Collins

COBUILD

Intermediate English Grammar & Practice

reflexive verb

present simple

comparative, superlative

modal verb

the passive

much/many

talking about the past

preposition

COLLINS CORPUS: THE WORLD'S LARGEST DATABASE FOR LANGUAGE STUDY

Table of Contents

1	Clause and sentence structure	4
2	The noun group	5
3	The verb group	6
4	The imperative and 'let'	7
5	Questions	8
6	'Wh'-questions	9
7	Question tags: forms	10
8	Question tags: uses	11
9	Indirect questions	12
10	Short answers	13
11	Sentences with 'not'	14
12	Negative words	15
13	Count nouns	16
14	Singular and plural	17
15	Uncount nouns	18
16	Personal pronouns	19
17	Impersonal subject 'it'	20
18	Impersonal subject 'there'	21
19	Demonstrative pronouns	22
20	Reflexive pronouns	23
21	Indefinite pronouns	24
22	Possession	25
23	Determiners	26
24	Main uses of 'the'	27
25	Other uses of 'the'	28
26	'A' and 'an'	29
27	All, most, no, none	30
28	Both, either, neither	31
29	Quantity 1	32
30	Quantity 2	33
31	Position of adjectives	34
32	Order of adjectives	35
33	Adjective + 'to' or 'that'	36
34	'-ing' and '-ed' adjectives	37
35	Comparison: basic forms	38
36	Comparison: uses	39
37	Other ways of comparing	40
38	Adverbials	41
39	Adverbials of manner	42
40	Adverbials of time	43
41	Frequency and probability	44
42	Adverbials of duration	45
43	Adverbials of degree	46
44	Place and direction	47
45	Place – at, in, on	48
46	Transport prepositions	49
47	Adjective + preposition	50
48	Noun + preposition	51
49	Verb + preposition	52
50	Phrasal verbs	53
51	Verbs and objects	54

Table of Contents (cont.)

52	Verbs with two objects	55
53	Reflexive verbs	56
54	Reciprocal verbs	57
55	Ergative verbs	58
56	Common verb + noun patterns	59
57	Auxiliary verbs	60
58	The present tenses	61
59	The past tenses	62
60	The continuous tenses	63
61	The perfect tenses	64
62	Talking about the present	65
63	Talking about the past	66
64	'Will' and 'going to'	67
65	Present tenses for future	68
66	Conditionals using 'if'	69
67	'If' with modals; 'unless'	70
68	I wish, If only, ..as if..	71
69	Verbs with '-ing' clauses	72
70	Infinitives	73
71	Verb + 'to'- or '-ing'	74
72	Verbs with other clauses	75
73	Link verbs	76
74	Reporting the past	77
75	Reported questions	78
76	Reporting: 'that'-clauses	79
77	Other report structures	80
78	The passive voice	81
79	Introduction to modals	82
80	Introduction to modals 2	83
81	Possibility	84
82	Probability and certainty	85
83	Ability	86
84	Permission	87
85	Instructions and requests	88
86	Suggestions	89
87	Offers and invitations	90
88	Wants and wishes	91
89	Obligation and necessity 1	92
90	Obligation and necessity 2	93
91	Mild obligation and advice	94
92	Defining relative clauses	95
93	Non-defining clauses	96
94	Participle clauses	97
95	Adding to a noun group	98
96	Time clauses	99
97	Purpose and reason clauses	100
98	Result clauses	101
99	Contrast clauses	102
100	Manner clauses	103
101	Changing sentence focus	104
102	Cohesion	105

Unit 1: Clause and sentence structure

Main points

- Simple sentences have one clause.
- Clauses usually consist of a noun group as the subject, and a verb group.
- Clauses can also have another noun group as the object or complement.
- Clauses can have an adverbial, also called an adjunct.
- Changing the order of the words in a clause can change its meaning.
- Compound sentences consist of two or more main clauses. Complex sentences always include a subordinate clause, as well as one or more main clauses.

1 A simple sentence has one clause, beginning with a noun group called the subject. The subject is the person or thing that the sentence is about. This is followed by a verb group, which tells you what the subject is doing, or describes the subject's situation.

I waited.
The girl screamed.

2 The verb group may be followed by another noun group, which is called the object. The object is the person or thing affected by the action or situation.

He opened the car door.
She married a young engineer.

After link verbs like 'be', 'become', 'feel', and 'seem', the verb group may be followed by a noun group or an adjective, called a complement. The complement tells you more about the subject.

She was a doctor.
He was angry.

3 The verb group, the object, or the complement can be followed by an adverb or a prepositional phrase, called an adverbial. The adverbial tells you more about the action or situation, for example how, when, or where it happens. Adverbials are also called adjuncts.

They shouted loudly.
She won the competition last week.
He was a policeman in Birmingham.

4 The word order of a clause is different when the clause is a statement, a question, or a command.

He speaks English very well. (statement)
Did she win at the Olympics? (question)
Stop her. (command)

Note that the subject is omitted in commands, so the verb comes first.

5 A compound sentence has two or more main clauses: that is, clauses which are equally important. You join them with 'and', 'but', or 'or'.

He met Jane at the station and went shopping.
I wanted to go but I felt too ill.
You can come now or you can meet us there later.

Note that the order of the two clauses can change the meaning of the sentence.

He went shopping and met Jane at the station.

If the subject of both clauses is the same, you usually omit the subject in the second clause.

I wanted to go but felt too ill.

6 A complex sentence contains a subordinate clause and at least one main clause. A subordinate clause gives information about a main clause, and is introduced by a conjunction such as 'because', 'if', 'that', or a 'wh'-word. Subordinate clauses can come before, after, or inside the main clause.

When he stopped, no one said anything.
If you want, I'll teach you.
They were going by car because it was more comfortable.
I told him that nothing was going to happen to me.
The car that I drove was a Ford.
The man who came into the room was small.

Unit 2: The noun group

Main points

- Noun groups can be the subject, object, or complement of a verb, or the object of a preposition.
- Noun groups can be nouns on their own, but often include other words such as determiners, numbers, and adjectives.
- Noun groups can also be pronouns.
- Singular noun groups take singular verbs, plural noun groups take plural verbs.

1 Noun groups are used to say which people or things you are talking about. They can be the subject or object of a verb.

Strawberries are very expensive now.
Keith likes strawberries.

A noun group can also be the complement of a link verb such as 'be', 'become', 'feel', or 'seem'.

She became champion in 1964.
He seemed a nice man.

A noun group can be used after a preposition, and is often called the object of the preposition.

I saw him in town.
She was very ill for six months.

2 A noun group can be a noun on its own, but it often includes other words. A noun group can have a determiner such as 'the' or 'a'. You put determiners at the beginning of the noun group.

The girls were not in the house.
He was eating an apple.

3 A noun group can include an adjective. You usually put the adjective in front of the noun.

He was using blue ink.
I like living in a big city.

Sometimes you can use another noun in front of the noun.

I like chocolate cake.
She wanted a job in the oil industry.

A noun with 's (apostrophe s) is used in front of another noun to show who or what something belongs to or is connected with.

