words ending in *-ics*, *acoustics, athletics, ethics, hysterics, mathematics, physics, politics etc.*, which are plural in form, normally take a plural verb:

His mathematics are weak.

But names of sciences can sometimes be considered singular:

Mathematics is an exact science.

11) Words plural in form but singular in meaning include:

news: No news is good news.

certain diseases: *mumps, rickets, shingles*

and certain games: *billiards, darts, draughts, bowls, dominoes*

12) Some words which retain their original Greek or Latin forms make their plurals according to the rules of Greek and Latin:

<i>crisis</i> → <i>crises</i>	<i>phenomenon</i> → <i>phenomena</i>
<i>erratum</i> → <i>errata</i>	<i>radius</i> → <i>radii</i>
<i>memorandum</i> → <i>memoranda</i>	<i>terminus</i> → <i>termini</i>
<i>oasis</i> → <i>oases</i>	

But some follow the English rules:

<i>dogma</i> → <i>dogmas</i>	<i>gymnasium</i> → <i>gymnasiums</i>
<i>formula</i> → <i>formulas</i> (though <i>formulae</i> is used by scientists)	

Sometimes there are two plural forms with different meanings:

appendix → *appendixes* or *appendices* (medical terms)

appendix → *appendices* (addition/s to a book)

index → *indexes* (in books), *indices* (in mathematics)

Musicians usually prefer Italian plural forms for Italian musical terms:

libretto → *libretti* *tempo* → *tempi*

But s is also possible: *librettos*, *tempos*.

13) Compound nouns

a). Normally the last word is made plural:

boy-friends, *break-ins*, *travel agents*.

But where *man* and *woman* is prefixed both parts are made plural:

men drivers, women drivers

b). The first word is made plural with compounds formed of **verb + er nouns + adverbs**:

hangers-on, *lookers-on*, *runners-up*

and with compounds composed of **noun + preposition + noun**:

ladies-in-waiting, *sisters-in-law*, *wards of court*

c) Initials can be made plural:

MPs (Members of Parliament)

VIPs (very important persons)

OAPs (old age pensioners)

UFOs (unidentified flying objects)

Uncountable nouns (also known as non-count nouns or mass nouns)

1) a) Names of substances considered generally:

bread *cream* *gold* *paper* *tea*

beer *dust* *ice* *sand* *wafer*

cloth *gin* *jam* *soap* *wine*

coffee *glass* *oil* *stone* *wood*

b) Abstract nouns:

advice *experience* *horror* *pity*

beauty *fear* *information* *relief*

courage *help* *knowledge* *suspicion*

death hope mercy work

c) Also considered uncountable in English:

baggage damage luggage shopping
camping furniture parking weather

These, with hair, information, knowledge, news, rubbish, are sometimes countable in other languages.

2) Uncountable nouns are always singular and are not used with **a/an**:

I don't want (any) advice or help. I want (some) information.

He has had no experience in this sort of work.

These nouns are often preceded by *some, any, no, a little* etc. or by nouns such as *bit, piece, slice, bar* etc. + *of*:

a bit of news a grain of sand a pot of jam
a sheet of paper a pane of glass a cake/bar of soap
a drop of oil a piece of advice a bar of chocolate

3) Many of the nouns in the above groups can be used in a particular sense and are then countable and can take **a/an** in the singular. Some examples are given below.

We drink *beer, coffee, gin*, but we can ask for a (*cup of*) *coffee, a gin, two gins* etc. We drink out of *glasses*. We can walk in *woods*.

Experience - meaning 'something which happened to someone' is countable:

He had an exciting experience/some exciting experiences (= adventure/s) last week.

Work - meaning 'occupation/employment/a job/jobs' is singular:

He is looking for work/for a job.

Works (plural only) can mean 'factory' or 'moving parts of a machine'.

Works (usually plural) can be used of literary or musical compositions:

Shakespeare's complete works.

4) Some abstract nouns can be used in a particular sense with **a/an**, but in the singular only:

a help:

My children are a great help to me.

A good map would be a help.

a relief:

It was a relief to sit down.

a knowledge + of:

He had a good knowledge of mathematics.

a dislike/dread/hatred/horror/love + of is also possible:

a love of music, a hatred of violence

a mercy/pity/shame/wonder can be used with that-clauses introduced by it:

It's a pity you weren't here.

It's a shame he wasn't paid.

5) *a fear/fears, a hope/hopes, a suspicion/suspensions* - these can be used with that-clauses introduced by there:

There is a fear/There are fears that he has been murdered.

We can also have *a suspicion that...*

Something can arouse *a fear/fears, a hope/hopes, a suspicion/suspensions.*

The form of the possessive/genitive case

1) 's is used with singular nouns and plural nouns not ending in -s:

<i>a man's job</i>	<i>the people's choice</i>
<i>men's work</i>	<i>the crew's quarters</i>
<i>a woman's intuition</i>	<i>the horse's mouth</i>
<i>the butcher's (shop)</i>	<i>the bull's horns</i>
<i>a child's voice</i>	<i>women's clothes</i>
<i>the children's room</i>	<i>Russia's exports</i>

2) A simple apostrophe (') is used with plural nouns ending in -s:

<i>a girls' school</i>	<i>the students' hostel</i>
<i>the eagles' nest</i>	<i>the Smiths' car</i>

3) Classical names ending in -s usually add only the apostrophe:

Pythagoras' Theorem *Archimedes' Law* *Sophocles' plays*

4) Other names ending in -s can take 's or the apostrophe alone;

Mr Jones's (w Mr Jones' house) *Yeast's (or Yeasts') poems*

5) With compounds, the last word takes the 's:

my brother-in-law's guitar

Names consisting of several words are treated similarly:

Henry the Eighth's wives

the Prince of Wales's helicopter

's can also be used after initials:

the PM's secretary

the MP's briefcase

the VIP's escort

Note that when the possessive case is used, the article before the person or thing 'possessed' disappears:

the daughter of the politician = the politician's daughter

the intervention of America = America's intervention

the plays of Shakespeare = Shakespeare's plays

Use of the possessive/genitive case and of + noun

1) The possessive case is chiefly used of people, countries or animals as shown above. It can also be used:

a) Of ships and boats: *the ship's bell. the yacht's mast*

b) Of planes, trains, cars and other vehicles, though here the *of* construction is safer:

a glider's wings or the wings of a glider

the train's heating system or the heating system of the train

c) In time expressions:

a week's holiday

today's paper

tomorrow's weather

in two years' time

ten minutes' break

two hours' delay

a ten-minute break, a two-hour delay are also possible:

We have ten minutes' break/a ten-minute break.

d) In expressions of money + worth:

£1's worth of stamps

ten dollars' worth of ice-cream

e) With for + noun + sake:

for heaven's sake, for goodness' sake

f) In a few expressions such as:

a stone's throw, Journey's end, the water's edge

g) We can say either a *winter's day* or a *winter day* and a *summer's day* or a *summer day*, but we cannot make spring or autumn possessive, except when they are personified:

Autumn's return.

h) Sometimes certain nouns can be used in the possessive case without the second noun.

a/the baker's/butcher's/chemist's/florist's etc. can mean 'a/the baker's/butcher's etc. shop'.

Similarly, *a/the house agent's/travel agent's* etc. (office) and *the dentist's/doctor's/vet's* (surgery):

You can buy it at the chemist's.

He's going to the dentist's.

Names of the owners of some businesses can be used similarly:

Sotheby's, Claridge's

Some very well-known shops etc. call themselves by the possessive form and some drop the apostrophe: *Foyles, Harrods.*

Names of people can sometimes be used similarly to mean '...s house':

We had lunch at Bill's.

We met at Ann's.

2) of + noun is used for possession:

a) When the possessor noun is followed by a phrase or clause:

The boys ran about, obeying the directions of a man with a whistle.

I took the advice of a couple I met on the train and hired a car.

b) With inanimate 'possessors':

the walls of the town

the roof of the church

the keys of the car

However, it is often possible to replace noun **X** + **of** + noun **Y** by noun **Y** + noun **X** in that order:

the town walls

the church roof

the car keys

The first noun becomes a sort of adjective and is not made plural:

the roofs of the churches = the church roofs

Compound nouns

1) Examples of these:

a) Noun + noun:

London Transport

Fleet Street

Tower Bridge

hall door

traffic warden

petrol tank

hitch-hiker

sky-jacker

river bank

kitchen table

winter clothes

b) Noun + gerund:

fruit picking *lorry driving* *coal-mining*
weight-lifting *bird-watching* *surf-riding*

c) Gerund + noun:

waiting list *diving-board* *driving licence*
landing card *dining-room* *swimming pool*

2) Some ways in which these combinations can be used:

a) When the second noun belongs to or is part of the first:

shop window *picture frame* *college library*
church bell *garden gate* *gear lever*

But words denoting quantity: *lump, part, piece, slice* etc. cannot be used in this way:

a piece of cake *a slice of bread*

b) The first noun can indicate the place of the second:

city street *corner shop* *country lane* *street market*

c) The first noun can indicate the time of the second:

summer holiday *Sunday paper* *November fogs*
spring flowers *dawn chorus*

d) The first noun can state the material of which the second is made:

steel door *rope ladder* *gold medal*
stone wall *silk shirt*

wool and *wood* are not used here as they have adjective forms: *woollen* and *wooden*, *gold* has an adjective form *golden*, but this is used only figuratively;

a golden handshake *a golden opportunity* *golden hair*

The first noun can also state the power/fuel used to operate the second:

Gas fire *petrol engine* *oil stow*

e) The first word can indicate the purpose of the second:

coffee cup *escape hatch* *chess board*
reading lamp *skating rink* *tin opener*
golf club *notice board* *football ground*

f) Work areas, such as *factory, farm, mine* etc., can be preceded by the name of the article produced:

fish-farm *gold-mine* *oil-rig*

or the type of work done:

inspection pit assembly plant decompression chamber

g) These combinations are often used of occupations, sports, hobbies and the people who practise them:

sheep farming sheep farmer pop singer

wind surfing water skier disc jockey

and for competitions:

football match tennis tournament beauty contest car rally

h) The first noun can show what the second is about or concerned with.

A work of fiction may be a *detective/murder/mystery/ghost/terror/spy story*. We buy *bus/train/plane tickets*. We pay *fuel/laundry/milk/telephone bills, entry fees, income tax, car insurance, water rates, parking fines*.

Similarly with *committees, departments, talks, conferences* etc.:

housing committee education department peace talks

23. The Adjective

Kinds of adjectives

The main kinds are:

- (a) Demonstrative: *this, that, these, those*
- (b) Distributive: *each, every; either, neither*
- (c) Quantitative: *some, any, no; little/few; many, much; one, twenty*
- (d) Interrogative: *which, what, whose*
- (e) Possessive: *my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their*
- (f) Of quality: *clever, dry, fat, golden, good, heavy, square*

Participles used as adjectives

Both present participles (**ing**) and past participles (**ed**) can be used as adjectives. Care must be taken not to confuse them. Present participle adjectives, *amusing, boring, tiring* etc., are active and mean 'having this effect'. Past participle adjectives, *amused, horrified, tired* etc., are passive and mean 'affected in this way'.

The play was boring. (The audience was bored.)

The work was tiring. (The workers were soon tired.)

The scene was horrifying. (The spectators were horrified.)

an infuriating woman (She made us furious.)

an infuriated woman (Something had made her furious.)

Agreement

Adjectives in English have the same form for singular and plural, masculine and feminine nouns:

a good boy, good boys *a good girl, good girls*

The only exceptions are the demonstrative adjectives **this** and **that**, which change to **these** and **those** before plural nouns:

this cat, these cats *that man, those men*

Many adjectives/participles can be followed by prepositions: *good at, tired of*.

Position of adjectives: attributive and predicative use

1. Adjectives in groups (a) - (e) above come before their nouns:

this book *which boy* *my dog*

Adjectives in this position are called attributive adjectives.

Adjectives of quality, however, can come either before their nouns:

a rich man *a happy girl*

or after a verb such as (a) *be, become, seem*:

Tom became rich. *Ann seems happy.*

or (b) *appear, feel, get/grow* (= become), *keep, look* (= appear), *make, smell, sound, taste, turn*:

Tom felt cold. *He got/grew impatient.*

He made her happy. *The idea sounds interesting.*

Adjectives in this position are called predicative adjectives. Verbs used in this way are called link verbs.

Some adjectives can be used only attributively or only predicatively, and some change their meaning when moved from one position to the other.

bad/good, big/small, heavy/light and **old**, used in such expressions *as bad sailor, good swimmer, big eater, small farmer, heavy drinker, light sleeper, old boyfriend/soldier* etc., cannot be used predicatively without changing the meaning: *a small farmer* is a man who has a small farm, but *The farmer is small* means that he is a small man physically. Used otherwise, the above adjectives can be in either position.

chief, main, principal, sheer, utter come before their nouns.

frightened may be in either position, but afraid and upset must follow the verb and so must **adrift, afloat, alike, alive, alone, ashamed, asleep**.

The meaning of early and late may depend on their position:

an early/a late train means a train scheduled to run early or late in the day. *The train is early/late* means that it is before/after its proper time-poor meaning 'without enough money' can precede the noun or follow the verb.