I held Sheila's hand very tightly.
He pressed a button on the ship's radio.

4 A noun group can also have an adverbial, a relative clause, or a 'to'-infinitive clause after it, which makes it more precise.

I spoke to a girl in a dark grey dress.
She wrote to the man who employed me.
I was trying to think of a way to stop him.

A common adverbial used after a noun is a prepositional phrase beginning with 'of'.

He tied the rope to a large block of stone.
The front door of the house was wide open.
I hated the idea of leaving him alone.

Participles and some adjectives can also be used after a noun. See Units 19 and 29.

She pointed to the three cards lying on the table.
He is the only man available.

5 Numbers come after determiners and before adjectives.

I had to pay a thousand dollars.
Three tall men came out of the shed.

6 A noun group can also be a pronoun. You often use a pronoun when you are referring back to a person or thing that you have already mentioned.

I've got two boys, and they both enjoy playing football.

You also use a pronoun when you do not know who the person or thing is, or do not want to be precise.

Someone is coming to mend it tomorrow.

7 A noun group can refer to one or more people or things. Many nouns have a singular form referring to one person or thing, and a plural form referring to more than one person or thing. See Unit 4.

My dog never bites people.
She likes dogs.

Similarly, different pronouns are used in the singular and in the plural.

I am going home now.
We want more money.

When a singular noun group is the subject, it takes a singular verb. When a plural noun group is the subject, it takes a plural verb.

His son plays football for the school.
Her letters are always very short.

Unit 3: The verb group

Main points

- In a clause, the verb group usually comes after the subject and always has a main verb.
- The main verb has several different forms.
- Verb groups can also include one or two auxiliaries, or a modal, or a modal and one or two auxiliaries.
- The verb group changes in negative clauses and questions.
- Some verb groups are followed by an adverbial, a complement, an object, or two objects.

1 The verb group in a clause is used to say what is happening in an action or situation. You usually put the verb group immediately after the subject. The verb group always includes a main verb.

I waited.
They killed the elephants.

2 Regular verbs have four forms: the base form, the third person singular form of the present simple, the '-ing' form or present participle, and the '-ed' form used for the past simple and for the past participle.

ask	asks	asking	asked
dance	dances	dancing	danced
reach	reaches	reaching	reached
try	tries	trying	tried
dip	dips	dipping	dipped

Irregular verbs may have three forms, four forms, or five forms. Note that 'be' has eight forms.

cost	costs	costing		
think	thinks	thinking	thought	
swim	swims	swimming	swam	swum
be	am/is/are	being	was/were	been

3 The main verb can have one or two auxiliaries in front of it.

I had met him in Zermatt.
The car was being repaired.

The main verb can have a modal in front of it.

You can go now.
I would like to ask you a question.

The main verb can have a modal and one or two auxiliaries in front of it.

I could have spent the whole year on it.
She would have been delighted to see you.

4 In negative clauses, you have to use a modal or auxiliary and put 'not' after the first word of the verb group.

He does not speak English very well.
I was not smiling.
It could not have been wrong.

Note that you often use short forms rather than 'not'.

I didn't know that.
He couldn't see it.

5 In 'yes/no' questions, you have to put an auxiliary or modal first, then the subject, then the rest of the verb group.

Did you meet George?
Couldn't you have been a bit quieter?

In 'wh'-questions, you put the 'wh'-word first. If the 'wh'-word is the subject, you put the verb group next.

Which came first?
Who could have done it?

If the 'wh'-word is the object or an adverbial, you must use an auxiliary or modal next, then the subject, then the rest of the verb group.

What did you do?
Where could she be going?

6 Some verb groups have an object or two objects after them. See Units 72 and 73.

He closed the door.
She sends you her love.

Verb groups involving link verbs, such as 'be', have a complement after them. See Unit 80.

They were sailors.
She felt happy.

Some verb groups have an adverbial after them.

We walked through the park.
She put the letter on the table.

Unit 4: The imperative and 'let'

Main points

- The imperative is the same as the base form of a verb.
- You form a negative imperative with 'do not', 'don't', or 'never'.
- You use the imperative to ask or tell someone to do something, or to give advice, warnings, or instructions on how to do something.
- You use 'let' when you are offering to do something, making suggestions, or telling someone to do something.

1 The imperative is the same as the base form of a verb. You do not use a pronoun in front of it.

Come to my place.
Start when you hear the bell.

2 You form a negative imperative by putting 'do not', 'don't', or 'never' in front of the verb.

Do not write in this book.
Don't go so fast.
Never open the front door to strangers.

3 You use the imperative when you are:

- asking or telling someone to do something
  Pass the salt.
  Hurry up!
- giving someone advice or a warning
  Mind your head.
  Take care!
- giving someone instructions on how to do something
  Put this bit over here, so it fits into that hole.
  Turn right off Broadway into Caxton Street.

4 When you want to make an imperative more polite or more emphatic, you can put 'do' in front of it.

Do have a chocolate biscuit.
Do stop crying.
Do be careful.

5 The imperative is also used in written instructions on how to do something, for example on notices and packets of food, and in books.

To report faults, dial 6666.
Store in a dry place.
Fry the chopped onion and pepper in the oil.

Note that written instructions usually have to be short. This means that words such as 'the' are often omitted.

Wear rubber gloves. Turn off switch. Wipe bulb.

Written imperatives are also used to give warnings.

Reduce speed now.

6 You use 'let me' followed by the base form of a verb when you are offering to do something for someone.

Let me take your coat.
Let me give you a few details.

7 You use 'let's' followed by the base form of a verb when you are suggesting what you and someone else should do.

Let's go outside.
Let's look at our map.

Note that the form 'let us' is only used in formal or written English.

Let us consider a very simple example.

You put 'do' before 'let's' when you are very keen to do something.

Do let's get a taxi.

The negative of 'let's' is 'let's not' or 'don't let's'.

Let's not talk about that.
Don't let's actually write it in the book.

8 You use 'let' followed by a noun group and the base form of a verb when you are telling someone to do something or to allow someone else to do it.

Let me see it.
Let Philip have a look at it.

Unit 5: Questions

Main points

- In most questions the first verb comes before the subject.
- 'Yes/no'-questions begin with an auxiliary or a modal.
- 'Wh'-questions begin with a 'wh'-word.

1 Questions which can be answered 'yes' or 'no' are called 'yes/no'-questions.

'Are you ready?' – 'Yes''

'*Have you read this magazine?' – 'No.'*

If the verb group has more than one word, the first word comes at the beginning of the sentence, before the subject. The rest of the verb group comes after the subject.

Is he coming?
Can John swim?
Will you have finished by lunchtime?
Couldn't you have been a bit quieter?
Has he been working?

2 If the verb group consists of only a main verb, you use the auxiliary 'do', 'does', or 'did' at the beginning of the sentence, before the subject. After the subject you use the base form of the verb.

Do the British take sport seriously?
Does that sound like anyone you know?
Did he go to the fair?

Note that when the main verb is 'do', you still have to add 'do', 'does', or 'did' before the subject.

Do they do the work themselves?
Did you do an 'O' Level in German?

3 If the main verb is 'have', you usually put 'do', 'does', or 'did' before the subject.

Does anyone have a question?
Did you have a good flight?

When 'have' means 'own' or 'possess', you can put it before the subject, without using 'do', 'does', or 'did', but this is less common.

Has he any idea what it's like?

4 If the main verb is the present simple or past simple of 'be', you put the verb at the beginning of the sentence, before the subject.

Are you ready?
Was it lonely without us?

5 When you want someone to give you more information than just 'yes' or 'no', you ask a 'wh'-question, which begins with a 'wh'-word:

what	where	who	whose	
when	which	whom	why	how

Note that 'whom' is only used in formal English.

6 When a 'wh'-word is the subject of a question, the 'wh'-word comes first, then the verb group. You do not add 'do', 'does', or 'did' as an auxiliary.

What happened?
Which is the best restaurant?
Who could have done it?

7 When a 'wh'-word is the object of a verb or preposition, the 'wh'-word comes first, then you follow the rules for 'yes/no'-questions, adding 'do', 'does', or 'did' where necessary.

How many are there?
Which do you like best?

If there is a preposition, it comes at the end. However, you always put the preposition before 'whom'.

What's this for?
With whom were you talking?

Note that you follow the same rules as for 'wh'-words as objects when the question begins with 'when', 'where', 'why', or 'how'.

When would you be coming down?
Why did you do it?
Where did you get that from?

8 You can also use 'what', 'which', 'whose', 'how many', and 'how much' with a noun.

Whose idea was it?
How much money have we got in the bank?

You can use 'which', 'how many', and 'how much' with 'of' and a noun group.

Which of the suggested answers was the correct one?
How many of them bothered to come?

See Unit 6 for more information on 'wh'-words.

Unit 6: 'Wh'-questions

Main points

- You use 'who', 'whom', and 'whose' to ask about people, and 'which' to ask about people or things.
- You use 'what' to ask about things, and 'what for' to ask about reasons and purposes.
- You use 'how' to ask about the way something happens.
- You use 'when' to ask about times, 'why' to ask about reasons, and 'where' to ask about places and directions.

1 You use 'who', 'whom', or 'whose' in questions about people. 'Who' is used to ask questions about the subject or object of the verb, or about the object of a preposition.

Who discovered this?
Who did he marry?
Who did you dance with?

In formal English, 'whom' is used as the object of a verb or preposition. The preposition always comes in front of 'whom'.

Whom did you see?
For whom were they supposed to do it?

You use 'whose' to ask which person something belongs to or is related to. 'Whose' can be the subject or the object.

Whose is nearer?
Whose did you prefer, hers or mine?

2 You use 'which' to ask about one person or thing, out of a number of people or things. 'Which' can be the subject or object.

Which is your son?
Which does she want?

3 You use 'what' to ask about things, for example about actions and events. 'What' can be the subject or object.

What has happened to him?
What is he selling?
What will you talk about?

You use 'what...for' to ask about the reason for an action, or the purpose of an object.

What are you going there for?
What are those lights for?

4 You use 'how' to ask about the way in which something happens or is done.

How did you know we were coming?
How are you going to get home?

You also use 'how' to ask about the way a person or thing feels or looks.

'How are you?' - 'Well, how do I look?'

5 'How' is also used:

- with adjectives to ask about the degree of quality that someone or something has
  How good are you at Maths?
  How hot shall I make the curry?
- with adjectives such as 'big', 'old', and 'far' to ask about size, age, and distance
  How old are your children?
  How far is it to Montreal from here?

Note that you do not normally use 'How small', 'How young', or 'How near'.

- with adverbs such as 'long' and 'often' to ask about time, or 'well' to ask about abilities
  How long have you lived here?
  How well can you read?
- with 'many' and 'much' to ask about the number or amount of something
  How many were there?
  How much did he tell you?

6 You use 'when' to ask about points in time or periods of time, 'why' to ask about the reason for an action, and 'where' to ask about place and direction.

When are you coming home?
When were you in London?
Why are you here?
Where is the station?
Where are you going?

You can also ask about direction using 'which direction...in' or 'which way'.

Which direction did he go in?
Which way did he go?

Unit 7: Question tags: forms

Main points

- You add a question tag to a statement to turn it into a question.
- A question tag consists of a verb and a pronoun. The verb in a question tag is always an auxiliary, a modal, or a form of the main verb 'be'.
- With a positive statement, you usually use a negative question tag containing a short form ending in '-n't'.
- With a negative statement, you always use a positive question tag.

1 A question tag is a short phrase that is added to the end of a statement to turn it into a 'yes/no'-question. You use question tags when you want to ask someone to confirm or disagree with what you are saying, or when you want to sound more polite. Question tags are rarely used in formal written English.

He's very friendly, isn't he?
You haven't seen it before, have you?

2 You form a question tag by using an auxiliary, a modal, or a form of the main verb 'be', followed by a pronoun. The pronoun refers to the subject of the statement.

David's school is quite nice, isn't it?
She made a remarkable recovery, didn't she?

3 If the statement contains an auxiliary or modal, the same auxiliary or modal is used in the question tag.

Jill's coming tomorrow, isn't she?
You didn't know I was an artist, did you?
You've never been to Benidorm, have you?
You will stay in touch, won't you?

4 If the statement does not contain an auxiliary, a modal, or 'be' as a main verb, you use 'do', 'does', or 'did' in the question tag.

You like it here, don't you?
Sally still works there, doesn't she?
He played for Ireland, didn't he?

5 If the statement contains the present simple or past simple of 'be' as a main verb, the same form of the verb 'be' is used in the question tag.

It is quite warm, isn't it?
They were really rude, weren't they?

6 If the statement contains the simple present or simple past of 'have' as a main verb, you usually use 'do', 'does', or 'did' in the question tag.

He has a problem, doesn't he?

You can also use the same form of 'have' in the question tag, but this is not very common.

She has a large house, hasn't she?

7 With a positive statement you normally use a negative question tag, formed by adding '-n't' to the verb.

You like Ralph a lot, don't you?
They are beautiful, aren't they?

Note that the negative question tag with 'I' is 'aren't'.

I'm a fool, aren't I?

8 With a negative statement you always use a positive question tag.

It doesn't work, does it?
You won't tell anyone else, will you?

Unit 8: Question tags: uses

Main points

- You can use negative statements with positive question tags to make requests.
- You use positive statements with positive question tags to show reactions.
- You use some question tags to make imperatives more polite.

1 You can use a negative statement and a positive question tag to ask people for things, or to ask for help or information.

You wouldn't sell it to me, would you?
You won't tell anyone else this, will you?

2 When you want to show your reaction to what someone has just said, for example by expressing interest, surprise, doubt, or anger, you use a positive statement with a positive question tag.

You've been to North America before, have you?
You fell on your back, did you?
I borrowed your car last night. - Oh, you did, did you?

3 When you use an imperative, you can be more polite by adding one of the following question tags.

will you	won't you	would you

See that she gets safely back, won't you?
Look at that, would you?