Order of adjectives of quality

Several variations are possible but a fairly usual order is: adjectives of

- (a) size (except **little**)
- (b) general description (excluding adjectives of personality, emotion etc.)
- (c) age, and the adjective little
- (d) shape
- (e) colour
- (f) material
- (g) origin
- (h) purpose (these are really gerunds used to form compound nouns: walking stick, riding boots).

a long sharp knife

a small round bath

new hexagonal coins

blue velvet curtains

an old plastic bucket

an elegant French dock

Adjectives of personality/emotion come after adjectives of physical description, including **dark, fair, pale**, but before colours:

a small suspicious official

a long patient queue

a pale anxious girl

a kindly black doctor

an inquisitive brown dog

little, old and **young** are often used, not to give information, but as part of an adjective-noun combination. They are then placed next to their nouns:

Your nephew is a nice little boy. That young man drives too fast.

little + old + noun is possible: a little old lady. But **little + young** is not.

Comparison

There are three degrees of comparison:

<u>Positive</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
<i>Dark</i>	<i>darker</i>	<i>darkest</i>
<i>Tall</i>	<i>taller</i>	<i>tallest</i>
<i>Useful</i>	<i>more useful</i>	<i>most useful</i>

One-syllable adjectives form their comparative and superlative by adding **-er** and **-est** to the positive form:

bright brighter brightest

Adjectives ending in **-e** add **-r** and **-st**:

brave braver bravest

Adjectives of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative by putting **more** and **most** before the positive:

interested more interested most interested

frightening more frightening most frightening

Adjectives of two syllables follow one or other of the above rules. Those ending in **-ful** or **-re** usually take **more** and **most**:

doubtful more doubtful most doubtful

obscure more obscure most obscure

Those ending in **-er**, **-y** or **-ly** usually add **-er**, **-eat**:

clever cleverer cleverest

pretty prettier prettiest (note that the **y** becomes **i**)

silly sillier silliest

Irregular comparisons:

bad worse worst

far farther farthest (of distance only)

further furthest (used more widely)

good better best
little less least
many/much more most
old eider eldest (of people only)
older oldest (of people and things)

far (used for distance) and **near**

In the comparative and superlative both can be used quite freely:

the farthest/furthest mountain the nearest river

But in the positive form they have a limited use, **far** and **near** are used chiefly with *bank, end, side, wall* etc.:

the far bank (the bank on the other side)

the near bank (the bank on this side of the river)

elder, eldest; older, oldest

Elder, eldest imply seniority rather than age. They are chiefly used for comparisons within a family: *my elder brother, her eldest boy/girl*;

But **elder** is not used with *than*, so *older* is necessary here:

He is older than I am. (elder would not be possible.)

Constructions with comparisons

With the positive form of the adjective, we use **as ... as** in the affirmative and **not as/not so ... as** in the negative:

A boy of sixteen is often as tall as his/other.

He was as white as a sheet.

Manslaughter is not as/so bad as murder.

With the comparative we use **than**:

The new tower blocks are much higher than the old buildings.

He makes/ewer mistakes than you (do).

He is stronger than I expected = I didn't expect him to be so strong.

If was more expensive than I thought = I didn't think it would be so expensive.

When **than** ... is omitted, it is very common in colloquial English to use a superlative instead of a comparative: *This is the best way* could be said when there are only two ways.

Comparison of three or more people/things is expressed by the superlative with **the . . . in/of**:

This is the oldest theatre in London.

The youngest of the family was the most successful.

Parallel increase is expressed by **the** + comparative ... **the** + comparative:

HOUSE AGENT: *Do you want a big house?*

ANN: *Yes, the bigger the better.*

TOM: *But the smaller it is, the less it will cost us to heat.*

Gradual increase or decrease is expressed by two comparatives joined by and:

The weather is getting colder and colder.

He became less and less interested.

Comparisons with **like** (preposition) and **alike**:

Tom is very like Bill. Bill and Tom are very alike.

He keeps the central heating full on. It's like living in the tropics.

Comparisons with like and as (both adverb and adjective expressions are shown here). In

theory **like** (preposition) is used only with noun, pronoun or gerund:

He swims like a fish. You look like a ghost.

Be like Peter/him: go jogging.

The windows were all barred. It was like being in prison.

like + noun and **as** + noun:

He worked like a slave, (very hard indeed)

He worked as a slave. (He was a slave.)

She used her umbrella as a weapon. (She struck him with it.)

than/as + pronoun + auxiliary

When the same verb is required before and after **than/as** we can use an auxiliary for the second verb:

I earn less than he does. (less than he earns)

The same tense need not be used in both clauses:

He knows more than I did at his age.

When **than/as** is followed by **he/she/it** + verb, we normally keep the verb:

You are stronger than he is.

But we can drop the verb and use **he/she/they** in very formal English or **him/her/them** in very colloquial English. These rules apply also to comparisons made with adverbs:

I swim better than he does/better than him.

They work harder than we do/harder than us.

You can't type as fast as I can/as fast as me.

the + adjective with a plural meaning

Blind, deaf, disabled, healthy/sick, living/dead, rich/poor, unemployed and certain other adjectives describing the human character or condition can be preceded by **the** and used to represent a class of persons. These expressions have a plural meaning; they take a plural verb and the pronoun is **they**:

The poor get poorer: the rich get richer.

the can be used in the same way with national adjectives ending in -ch or -sh:

the Dutch the Spanish the Welsh

and can be used similarly with national adjectives ending in -se or -ss:

the Burmese the Chinese the Japanese the Swiss

though it is just possible for these to have a singular meaning.

Note that **the + adjective** here refers to a group of people considered in a general sense only. If we wish to refer to a particular group, we must add a noun:

These seats are for the disabled.

The disabled members of our party were let in free.

The French like to eat well.

The French tourists complained about the food.

Adjectives + one/ones and adjectives used as pronouns

Most adjectives can be used with the pronouns **one/ones**, when **one/ones** represents a previously mentioned noun:

Don't buy the expensive apples; get the cheaper ones.

I lost my old camera; this is a new one.

Similarly with a number + adjective:

If you haven't got a big plate, two small ones will do.

Adjectives used as pronouns

First/second etc. can be used with or without **one/ones**; i.e. they can be used as adjectives or pronouns:

Which train did you catch? ~ I caught the first (one).

the + superlative can be used similarly:

Tom is the best (runner). The eldest was only ten.

and sometimes the + comparative:

Which (of these two) is the stronger?

But this use of the comparative is considered rather literary, and in informal English a superlative is often used here instead:

Which (of these two) is the strongest?

Adjectives of colour can sometimes be used as pronouns:

I like the blue (one) best.

Colours of horses, especially **bay**, **chestnut**, **grey** are often used as pronouns and take -s in the plural:

Everyone expected the chestnut to win.

The coach was drawn by four greys.

Many and much (adjectives and pronouns)

Many (adjective) is used before countable nouns.

Much (adjective) is used before uncountable nouns:

He didn't make many mistakes. We haven't much coffee.

They have the same comparative and superlative forms **more** and **most**:

more mistakes/coffee most men/damage

many, **much**, **more**, **most** can be used as pronouns:

He gets a lot of letters but she doesn't get many.