When you use a negative imperative, you can only use 'will you' as a question tag.

Don't tell Howard, will you?

'Will you' and 'won't you' can also be used to emphasize anger or impatience. 'Can't you' is also used in this way.

Oh, hurry up, will you!
For goodness sake be quiet, can't you!

4 You use the question tag 'shall we' when you make a suggestion using 'let's'.

Let's forget it, shall we?

You use the question tag 'shall I' after 'I'll'.

I'll tell you, shall I?

5 You use 'they' in question tags after 'anybody', 'anyone', 'everybody', 'everyone', 'nobody', 'no one', 'somebody' or 'someone'.

Everyone will be leaving on Friday, won't they?
Nobody had bothered to plant new ones, had they?

You use 'it' in question tags after 'anything', 'everything', 'nothing', or 'something'.

Nothing matters now, does it?
Something should be done, shouldn't it?

You use 'there' in question tags after 'there is', 'there are', 'there was', or 'there were'.

There's a new course out now, isn't there?

6 When you are replying to a question tag, your answer refers to the statement, not the question tag.

If you want to confirm a positive statement, you say 'yes'. For example, if you have finished a piece of work and someone says to you 'You've finished that, haven't you?', the answer is 'yes'.

'It became stronger, didn't it?' - 'Yes, it did.'

If you want to disagree with a positive statement, you say 'no'. For example, if you have not finished your work and someone says 'You've finished that, haven't you?', the answer is 'no'.

You've just seen a performance of the play, haven't you? - No, not yet.

If you want to confirm a negative statement, you say 'no'. For example, if you have not finished your work and someone says 'You haven't finished that, have you?', the answer is 'no'.

'You didn't know that, did you?' - 'No.'

If you want to disagree with a negative statement, you say 'yes'. For example, if you have finished a piece of work and someone says 'You haven't finished that, have you?', the answer is 'yes'.

'You haven't been there, have you?' - 'Yes, I have.'

Unit 9: Indirect questions

Main points

- You use indirect questions to ask for Information or help.
- In indirect questions, the subject of the question comes before the verb.
- You can use 'if' or 'whether' in indirect questions.

1 When you ask someone for information, you can use an indirect question beginning with a phrase such as 'Could you tell me...'or' Do you know...'

Could you tell me how far it is to the bank?
Do you know where Jane is?

2 When you want to ask someone politely to do something, you can use an indirect question after 'I wonder'.

I wonder if you can help me.
I was wondering whether you could give me some information.

You also use 'I wonder' followed by an indirect question to indicate what you are thinking about.

I wonder what she'll look like.
I wonder which hotel it was.
I just wonder what you make of all that.

3 In Indirect questions, the subject of the question comes before the verb, just as it does in affirmative sentences.

Do you know where Jane is?
I wonder if you can help me.

4 You do not normally use the auxiliary 'do' in indirect questions.

Can you remember when they open on Sundays?
I wonder what he feels about it.

The auxiliary 'do' can be used in indirect questions, but only for emphasis, or to make a contrast with something that has already been said. It is not put before the subject as In direct questions.

I was beginning to wonder if he does do anything.
He wondered whether it really did make any difference to the outcome.

5 You use 'if' or 'whether' to introduce indirect questions.

I wonder if you'd give the children a bath?
I'm writing to ask whether you would care to come and visit us.

'Whether' is used especially when there is a choice of possibilities.

I wonder whether it is the police or just a neighbour.
I wonder whether that's good for him or not.

Note that you can put 'or not' immediately after 'whether,' but not immediately after 'if'.

I wonder whether or not we are so different from our ancestors.
Even optimists wonder if property prices can keep on rising.

Unit 10: Short answers

Main points

- A short answer uses an auxiliary, a modal, or the main verb 'be'.
- A short answer can be in the form of a statement or a question.

1 Short answers are very common in spoken English. For example, when someone asks you a 'yes/no'-question, you can give a short answer by using a pronoun with an auxiliary, modal, or the main verb 'be'. You usually put 'yes' or 'no' before the short answer.

'Does she still want to come?' - 'Yes, she does.'

'Can you imagine what it might feel like?' - 'No, I can't.'

'Are you married?' - 'I am.'

Note that a short answer such as 'Yes, I will' is more polite or friendly than just 'Yes', or than repeating all the words used in the question. People often repeat all the words used in the question when they feel angry or impatient.

'Will you have finished by lunchtime?' - 'Yes, I will have finished by lunchtime.'

2 You can also use short answers to agree or disagree with what someone says.

'You don't like Joan?' - 'No, I don't.'

'I'm not coming with you.' - 'Yes, you are.'

If the statement that you are commenting on does not contain an auxiliary, modal, or the main verb 'be', you use a form of 'do' in the short answer.

'He never comes on time.' - 'Oh yes he does.'

3 You often reply to what has been said by using a short question.

'He's not in Japan now.' - 'Oh, isn't he?'

'He gets free meals.' - 'Does he?'

Note that questions like these are not always asked to get information, but are often used to express your reaction to what has been said, for example to show interest or surprise.

'Dad doesn't help me at all.' - 'Doesn't he? Why not?'

'Penny has been climbing before.' - 'Oh, has she? When was that?'

4 If you want to show that you definitely agree with a positive statement that someone has just made, you can use a negative short question.

'Well, that was very nice.' - 'Yes, wasn't it?'

5 When you want to ask for more information, you can use a 'wh'-word on its own or with a noun as a short answer.

'He saw a snake.' - 'Where?'

'He knew my cousin.' - 'Which cousin?'

You can also use 'Which one' and 'Which ones'.

'Can you pass me the cup?' - 'Which one?'

6 Sometimes a statement about one person also applies to another person. When this is the case, you can use a short answer with 'so' for positive statements, and with 'neither' or 'nor' for negative statements, using the same verb that was used in the statement.

You use 'so', 'neither', or 'nor' with an auxiliary, modal, or the main verb 'be'. The verb comes before the subject.

'You were different then.' - 'So were you.'

'I don't normally drink at lunch.' - 'Neither do I.'

'I can't do it.' - 'Nor can I.'

You can use 'not either' instead of 'neither', in which case the verb comes after the subject.

'He doesn't understand.' - 'We don't either.'

7 You often use 'so' in short answers after verbs such as 'think', 'hope', 'expect', 'imagine', and 'suppose', when you think that the answer to the question is 'yes'.

'You'll be home at six?' - 'I hope so.'

'So it was worth doing?' - 'I suppose so.'

You use 'I'm afraid so' when you are sorry that the answer is 'yes'.

'Is it raining?' - 'I'm afraid so.'

With 'suppose', 'think', 'imagine', or 'expect' in short answers, you also form negatives with 'so'.

'Will I see you again?' - 'I don't suppose so.'

'Is Barry Knight a golfer?' - 'No, I don't think so.'

However, you say 'I hope not' and 'I'm afraid not'.

'It isn't empty, is it?' - 'I hope not.'

Unit 11: Sentences with 'not'

Main points

- 'Not' is often shortened to '-n't' and added to some verbs.
- You put 'not' after the first verb in the verb group, or you use a short form.

1 In spoken and in informal written English, 'not' is often shortened to '-n't' and added to an auxiliary, a modal, or a form of the main verb 'be'.

I haven't heard from her recently.
I wasn't angry.

Here is a list of short forms.

isn't	haven't	don't	can't	shan't
daren't	aren't	hasn't	doesn't	couldn't
shouldn't	needn't	wasn't	hadn't	didn't
mightn't	won't	weren't	mustn't	wouldn't
oughtn't				

If the verb is already shortened, you cannot add '-n't'.

It's not easy.
I've not had time.

You cannot add '-n't' to 'am'. You use 'I'm not'.

I'm not excited.

2 If the verb group has more than one word, you put 'not' after the first word, or you use a short form.

I was not smiling.
He hadn't attended many meetings.
They might not notice.
I haven't been playing football recently.

3 If the sentence only contains a main verb other than 'be', you use the auxiliary 'do'.

You use 'do not', 'does not', 'did not', or a short form, followed by the base form of the main verb.

They do not need to talk.
He does not speak English very well.
I didn't know that.

Note that if the main verb is 'do', you still use a form of 'do' as an auxiliary.

They didn't do anything about it.

4 If the main verb is the present or past simple of 'be', you put 'not' immediately after it, or you use a short form.

It is not difficult to understand.
It's not the same, is it?
He wasn't a bad actor actually.

5 If the main verb is 'have', you usually use a form of 'do' as an auxiliary.

They don't have any money.

You can also use a short form, or you can put 'not' after the verb but this is not very common.

He hadn't enough money.

6 You can put 'not' in front of an '-ing' form or a 'to'-infinitive.

We stood there, not knowing what to do.
Try not to worry.

7 In negative questions, you use a short form.

Why didn't she win at the Olympics?
Hasn't he put on weight?
Aren't you bored?

8 You can use a negative question:

- to express your feelings, for example to show that you are surprised or disappointed
  Hasn't he done it yet?
- in exclamations
  Isn't the weather awful!
- when you think you know something and you just want someone to agree with you
  'Aren't you Joanne's brother?' - 'Yes, I am.'

9 Note the meaning of 'yes' and 'no' in answers to negative questions.

'Isn't Tracey going to get a bit bored in Birmingham?'
- 'Yes.' (She is going to get bored.)
- 'No.' (She is not going to get bored.)

Unit 12: Negative words

Main points

- A negative sentence contains a negative word.
- You do not normally use two negative words in the same clause.

1 Negative statements contain a negative word.

not	nobody	neither	never	no one
nor	no	nothing	none	nowhere

See Unit 11 for negative statements using 'not'.

2 You use 'never' to say that something was not the case at any time, or will not be the case at any time.

If the verb group has more than one word, you put 'never' after the first word.

I've never had such a horrible meal.
He could never trust her again.

3 If the only verb in the sentence is the present simple or past simple of any main verb except 'be', you put 'never' before the verb.

She never goes abroad.
He never went to university.

If the only verb in the sentence is the simple present or simple past of the main verb 'be', you normally put 'never' after the verb.

He's never late.
There were never any people in the house.

You can also use 'never' at the beginning of an imperative sentence.

Never walk alone late at night.

4 You use 'no' before a noun to say that something does not exist or is not available.

He has given no reason for his decision.
The island has no trees at all.

Note that if there is another negative word in the clause, you use 'any', not 'no'.

It won't do any good.

5 You use 'none' or 'none of' to say that there is not even one thing or person, or not even a small amount of something.

You can't go to a college here because there are none in this area.
'Where's the coffee?' - 'There's none left.'
None of us understood the play.

See Unit 27 for more information on 'none' and 'none of'.

6 You also use 'nobody', 'no one', 'nothing', and 'nowhere' in negative statements.

You use 'nobody' or 'no one' to talk about people.

Nobody in her house knows any English.
No one knew.

'No one' can also be written 'no-one'.

There's no-one here.

You use 'nothing' to talk about things.

There's nothing you can do.

You use 'nowhere' to talk about places.

There's almost nowhere left to go.

See Unit 21 for more information about these words.

7 You do not normally use two negative words in the same clause. For example, you do not say 'Nobody could see nothing'. You say 'Nobody could see anything'.

You use 'anything', 'anyone', 'anybody', and 'anywhere' instead of 'nothing', 'no one', 'nobody', and 'nowhere' when the clause already contains a negative word.

No-one can find Howard or Barbara anywhere.
I could never discuss anything with them.

8 The only negative words that are often used together in the same clause are 'neither' and 'nor'.

You use 'neither' and 'nor' together to say that two alternatives are not possible, not likely, or not true.

Neither Margaret nor John was there.
They had neither food nor money.

Unit 13: Count nouns

Main points

- Count nouns have two forms, singular and plural.
- They can be used with numbers.
- Singular count nouns always take a determiner.
- Plural count nouns do not need a determiner.
- Singular count nouns take a singular verb and plural count nouns take a plural verb.
- In English, some things are thought of as individual items that can be counted directly. The nouns which refer to these countable things are called count nouns. Most nouns in English are count nouns.

See Unit 15 for information on uncount nouns.

1 Count nouns have two forms. The singular form refers to one thing or person.

...a book... ...the teacher.

The plural form refers to more than one thing or person.

...books... ...some teachers.

2 You add '-s' to form the plural of most nouns.

book → books	school → schools

You add '-es' to nouns ending in '-ss', '-ch', '-s', '-sh', or '-x'.

class → classes	watch → watches
gas → gases	dish → dishes
fox → foxes	

Some nouns ending in '-o' add '-s', and some add '-es'.

photo → photos	piano → pianos
hero → heroes	potato → potatoes

Nouns ending in a consonant and '-y' change to '-ies'.

country → countries	lady → ladies
party →parties	victory → victories

Nouns ending in a vowel and '-y' add an '-s'.

boy → boys	day → days
key → keys	valley → valleys

Some common nouns have irregular plurals.

child → children	foot → feet
man → men	mouse → mice
tooth → teeth	woman → women

WARNING: Some nouns that end in '-s' are uncount nouns, for example 'athletics' and 'physics'. See Unit 15.

3 Count nouns can be used with numbers.

...one table... ...two cats... ...three hundred pounds.

4 Singular count nouns cannot be used alone, but always take a determiner such as 'a', 'another', 'every', or 'the'.

We've killed a pig.
He was eating another apple.
I parked the car over there.

5 Plural count nouns can be used with or without a determiner. They do not take a determiner when they refer to things or people in general.

Does the hotel have large rooms?
The film is not suitable for children.

Plural count nouns do take a determiner when they refer precisely to particular things or people.

Our computers are very expensive.
These cakes are delicious.

See Unit 23 for more information on determiners.

6 When a count noun is the subject of a verb, a singular count noun takes a singular verb.

My son likes playing football.
The address on the letter was wrong.

A plural count noun takes a plural verb.

Bigger cars cost more.
I thought more people were coming.

See also Unit 14 on collective nouns.