You have a lot of free time but I haven't much.

more and **most** can be used quite freely, and so can **many** and **much**, with negative verbs (see above examples). But **many** and **much** with affirmative or interrogative verbs have a restricted use.

Many and **much** with affirmative verbs

Many is possible when preceded (i.e. modified) by **a good/a great**. Both are possible when modified by **so/as/too**.

I made a good many friends there.

He has had so many jobs that. . .

She read as much as she could.

They drink too much (gin).

When not modified, **many**, as object or part of the object, is usually replaced by **a lot/lots of** (+ noun) or by a lot or lots (pronouns).

Much, as object or part of the object, is usually replaced by **a great/good deal of** (+ noun) or **a great/good deal** (pronouns):

I saw a lot/lots of seabirds. I expect you saw a lot too.

He spends a lot/lots of/a great deal of money on his house.

24. The Adverb

Kinds of adverbs

Manner: *bravely, fast, happily, hard, quickly, well*

Place: *by, down, here, near, there, up*

Time: *now, soon, still, then, today, yet*

Frequency: *always, never, occasionally, often, twice*

Sentence: *certainly, definitely, luckily, surely*

Degree: *fairly, hardly, rather, quite, too, very*

Interrogative: *when? where? why?*

Relative: *when, where, why*

Form and use

The formation of adverbs with -ly

Many adverbs of manner and some adverbs of degree are formed by adding **-ly** to the corresponding adjectives:

grave, gravely immediate, immediately slow, slowly

Spelling notes

(a) A final **-y** changes to **-i**: *happy, happily*.

(b) A final **-e** is retained: *extreme, extremely*.

Exceptions: *true, due, whole* become *truly, duly, wholly*.

(c) Adjectives ending in **-able/-ible** drop the final **-e** and add **-y**:

capable, capably sensible, sensibly

(d) Adjectives ending in a vowel + **l** follow the usual rule:

beautiful, beautifully final, finally

Exceptions: the adverb of **good** is **well**.

kindly can be adjective or adverb, but other adjectives ending in **ly**, e.g. **friendly**, **likely**, **lonely** etc., cannot be used as adverbs and have no adverb form. To supply this deficiency we use a similar adverb or adverb phrase:

likely (adjective) *friendly* (adjective) *probably* (adverb) *in a friendly way* (adverb phrase)

Some adverbs have a narrower meaning than their corresponding adjectives or differ from them. **coldly**, **coolly**, **hotly**, **warmly** are used mainly of feelings:

We received them coldly, (in an unfriendly way)

They denied the accusation hotly, (indignantly)

She welcomed us warmly, (in a friendly way)

Adverbs and adjectives with the same form

A	back	hard*	little	right*
	deep*	high*	long	short*
	direct*	ill	low	still
	early	just*	much/more/most*	straight
	enough	kindly	near*	well
	far	late*	pretty*	wrong*
	fast	left		

*See below.

Used as adverbs:

Come back soon.

You can dial Rome direct.

The train went fast.

They worked hard. (energetically)

an ill-made road

Turn right here.

She went straight home.

He led us wrung.

Used as adjectives:

the back door

the most direct route.

a fast train

The work is hard

You look ill/well

the right answer

a straight line

This is the wrong way.

Starred words above also have **-ly** forms. Note the meanings.

deeply is used chiefly of feelings: *He was deeply offended.*

directly can be used of time or connection:

He'll be here directly, (very soon)

The new regulations will affect us directly/indirectly.

highly is used only in an abstract sense:

He was a highly paid official. They spoke very highly of him.

justly corresponds to the adjective just (fair, right, lawful), but just can also be an adverb of degree. (See 41.)

lately = **recently**: *Have you seen him lately?*

mostly = **chiefly**

nearly = **almost**: *I'm nearly ready.*

prettily corresponds to the adjective **pretty** (attractive):

Her little girls are always prettily dressed.

Comparative and superlative adverb forms

With adverbs of two or more syllables we form the comparative and superlative by putting more and most before the positive form:

<u>Positive</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
quickly	more quickly	most quickly
fortunately	more fortunately	most fortunately

Single-syllable adverbs, however, and **-early**, add **-er**, **-est**:

hard	harder	hardest
early	earlier	earliest (note the y becomes i)

Irregular comparisons:

well	better	best
badly	worse	worst
little	less	least
much	more	most
far	farther	farthest (of distance only)
	further	furthest (used more widely)

Far, farther/farthest and further/furthest

Further, furthest

These, like **farther/farthest**, can be used as adverbs of place/distance:

It isn't safe to go any further/farther in this fog.

But they can also be used in an abstract sense:

Mr A said that these toy pistols should not be on sale.

Mr B went further and said that no toy pistols should be sold.

Mr C went furthest of all and said that no guns of any kind should be sold.

Much, more, most

More and **most** can be used fairly freely:

You should ride more. I use this room most.

But **much**, in the positive form, has a restricted use.

Much meaning **a lot** can modify negative verbs:

He doesn't ride much nowadays.

In the interrogative **much** is chiefly used with **how**. In questions without **how**, **much** is possible but **a lot** is more usual:

How much has he ridden? Has he ridden a lot/much?

In the affirmative **as/so/too** + **much** is possible. Otherwise **a lot/ a good deal/a great deal** is preferable:

He shouts so much that... I talk too much.

Much meaning a lot can modify comparative or superlative adjectives and adverbs:

much better much the best much more quickly

Most placed before an adjective or adverb can mean very. It is mainly used here with adjectives/adverbs of two or more syllables:

He was most apologetic. She behaved most generously. (See 21 C.)

Constructions with comparisons

When the same verb is required in both clauses we normally use an auxiliary for the second

verb.

With the positive form we use **as ... as** with an affirmative verb, and **as/so ... as** with a negative verb:

He worked as slowly as he dared.

He doesn't snore as/so loudly as you do.

It didn't take as/so long as I expected.

With the comparative form we use **than**:

He eats more quickly than I do/than me.

He played better than he had ever played.

They arrived earlier than I expected.

the + comparative . . . **the** + comparative is also possible:

The earlier you start the sooner you'll be back.

With the superlative it is possible to use **of** + noun:

He went (the) furthest of the explorers.

But this construction is not very common and such a sentence would normally be expressed by a comparative, as shown above. A superlative (without **the**) + **of all** is quite common, but **all** here often refers to other actions by the same subject:

He likes swimming best of all. (better than he likes anything else) of all can then be omitted.

Position

Adverbs of manner - Adverbs of manner come after the verb:

She danced beautifully

or after the object when there is one:

He gave her the money reluctantly. They speak English well.

Do not put an adverb between verb and object.

When we have verb + preposition + object, the adverb can be either before the preposition or after the object:

He looked at me suspiciously or *He looked suspiciously at me.*

But if the object contains a number of words we put the adverb before the preposition:

He looked suspiciously at everyone who got off the plane.