Unit 14: Singular and plural

Main points

- Singular nouns are used only in the singular, always with a determiner.
- Plural nouns are used only in the plural, some with a determiner.
- Collective nouns can be used with singular or plural verbs.

1 Some nouns are used in particular meanings in the singular with a determiner, like count nouns, but are not used in the plural with that meaning. They are often called 'singular nouns'.

Some of these nouns are normally used with 'the' because they refer to things that are unique.

air	daytime	moon	sky	country
end	past	sun	countryside	future
sea	wind	dark	ground	seaside
world				

The sun was shining.
I am scared of the dark.

Other singular nouns are normally used with 'a' because they refer to things that we usually talk about one at a time.

bath	go	ride	snooze	chance
jog	run	start	drink	move
shower	walk	fight	rest	smoke
wash				

I went upstairs and had a wash.
Why don't we go outside for a smoke?

2 Some nouns are used in particular meanings in the plural with or without determiners, like count nouns, but are not used in the singular with that meaning. They are often called 'plural nouns'.

His clothes looked terribly dirty.
Troops are being sent in today.

Some of these nouns are always used with determiners.

activities	feelings	pictures	travels	authorities
likes	sights			

I went to the pictures with Tina.
You hurt his feelings.

Some are usually used without determiners.

airs	goods	riches	expenses	refreshments

Refreshments are available inside.
They have agreed to pay for travel and expenses.

WARNING: 'Police' is a plural noun, but does not end in '-s'.

The police were informed immediately.

3 A small group of plural nouns refer to single items that have two linked parts. They refer to tools that people use or things that people wear.

binoculars	glasses	trousers	pincers	jeans
pliers	knickers	scales	pants	scissors
pyjamas	shears	shorts	tweezer	stights

She was wearing brown trousers.
These scissors are sharp.

You can use 'a pair of' to make it clear you are talking about one item, or a number with 'pairs of' when you are talking about several items.

I was sent out to buy a pair of scissors.
Liza had given me three pairs of jeans.

Note that you also use 'a pair of' with words such as 'gloves', 'shoes', and 'socks' that you often talk about in twos.

4 With some nouns that refer to a group of people or things, the same form can be used with singular or plural verbs, because you can think of the group as a unit or as individuals. Similarly, you can use singular or plural pronouns to refer back to them. These nouns are often called 'collective nouns'.

army	audience	committee	company	crew
data	enemy	family	flock	gang
government	group	media	navy	press
public	staff	team		

Our little group is complete again.
The largest group are the boys.
Our family isn't poor any more.
My family are perfectly normal.

The names of many organizations and sports teams are also collective nouns, but are normally used with plural verbs in spoken English.

The BBC is showing the programme on Saturday.
The BBC are planning to use the new satellite.
Liverpool is leading 1-0.
Liverpool are attacking again.

Unit 15: Uncount nouns

Main points

- Uncount nouns have only one form, and take a singular verb.
- They are not used with 'a', or with numbers.
- Some nouns can be both uncount nouns and count nouns.

1 English speakers think that some things cannot be counted directly. The nouns which refer to these uncountable things are called uncount nouns. Uncount nouns often refer to:

substances:	coal food ice iron rice steel water
human qualities:	courage cruelty honesty patience
feelings:	anger happiness joy pride relief respect
activities:	aid help sleep travel work
abstract ideas:	beauty death freedom fun life luck

The donkey needed food and water.
Soon, they lost patience and sent me to Durban.
I was greeted with shouts of joy.
All prices include travel to and from London.
We talked for hours about freedom.

See Unit 13 for information on count nouns.

2 Uncount nouns have only one form. They do not have a plural form.

I needed help with my homework.
The children had great fun playing with the puppets.

WARNING: Some nouns which are uncount nouns in English have plurals in other languages.

advice	baggage	equipment	furniture
homework	information	knowledge	luggage
machinery	money	news	traffic

We want to spend more money on roads.
Soldiers carried so much equipment that they were barely able to move.

3 Some uncount nouns end in '-s' and therefore look like plural count nouns. They usually refer to:

subjects of study:	mathematics physics
activities:	athletics gymnastics
games:	cards darts
illnesses:	measles mumps

Mathematics is too difficult for me.
Measles is in most cases a harmless illness.

4 When an uncount noun is the subject of a verb, it takes a singular verb.

Electricity is dangerous.
Food was very expensive in those days.

5 Uncount nouns are not used with 'a'.

They resent having to pay money to people like me.
My father started work when he was ten.

Uncount nouns are used with 'the' when they refer to something that is specified or known.

I am interested in the education of young children.
She buried the money that Hilary had given her.

6 Uncount nouns are not used with numbers. However, you can often refer to a quantity of something which is expressed by an uncount noun, by using a word like 'some'.

See Unit 23.

Please buy some bread when you go to town.
Let me give you some advice.

Some uncount nouns that refer to food or drink can be count nouns when they refer to quantities of the food or drink.

Do you like coffee? (uncount)
We asked for two coffees. (count)

Uncount nouns are often used with expressions such as 'a loaf of', 'packets of', or 'a piece of', to talk about a quantity or an item. 'A bit of' is common in spoken English.

I bought two loaves of bread yesterday.
He gave me a very good piece of advice.
They own a bit of land near Cambridge.

7 Some nouns are uncount nouns when they refer to something in general and count nouns when they refer to a particular instance of something.

Victory was now assured. (uncount)
In 1960, the party won a convincing victory. (count)

Unit 16: Personal pronouns

Main points

- You use personal pronouns to refer back to something or someone that has already been mentioned.
- You also use personal pronouns to refer to people and things directly.
- There are two sets of personal pronouns: subject pronouns and object pronouns.
- You can use 'you' and 'they' to refer to people in general.

1 When something or someone has already been mentioned, you refer to them again by using a pronoun.

John took the book and opened it.
He rang Mary and invited her to dinner.
'Have you been to London ?' - 'Yes, it was very crowded.'
My father is fat - he weighs over fifteen stone.

In English, 'he' and 'she' normally refer to people, occasionally to animals, but very rarely to things.

2 You use a pronoun to refer directly to people or things that are present or are involved in the situation you are in.

Where shall we meet, Sally?
I do the washing; he does the cooking; we share the washing-up.
Send us a card so we 'll know where you are.

3 There are two sets of personal pronouns, subject pronouns and object pronouns. You use subject pronouns as the subject of a verb.

I	you	he	she
It	we	they	

Note that 'you' is used for the singular and plural form.

We are going there later.
I don't know what to do.

4 You use object pronouns as the direct or indirect object of a verb.

me	you	him	her
it	us	them	

Note that 'you' is used for the singular and plural form.

The nurse washed me with cold water.
The ball hit her in the face.
John showed him the book.
Can you give me some more cake?

Note that, in modern English, you use object pronouns rather than subject pronouns after the verb 'be'.

'Who is it?' - 'It's me.'
There was only John, Baz, and me in the room.

You also use object pronouns as the object of a preposition.

We were all sitting in a cafe with him.
Did you give it to them?

5 You can use 'you' and 'they' to talk about people in general.

You have to drive on the other side of the road on the continent.
They say she's very clever.

6 You can use 'it' as an impersonal subject in general statements which refer to the time, the date, or the weather.

See Unit 17.

'What time is it?' - ' It 's half past three.'
It is January 19th.
It is rainy and cold.

You can also use 'it' as the subject or object in general statements about a situation.

It is too far to walk.
I like it here. Can we stay a bit longer?

7 A singular pronoun usually refers back to a singular noun group, and a plural pronoun to a plural noun group. However, you can use plural pronouns to refer back to:

- indefinite pronouns, even though they are always followed by a singular verb
  If anybody comes, tell them I'm not in.
- collective nouns, even when you have used a singular verb
  His family was waiting in the next room, but they had not yet been informed.

Unit 17: Impersonal subject 'it'

Main points

- You use impersonal 'it' as the subject of a sentence to introduce new information.
- You use 'it' to talk about the time or the date.
- You use 'it' to talk about the weather.
- You use 'it' to express opinions about places, situations, and events.
- 'It' is often used with the passive of reporting verbs to express general beliefs and opinions.

1 'It' is a pronoun. As a personal pronoun it refers back to something that has already been mentioned.

They learn to speak English before they learn to read it.

Maybe he changed his mind, but I doubt it.

You can also use 'it' as the subject of a sentence when it does not refer back to anything that has already been mentioned. This impersonal use of 'it' introduces new information, and is used particularly to talk about times, dates, the weather, and personal opinions.

2 You use impersonal 'it' with a form of 'be' to talk about the time or the date.

It is nearly one o' clock.

It's the sixth of April today.

3 You use impersonal 'it' with verbs which refer to the weather:

drizzle	pour	sleet	thunder
hail	rain	snow	

It's still raining.

It snowed steadily through the night.

It was pouring with rain.

You can describe the weather by using 'it' followed by 'be' and an adjective with or without a noun.

It's a lovely day.

It was very bright.

You can describe a change in the weather by using 'it' followed by 'get' and an adjective.

It was getting cold.

It's getting dark.

4 You use impersonal 'it', followed by a form of 'be' and an adjective or noun group, to express your opinion about a place, a situation, or an event. The adjective or noun group can be followed by an adverbial or by an '-ing' clause, a 'to'-infinitive clause, or a 'that'-clause.

It was terribly cold in the trucks.

It's fun working for him.

It was a pleasure to be there.

It's strange that it hasn't been noticed before.

5 You use 'it' followed by a verb such as 'interest', 'please', 'surprise', or 'upset' which indicates someone's reaction to a fact, situation, or event. The verb is followed by a noun group, and a 'that'-clause or a 'to'-infinitive clause.

It pleases me that he should want to talk about his work.

It surprised him to realize that he hadn't thought about them until now.

6 You can also use 'it' with the passive of a reporting verb and a 'that'-clause when you want to suggest that an opinion or belief is shared by many people. This use is particularly common in news reports, for example in newspapers, on the radio, or on television.

It was said that he could speak their language.

Nowadays it is believed that the size is unimportant.

It is thought that about a million puppies are born each year.

Note that the passive of reporting verbs can also be used without impersonal 'it' to express general opinions.

The factories were said to be much worse.

They are believed to be dangerous.

See Units 76 and 77 for more information on reporting verbs.

Unit 18: Impersonal subject 'there'

Main points

- You use 'there' followed by a form of 'be' and a noun group to introduce new information.
- You use 'there' with a singular or plural verb, depending on whether the following noun is singular or plural.
- You can also use 'there' with modals.

1 'There' is often an adverb of place.

Are you comfortable there?
The book is there on the table.

You can also use 'there' as the impersonal subject of a sentence when it does not refer to a place. In this case you use 'there' to introduce new information and to focus upon it. After 'there' you use a form of 'be' and a noun group.

There is work to be done.
There will be a party tonight.
There was no damage.
There have been two telephone calls.

Note that the impersonal subject 'there' is often pronounced without stress, whereas the adverb is almost always stressed.

2 You use 'there' as the impersonal subject to talk about:

- the existence or presence of someone or something

There are two people who might know what happened.
There are many possibilities.
There is plenty of bread.

- something that happens

There was a general election that year.
There's a meeting every week.
There was a fierce battle.

- a number or amount

There are forty of us, I think.
There is a great deal of anger about his decision.
There were a lot of people camped there.

3 When the noun group after the verb is plural, you use a plural verb.

There are many reasons for this.
There were two men in the room.

You also use a plural verb before phrases such as 'a number (of)', 'a lot (of)', and 'a few (of)'.

There were a lot of people camped there.
There are only a few left.

4 When the noun group after the verb is singular or uncountable, you use a singular verb.

There is one point we must add here.
There isn't enough room in here.

You also use a singular verb when you are mentioning more than one person or thing and the first noun after the verb is singular or uncountable.

There was a man and a woman.
There was a sofa and two chairs.

5 You can also use 'there' with a modal, followed by 'be' or 'have been'.

There could be a problem.
There should be a change in government.
There can't have been anybody outside.
There must have been some mistake.

6 In spoken and informal written English, short forms of 'be' or a modal are normally used after 'there'.

There's no danger.
There'll always be a future for music.
I knew there'd be trouble.
There's been quite a lot of research into it.
I didn't even know there'd been a murder.

7 You can also use 'there' with 'appear' or 'seem', followed by 'to be' or 'to have been'.

There appears to be a vast amount of confusion on this point.
There don't seem to be many people on campus.
There seems to have been some carelessness.

Unit 19: Demonstrative pronouns

Main points

- You use the demonstrative pronouns 'this', 'that', 'these', and 'those' when you are pointing to physical objects or identifying people.
- You use 'one' or 'ones' instead of a noun that has been mentioned or is known.

1 You use the demonstrative pronouns 'this', 'that', 'these', and 'those' when you are pointing to physical objects. 'This' and 'these' refer to things near you, 'that' and 'those' refer to things farther away.

This is a list of rules.

'I brought you these'. Adam held out a bag of grapes.

That looks interesting.

Those are mine.

You can also use 'this', 'that', 'these', and 'those' as determiners in front of nouns.

See Unit 23.

This book was a present from my mother.

When did you buy that hat?

2 You use 'this', 'that', 'these', and 'those' when you are identifying or introducing people, or asking who they are.

Who's this?

These are my children, Susan and Paul.

Was that Patrick on the phone?

3 You use 'this', 'that', 'these', and 'those' to refer back to things that have already been mentioned.

That was an interesting word you used just now.

More money is being pumped into the education system, and we assume this will continue.

'Let's go to the cinema.' - 'That's a good idea.'

These are not easy questions to answer.

You also use 'this' and 'these' to refer forward to things you are going to mention.

This is what I want to say: it wasn't my idea.

These are the topics we will be looking at next week: how the accident happened, whether it could have been avoided, and who was to blame.

This is the important point: you must never see her again.

4 You use 'one' or 'ones' instead of a noun that has already been mentioned or is known in the situation, usually when you are adding information or contrasting two things of the same kind.

My car is the blue one.

Don't you have one with buttons instead of a zip?