Similarly with verb + object sentences the length of the object affects the position of the adverb. If the object is short, we have verb + object + adverb, as shown in above. But if the object is long we usually put the adverb before the verb:

She carefully picked up all the bits of broken glass.

He angrily denied that he had stolen the documents.

They secretly decided to leave the town.

Badly and **well** can be used as adverbs of manner or degree. As adverbs of manner they come after an active verb, after the object or before the past participle in a passive verb:

He behaved badly.

He read well.

He paid her badly.

She speaks French well.

She was badly paid.

The trip was well organised.

Badly as an adverb of degree usually comes after the object or before, the verb or past participle:

The door needs a coat of paint badly/The door badly needs a coat of paint.

He was badly injured in the last match.

Well (degree) and **well** (manner) have the same position rules;

I'd like the steak well done.

He knows the town well.

The meaning of **well** may depend on its position.

Note the difference between:

You know well that I can't drive (There can be no doubt in your ... mind about this) and

You know that I can't drive well. (I'm not a good driver.)

Adverbs of place

Away, everywhere, here, nowhere, somewhere, there etc.

If there is no object, these adverbs are usually placed after the verb:

She went away.

He lives abroad.

Bill is upstairs.

But they come after verb + object or verb + preposition + object:

She sent him away.

I looked for it everywhere.

Adverb phrases, formed of preposition + noun/pronoun/adverb, follow the above position rules:

The parrot sat on a perch.

He stood in the doorway.

He lives near me.

Somewhere, anywhere follow the same basic rules as **some** and **any**:

I've seen that man somewhere.

Can you see my key anywhere? ~ No. I can't see it anywhere.

Nowhere, however, is not normally used in this position except in the expression **to get nowhere** (= to achieve nothing/to make no progress):

Threatening people will get you nowhere. (You'll gain no advantage by threatening people.)

But it can be used in short answers:

Where are you going? ~ Nowhere. (I'm not going anywhere.)

The adverbs **away** (= off), **down**, **in**, **off**, **out**, **over**, **round**, **up** etc. can be followed by a verb of motion + a noun subject:

Away went the runners.

Down fell a dozen apples.

Out sprang the cuckoo.

Round and round flew the plane.

But if the subject is a pronoun it is placed before the verb:

Away they went. Round and round it flew.

There is more drama in this order than in subject + verb + adverb but no difference in meaning.

In written English adverb phrases introduced by prepositions (*down, from, in, on, over, out of, round, up* etc.) can be followed by verbs indicating position (*crouch, hang, He, sit, stand* etc.), by verbs of motion, by *be born, die, live* and sometimes other verbs:

From the rafters hung strings of onions.

In the doorway stood a man with a gun.

Adverbs of time

Afterwards, eventually, lately, now, recently, soon, then, today, tomorrow etc. and adverb phrases of time: **at once, since then, till** (6.00 etc.)

These are usually placed at the very beginning or at the very end of the clause, i.e. in front position or end position. End position is usual with imperatives and phrases with **till**:

Eventually he came/He came eventually.

Then we went home/We went home then.

Write today. I'll wait till tomorrow.

Before, early, immediately and **late** come at the end of the clause:

He came late. I'll go immediately.

But **before** and **immediately**, used as conjunctions, are placed at the beginning of the clause:

Immediately the rain stops we'll set out.

Since and **ever since** are used with perfect tenses.

Since can come after the auxiliary or in end position after a negative or interrogative verb; **ever since** (adverb) in end position. Phrases and clauses with **since** and **ever since** are usually in end position, though front position is possible:

He's been in bed since his accident/since he broke his leg.

Yet and **still** (adverbs of time)

Yet is normally placed after verb or after verb + object:

He hasn't finished (his breakfast) yet.

But if the object consists of a large number of words, **yet** can be placed before the verb:

He hasn't yet applied for the job we told him about.

Still is placed after the verb **be** but before other verbs:

She is still in bed.

Yet means 'up to the time of speaking'. It is chiefly used with the negative or interrogative,

Still emphasizes that the action continues. It is chiefly used with the affirmative or interrogative, but can be used with the negative to emphasize the continuance of a negative action:

He still doesn't understand. (The negative action of 'not understanding' continues.)

He doesn't understand yet. (The positive action of 'understanding' hasn't yet started.)

Just, as an adverb of time, is used with compound tenses:

I'm just coming.

Adverbs of frequency

(a) **always, continually, frequently, occasionally, often, once, twice, periodically, repeatedly, sometimes, usually** etc.

(b) **ever, hardly ever, never, rarely, scarcely ever, seldom**

Adverbs in both the above groups are normally placed:

After the simple tenses of **to be**:

He is always in time for meals.

Before the simple tenses of all other verbs:

They sometimes stay up all night.

With compound tenses, they are placed after the first auxiliary, or, with interrogative verbs, after auxiliary + subject:

He can never understand.

You have often been told not to do that. Have you ever ridden a camel? Exceptions

(a) used to and have to prefer the adverb in front of them:

You hardly ever have to remind him; he always remembers.

(b) Frequency adverbs are often placed before auxiliaries when these are used alone, in additions to remarks or in answers to questions:

Can you park your car near the shops? - Yes, I usually can.

I know I should take exercise, but I never do.

and when, in a compound verb, the auxiliary is stressed:

I never 'can remember. She hardly ever 'has met him.

Similarly when do is added for emphasis:

I always do arrive in time!

But emphasis can also be given by stressing the frequency adverb and leaving it in its usual position after the auxiliary:

You should 'always check your oil before starting.

Adverbs in group (a) above can also be put at the beginning or end of a sentence or clause,

Exceptions

always is rarely found at the beginning of a sentence/clause except with imperatives.

often, if put at the end, normally requires very or quite:

Often he walked. He walked quite often.

Adverbs in group (b) above, **hardly ever**, **never**, **rarely** etc. (but not ever alone), can also be put at the beginning of a sentence, but inversion of the following main verb then becomes necessary:

Hardly/Scarcely ever did they manage to meet unobserved. **hardly/scarcely ever**, **never**, **rarely** and **seldom** are not used with negative verbs.

Never, ever

Never is chiefly used with an affirmative verb, never with a negative. It normally means 'at no time':

He never saw her again. I've never eaten snails. They never eat meat. (habit) I've never had a better/light.

Never + interrogative can be used to express the speaker's surprise at the non-performance of an action:

Has he never been to Japan? I'm surprised, because his wife is Japanese.

Ever means 'at any time' and is chiefly used in the interrogative:

Has he ever marched in a demonstration? ~ No, he never has.

Ever can be used with a negative verb and, especially with compound tenses, can often replace never + affirmative:

I haven't ever eaten snails.

Order of adverbs and adverb phrases of manner, place and time when they occur in the same sentence

Expressions of manner usually precede expressions of place:

He climbed awkwardly out of the window.

He'd study happily anywhere.

But **away, back, down, forward, home, in, off, on, out, round and up** usually precede adverbs of manner:

He walked away sadly. She looked back anxiously.

They went home quietly. They rode on confidently.

Adverbs of degree

Absolutely, almost, barely, completely, enough, entirely, extremely, fairly, far, hardly, just, much, nearly, only, quite, rather, really, scarcely, so, too, very etc.

An adverb of degree modifies an adjective or another adverb, it is placed before the adjective or adverb:

You are absolutely right. I'm almost ready. :y But enough follows its adjective or adverb:

The box isn't big enough. He didn't work quickly enough.

far requires a comparative, or too + positive:

If is far better to say nothing. He drives far too fast.

25. Numerals, dates, and weights and measures

Cardinal numbers (adjectives and pronouns)

<i>1 one</i>	<i>11 eleven</i>	<i>21 twenty-one</i>	<i>31 thirty-one etc.</i>
<i>2 two</i>	<i>12 twelve</i>	<i>22 twenty-two</i>	<i>40 forty</i>
<i>3 three</i>	<i>13 thirteen</i>	<i>23 twenty-three</i>	<i>50 fifty</i>
<i>4 four</i>	<i>14 fourteen</i>	<i>24 twenty-four</i>	<i>60 sixty</i>
<i>5 five</i>	<i>15 fifteen</i>	<i>25 twenty-five</i>	<i>70 seventy</i>
<i>6 six</i>	<i>16 sixteen</i>	<i>26 twenty-six</i>	<i>80 eighty</i>
<i>7 seven</i>	<i>17 seventeen</i>	<i>27 twenty-seven</i>	<i>90 ninety</i>
<i>8 eight</i>	<i>18 eighteen</i>	<i>28 twenty-eight</i>	<i>100 a hundred</i>
<i>9 nine</i>	<i>19 nineteen</i>	<i>29 twenty-nine</i>	<i>1,000 a thousand</i>
<i>10 ten</i>	<i>20 twenty</i>	<i>30 thirty</i>	<i>1,000,000 a million</i>

*400 four hundred 140 a/one hundred and forty 1,006 a/one thousand and six
5,000 five thousand 260,127 two hundred and sixty thousand, one hundred and twenty-seven*

Points to notice about cardinal numbers

When writing in words, or reading, a number composed of three or more figures we place **and** before the word denoting tens or units:

713 seven hundred and thirteen

5,102 five thousand, one hundred and two but

6,100 six thousand, one hundred (no tens or units) and is used similarly with hundreds of thousands:

320,410 three hundred and twenty thousand, four hundred and ten and hundreds of millions:

303.000,000 three hundred and three million

A is more usual than **one** before **hundred, thousand, million** etc, when these numbers stand alone or begin an expression:

100 a hundred 1,000 a thousand

100,000 a hundred thousand

We can also say a hundred and one, a hundred and two etc. up to a hundred and ninety-nine and a thousand and one etc. up to a thousand and ninety-nine. Otherwise we use one, not a (see above). So:

1,040 a/one thousand and forty but

1,140 one thousand, one hundred and forty

The words hundred, thousand, million and dozen. when used of a definite number, are never made plural:

six hundred men ten thousand pounds two dozen eggs

If however, these words are used loosely, merely to convey the idea of a large number, they must be made plural:

hundreds of people thousands of birds dozens of times Note also that in this case the preposition of is placed after hundreds, thousands etc.

Of is not used with definite numbers except before the/them/ these/those or possessives:

so: of the blue ones ten of these four of Tom's brothers

Numbers composed of four or more figures are divided into groups of three as shown above.

Decimals are indicated by '.', which is read 'point':

10.92 ten point nine two

A zero after a decimal point is usually read 'nought':

8.04 eight point nought four

But 'o' and 'zero' would also be possible.

Ordinal numbers (adjectives and pronouns)

<i>first</i>	<i>eleventh</i>	<i>twenty-first</i>	<i>thirty-first etc.</i>
<i>second</i>	<i>twelfth</i>	<i>twenty-second</i>	<i>fortieth</i>
<i>third</i>	<i>thirteenth</i>	<i>twenty-third</i>	<i>fiftieth</i>
<i>fourth</i>	<i>fourteenth</i>	<i>twenty-fourth</i>	<i>sixtieth</i>
<i>fifth</i>	<i>fifteenth</i>	<i>twenty-fifth</i>	<i>seventieth</i>
<i>sixth</i>	<i>sixteenth</i>	<i>twenty-sixth</i>	<i>eightieth</i>
<i>seventh</i>	<i>seventeenth</i>	<i>twenty-seventh</i>	<i>ninetieth</i>
<i>eighth</i>	<i>eighteenth</i>	<i>twenty-eighth</i>	<i>hundredth</i>
<i>ninth</i>	<i>nineteenth</i>	<i>twenty-ninth</i>	<i>thousandth</i>
<i>tenth</i>	<i>twentieth</i>	<i>thirtieth</i>	<i>millionth</i>

When writing in words or reading fractions other than $\frac{1}{2}$ (a half) and $\frac{1}{4}$ (a quarter), we use a combination of cardinal and ordinal numbers:

$\frac{1}{5}$ *a/one fifth* $\frac{1}{10}$ *a/one tenth* (*a* is more usual than *one*)

$\frac{3}{5}$ *three fifths* $\frac{7}{10}$ *seven tenths*

A whole number + a fraction can be followed directly by a plural noun:

$2\frac{1}{4}$ miles == *two and a quarter miles*

$\frac{1}{2}$ (*half*) can be followed directly by a noun but other fractions require **of** before a noun:

half a second but a quarter of a second

half + of can also be used, but the of is optional:

Half (of) my earnings go in tax.

Points to notice about ordinal numbers

Notice the irregular spelling of *fifth*, *eighth*, *ninth* and *twelfth*.

When ordinal numbers are expressed in figures the last two letters of the written word must be added (except in dates):

first = 1st *twenty-first* = 21st

second = 2nd *forty-second* = 42nd

third = 3rd *sixty-third* = 63rd

fourth = 4th *eightieth* = 80th

In compound ordinal numbers the rule about and is the same as for compound cardinal numbers: 101st = the hundred and first.

The article **the** normally precedes ordinal numbers:

the sixtieth day the fortieth visitor

Titles of kings etc. are written in Roman figures:

Charles V James III Elizabeth II

But in spoken English we use the ordinal numbers preceded by the:

Charles the Fifth James the Third Elizabeth the Second

Dates

The days of the week

The months of the year

Sunday (Sun.)

January (Jan.) July

Monday (Mm.)	February (Feb.)	August (Aug.)
Tuesday (Tues.)	March (Mar.)	September (Sept.)
Wednesday (Wed.)	April (Apr.)	October (Oct.)
Thursday (Thurs.)	May	November (Nov.)
Friday (Fri.)	June	December (Dec.)
Saturday (Sat.)		

Days and months are always written with capital letters. Dates are expressed by ordinal numbers, so when speaking we say:

March the tenth, July the fourteenth etc. or the tenth of March etc.

They can, however, be written in a variety of ways; e.g. *March the tenth* could be written:

March 10 10 March 10th of March
March 10th 10th March March the 10th

The year

When reading or speaking we use the term **hundred** but not **thousand**. The year 1987 would be read as *nineteen hundred and eighty-seven or nineteen eighty-seven*.

Years before the Christian era are followed by the letters BC (= Before Christ) and years dating from the Christian era are occasionally preceded by the letters AD (= Anno Domini, in the year of the Lord). The former are read in either way: *1500 BC* would be read as *one thousand five hundred BC or fifteen hundred BC*.

Weights, length and liquid measure

Weights

The English weights table is as follows:

15 ounces (oz.) = 1 pound (lb.)
14 Rounds = 1 stow (st.)
8 stone = 1 hundredweight (cict.)
20 hundredweight = 1 ton
1 pound = 0.454 kilogram (kg)
2.2 pounds = 1 kilogram
2.204.6 tbs = 1 metric tonne

Plurals

Ounce, pound and ton can take a in the plural when they are used as nouns, stone and hundredweight do not take s: e.g. *we say six*

Round of sugar or six pounds of sugar, but ten hundredweight of coal has no alternative.

When used in compound adjectives these terms never take a:

a ten-ton lorry kilo or kilogram usually take s in the plural when used as nouns:

two kilos of apples or two kilograms of apples

Length

The English table of length is as follows:

12 inches (in.) = 1 foot (ft.)

3 feet = 1 yard (yd.)

1,760 yards = 1 mile (m.)

1 inch = 2.54 centimetres (cm)

1 yard = 0.914 metre (m)

1 mile = 1.609 kilometres (km)

Plurals

When there is more than one inch/mite/centimetre we normally use the

plural form of these words:

one inch, ten inches one mile, four miles

one centimetre, five centimetres

When there is more than one foot we can use either foot or feet. feet is the more usual when measuring heights. We can say;

six foot tall or six feet tall two foot long or two feet long

When used in compound adjectives the above forms never take the plural form: a two-mile walk, a six-inch ruler.

Liquid measure

2 pints (Pt.) = 1 quart (qt.)

1 pint = 0.568 litre (l)

4 quarts = 1 gallon (gal.)

1 gallon = 4.55 litres

Traditionally British measurements have been made in ounces, inches, pints etc. but there is now a gradual move towards the metric system.

Irregular Verbs (Rendhagyó igék)

Főnévi igenév	Egyszerű múlt idő	Múlt idejű mellénévi igenév	Magyar jelentés
abide	abode	abode	tartózkodik
arise	arose	arisen	keletkezik
awake	awoke	awoken	felébred, felébreszt
be (is, are)	was, were	been	van
bear	bore	borne	hord
bear	bore	born	szül
beat	beat	beaten	üt
beget	begot	begotten	nemz, okoz
begin	began	begun	kezd
bend	bent	bent	hajlít
bereave	bereft	bereft	megfoszt
beseech	besought	besought	könyörög
bet	bet	bet	fogad
bid	bid	bid	ajánl
bid	bade, bid	bidden	parancsol
bind	bound	bound	köt
bite	bit	bitten	harap
bleed	bled	bled	vérzik
bless	blessed	blessed, blest	áld
blow	blew	blown	fúj
break	broke	broken	tör
breed	bred	bred	tenyészt
bring	brought	brought	hoz
build	built	built	épít
burn	burnt, burned	burnt, burned	ég
burst	burst	burst	szétreped
buy	bought	bought	vásárol
can	could	-	tud
cast	cast	cast	dob

catch	caught	caught	megfog
chide	chid, chided	chid(den), chided	szid
choose	chose	chosen	választ
cleave	cleft, cleaved, clove	cleft, cleaved, cloven	hasít
cleave	cleaved, clave	cleaved,	ragaszkodik
cling	clung	clung	ragaszkodik
clothe	clad	clad	öltözik
come	came	come	jön
cost	cost	cost	vmibe kerül
creep	crept	crept	csúszik
crow	crew	crowed	kukorékol
cut	cut	cut	vág
dare	durst	durst	merészel, kihív
deal	dealt	dealt	ad
dig	dug	dug	ás
dive	dived, dove	dived	lemerül, fejest ugrik
do	did	done	tesz
draw	drew	drawn	húz, rajzol
dream	dreamt	dreamt	álmodik
drink	drank	drunk	iszik
drive	drove	driven	hajt (autót)
dwell	dwelt	dwelt	lakik
eat	ate	eaten	eszik
fall	fell	fallen	esik
feed	fed	fed	táplál
feel	felt	felt	érez
fight	fought	fought	harcol
find	found	found	talál
flee	fled	fled	menekül
fling	flung	flung	hajít
fly	flew	flown	repül
forbid	forbade, forbad	forbidden	tilt

forecast	forecast, forecasted	forecast, forecasted	tilt
forget	forgot	forgotten	elfelejt
forgive	forgave	forgiven	megbocsát
forsake	forsook	forsaken	elhagy
freeze	froze	frozen	fagy
get	got	got	kap
gild	gilt, gilded	gilt, gilded	aranyoz
gird	girt, girded	girt, girded	övez
give	gave	given	ad
go	went	gone	megy
grave	graved	graven	vés
grind	ground	ground	őröl
grow	grew	grown	nő
hang	hung	hung	akaszt, függ
hang	hanged	hanged	felakaszt vkit
have (has)	had	had	vmije van
hear	heard	heard	hall
heave	hove, heaved	hove, heaved	emel
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed	üt
hide	hid	hid(den)	rejt
hit	hit	hit	üt
hold	held	held	tart
hurt	hurt	hurt	megsért
keep	kept	kept	tart
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled	térdel
knit	knitted	knitted	köt
knit	knit	knit	egyesít, egyesül
know	knew	known	tud
lade	laded	laden	megrak
lay	laid	laid	fektet
lead	led	led	vezet
lean	leant, leaned	leant, leaned	hajol

leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped	ugrik
learn	learnt, learned	learnt, learned	tanul
leave	left	left	elhagy
lend	lent	lent	kölcsönöz
let	let	let	hagy
lie	lied	lied	hazudik
lie	lay	lain	fekszik
light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted	meggyújt
lose	lost	lost	elveszít
make	made	made	csinál
may	might	-	szabad
mean	meant	meant	jelent
meet	met	met	találkozik
mow	mowed	mown	lekaszál
must	-	-	kell
output	output, outputted	output, outputted	kiad
pay	paid	paid	fizet
plead	pleaded, pled	pleaded, pled	fizet
prove	proved	proved, proven	bizonyít
put	put	put	tesz
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted	othagy, elmegy
read	read	read	olvas
rend	rent	rent	hasít
rid	rid	rid	megszabadít
ride	rode	ridden	lovagol
ring	rang	rung	cseng
rise	rose	risen	felkel
rot	rotted	rotten	rothad
run	ran	run	szalad
saw	sawed	sawn	fűrész
say	said	said	mond
see	saw	seen	lát

seek	sought	sought	keres
sell	sold	sold	elad
send	sent	sent	küld
set	set	set	helyez
sew	sewed	sewn, sewed	varr
shake	shook	shaken	ráz
shall	should	-	(segédige)
shape	shaped	shapen	alakít
shave	shaved	shaven	borotvál
shear	sheared	shorn, sheared	nyír
shed	shed	shed	elhullat
shine	shone	shone	ragyog
shine	shined	shined	fényesít
shit	shitted, shat	shitted, shat	kakál
shoe	shod	shod	megpatkol
shoot	shot	shot	lő
show	showed	shown, showed	mutat
shrink	shrank, shrunk	shrunk	összezsugorodik
shrive	shrived, shrove	shrived, shrove	összezsugorodik
shut	shut	shut	becsuk
sing	sang	sung	énekel
sink	sank	sunk	süllyed
sit	sat	sat	ül
slay	slew	slain	öl
sleep	slept	slept	alszik
slide	slid	slid	csúszik
sling	slung	slung	hajít
slink	slunk	slunk	lopózik
slit	slit	slit	felvág
smell	smelt, smelled	smelt, smelled	megszagol
smite	smote	smitten	rásújt
sow	sowed	sown, sowed	vet

speak	spoke	spoken	beszél
speed	sped	sped	száguld
speed	speeded	speeded	siettet
spell	spelt, spelled	spelt, spelled	betűz (betűket)
spend	spent	spent	költ
spill	spilt, spilled	spilt, spilled	kiönt
spin	spun, span	spun	fon
spit	spat, spit	spat, spit	köp
split	split	split	hasít
spoil	spoilt, spoiled	spoilt, spoiled	elront
spread	spread	spread	kiterjeszt
spring	sprang	sprung	ugrik
stand	stood	stood	áll
stave	staved, stove	staved, stove	bever
steal	stole	stolen	lop
stick	stuck	stuck	ragaszt
sting	stung	stung	szúr
stink	stank, stunk	stunk	bűzlik
strew	strewed	strewn, strewed	hint
stride	strode	stridden	lépked
strike	struck	struck	üt
string	strung	strung	felfűz
strive	strove	striven	igyekszik
swear	swore	sworn	megesküszik
sweep	swept	swept	söpör
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled	dagad
swim	swam	swum	úszik
swing	swung	swung	leng, lenget
take	took	taken	fog, elragad
teach	taught	taught	tanít
tear	tore	torn	szakít
tell	told	told	elmond

think	thought	thought	gondol, gondolkodik
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived	boldogul
throw	threw	thrown	dob
thrust	thrust	thrust	döf
tread	trod	trodden, trod	tapos
wake	woke, waked	woken, waked	felébred, felébreszt
wear	wore	worn	visel
weave	wove	woven	sző
weave	weaved	weaved	kanyarog
weep	wept	wept	sír
wed	wedded, wed	wedded, wed	összeházasodik
wet	wetted, wet	wetted, wet	benedvesít
will	would	-	(segédige)
win	won	won	nyer
wind	wound	wound	teker(edik)
wind	wound, winded	wound, winded	kürtől
wring	wrung	wrung	kicsavar
write	wrote	written	ír

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FIRST– YEAR GRAMMAR TEST: SAMPLE TASKS

Module I, II. Tenses

I. Put the verbs into the correct form.

1. What time (the shops/close) in France?
2. They (play football) when the headmaster came.
3. I can play the piano, but I (not/play) for ages.
4. How many pieces of music (write/Mozart)?
5. Do you like her sister. I (not/see/her/yet).
6. She never(eat) meat.
7. He(leave) tomorrow. I've bought the lane ticket for him.
8. Was that hat very expensive? Yes, it (cost) very much.
9. I came here an hour ago and I'm still waiting for the doctor. I(wait) here for an hour.
10. Jane (wait)for me for three hours when I arrived.
11. When they arrived home after their trip, they found that somebody..... (break) into their house.
12. I'm very angry because I (always/ lose) my key.

II. Put the verbs in brackets into the simple present, the present continuous, the simple past or the past continuous tense.

1. Jane(make) a cake when the light went out. She had to finish it in the dark.
2. Look! He (put) a ticket on Tom's car. Tom will be very angry when he(see) it.
3. I just (clean) the window when he (enter) the room.
4. My father usually (go) by train, but this week he(go) by bus.
5. These plums (cost) 25p a bag. you (think) that is expensive?
6. While Ann (watch) her favourite television programme, there was a power-cut.

7. He (take) a bath when he (hear) someone at the door.
8. My sister always (laugh) during the lesson so the teacher is very angry with her.
9. I (save) up because I (go) abroad in May.
10. He watched the children for a moment. Some of them (bathe) in the sea, others (look) for shells, others (play) in the sand.

III. Insert *since* or *for*.

- a) I haven't driven a car over two months.
- b) I haven't read Latin left school.
- c) I haven't read a map quite a long time.
- d) I haven't put up a tent I went camping two years ago.
- e) I haven't repaired a radio I left the army.

IV. Put each verb in brackets into a suitable tense.

I was on time for my dentist's appointment, but the dentist was still busy with another patient, so I (sit) in the waiting room and (read) some of the old magazines lying there. While I (wonder) whether to leave and come back another day, I (notice) a magazine article about teeth. It (begin): 'How long is it since you last (go) to the dentist? (you go) regularly every six months? Or (you put off) your visit for the last six years?' Next to the article was a cartoon of a man in a dentist's chair. The dentist (say): 'I'm afraid this (hurt)'. I (suddenly realize) that my tooth (stop) aching. But just as I (open) the door to leave, the dentist's door (open). 'Next, please', he (call), as the previous patient (push) past me. Actually I'm not here to see you, I (wait) for my friend', I (shout), leaving as rapidly as I could. (you ever do) this kind of thing? Surely I can't be the only person who (hate) the dentist.

V. Decide whether the following statements are true or false.

1. We use the past simple to say that somebody was in the middle of doing something at a certain time.	T/F
2. The future progressive is used for planned or expected future events.	
3. We use the present perfect to say that something will have been completed by a certain time in the future.	
4. Sometimes we use the present perfect if there is no connection with the present.	
5. The present progressive is common when we talk about future personal arrangements and fixed plans.	
6. We do not use the present perfect when we talk about a finished time.	
7. We can use the future perfect progressive to say how long something will have continued by a certain time.	
8. We sometimes use the simple present to talk about the future, especially plans for the future.	
9. After <i>if</i> and <i>when</i> , we normally use future tenses to talk about the future.	
10. We use the present perfect to talk about things in general.	

VI. Write about

The formation and use of the Present Perfect Tense.