Are the new curtains longer than the old ones?

You can use 'which one' or 'which ones' in questions.

Which one do you prefer?

Which ones were damaged?

You can say 'this one', 'that one', 'these ones', and 'those ones'.

I like this one better.

We'll have those ones, thank you.

You can use 'each one' or 'one each', but note that there is a difference in meaning. In the following examples, 'each one' means 'each brother' but 'one each' means 'one for each child'.

I've got three brothers and each one lives in a different country.

I bought the children one each.

5 In formal English, people sometimes use 'one' to refer to people in general.

One has to think of the practical side of things.

One never knows what to say in such situations.

6 There are several other types of pronoun, which are dealt with in other units.

See Unit 22 for information on possessive pronouns.

See Unit 6 for information on 'who', 'whom', 'whose', 'which', and 'what' as interrogative pronouns.

See Units 92 and 93 for information on 'that', 'which', 'who', 'whom', and 'whose' as relative pronouns.

Most determiners, except 'the', 'a', 'an', 'every', 'no', and the possessives, are also pronouns.

See Units 27 to 30.

Unit 20: Reflexive pronouns

Main points

- Reflexive pronouns can be direct or indirect objects.
- Most transitive verbs can take a reflexive pronoun as object.
- Reflexive pronouns can be the object of a preposition.
- Reflexive pronouns can emphasize a noun or pronoun.

1 The reflexive pronouns are:

singular:	myself yourself himself herself itself
plural:	ourselves yourselves themselves

Note that, unlike 'you' and 'your', there are two forms for the second person: 'yourself' in the singular and 'yourselves' in the plural.

2 You use reflexive pronouns as the direct or indirect object of the verb when you want to say that the object is the same person or thing as the subject of the verb in the same clause.

For example, 'John taught himself' means that John did the teaching and was also the person who was taught, and 'Ann poured herself a drink' means that Ann did the pouring and was also the person that the drink was poured for.

She stretched herself out on the sofa.
The men formed themselves into a line.
He should give himself more time.

Note that although the subject 'you' is omitted in imperatives, you can still use 'yourself' or 'yourselves'.

Here's the money, go and buy yourself an ice cream.

3 Most transitive verbs can take a reflexive pronoun.

I blame myself for not paying attention.
He introduced himself to me.

WARNING: Verbs which describe actions that people normally do to themselves do not take reflexive pronouns in English, although they do in some other languages.

I usually shave before breakfast.
She washed very quickly and rushed downstairs.
See Unit 53 for more information.

4 You use a reflexive pronoun as the object of a preposition when the object of the preposition refers to the same person or thing as the subject of the verb in the same clause.

I was thoroughly ashamed of myself.
They are making fools of themselves.
Tell me about yourself.

Note that you use personal pronouns, not reflexive pronouns, when referring to places and after 'with' meaning 'accompanied by'.

You should have your notes in front of you.
He would have to bring Judy with him.

5 You use reflexive pronouns after nouns or pronouns to emphasize the person or thing that you are referring to.

The town itself was so small that it didn't have a bank.
I myself have never read the book.

6 You use a reflexive pronoun at the end of a clause to emphasize that someone did something without any help from anyone else.

She had printed the card herself.
I'll take it down to the police station myself.
Did you make these yourself?

7 You use reflexive pronouns with 'by' to say:

- that someone does something without any help from other people

...when babies start eating their meals by themselves.
She was certain she could manage by herself.

- that someone is alone

He went off to sit by himself.
I was there for about six months by myself.

You can also use 'on my own', 'on your own', and so on, to say that someone is alone or does something without any help.

We were in the park on our own.
They managed to reach the village on their own.

You can use 'all' for emphasis.

Did you put those shelves up all by yourself?
We can't solve this problem all on our own.

WARNING: 'One another' and 'each other' are not reflexive pronouns.

See Unit 54 for more information on 'one another' and 'each other'.

Unit 21: Indefinite pronouns

Main points

- Indefinite pronouns refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are.
- When an indefinite pronoun is the subject, it always takes a singular verb.
- You often use a plural pronoun to refer back to an indefinite pronoun.

1 The indefinite pronouns are:

anybody	everybody	nobody	somebody
anyone	everyone	no one	someone
anything	everything	nothing	something

Note that 'no one' is written as two words, or sometimes with a hyphen: 'no-one'.

2 You use indefinite pronouns when you want to refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are. The pronouns ending in '-body' and '-one' refer to people, and those ending in '-thing' refer to things.

I was there for over an hour before anybody came.
It had to be someone with a car.
Jane said nothing for a moment.

3 When an indefinite pronoun is the subject, it always takes a singular verb, even when it refers to more than one person or thing.

Everyone knows that.
Everything was fine.
Is anybody there?

When you refer back to indefinite pronouns, you use plural pronouns or possessives, and a plural verb.

Ask anyone. They 'll tell you.
Has everyone eaten as much as they want?
You can't tell somebody why they've failed.

WARNING: Some speakers prefer to use singular pronouns. They prefer to say 'You can't tell somebody why he or she has failed'.

4 You can add apostrophe s ('s) to indefinite pronouns that refer to people.

She was given a room in someone's studio.
That was nobody's business but mine.

WARNING: You do not usually add apostrophe s ('s) to indefinite pronouns that refer to things. You do not say 'something's value', you say 'the value of something'.

5 You use indefinite pronouns beginning with 'some-' in:

- affirmative clauses
  Somebody shouted.
  I want to introduce you to someone.
- questions expecting the answer 'yes'
  Would you like something to drink?
  Can you get someone to do it?

6 You use indefinite pronouns beginning with 'any-':

- as the subject or object in statements
  Anyone knows that you need a licence.
  You still haven't told me anything.

You do not use them as the subject of a negative statement. You do not say 'Anybody can't come in'.

- in both affirmative and negative questions
  Does anybody agree with me?
  Won't anyone help me?

7 If you use an indefinite pronoun beginning with 'no-', you must not use another negative word in the same clause. You do not say 'There wasn't nothing'.

There was nothing you could do.
Nobody left, nobody went away.

8 You use the indefinite adverbs 'anywhere', 'everywhere', 'nowhere', and 'somewhere' to talk about places in a general way. 'Nowhere' makes a clause negative.

I thought I'd seen you somewhere.
No-one can find Howard or Barbara anywhere.
There was nowhere to hide.

9 You can use 'else' after indefinite pronouns and adverbs to refer to people, things, or places other than those that have been mentioned.

Everyone else is downstairs.
I don't like it here. Let's go somewhere else.

Unit 22: Possession

Main points

- Possessives and possessive pronouns are used to say that one person or thing belongs to another or is connected with another.
- You use apostrophe s ('s) to say who something belongs to.
- You use phrases with 'of' to say that one person or thing belongs to another or is connected with another.

1 You use possessives to say that a person or thing belongs to another person or thing or is connected with them. The possessives are sometimes called 'possessive adjectives'.

my	your	his	her	its	our	their

Note that 'your' is both singular and plural.

I'd been waiting a long time to park my car.
They took off their shoes.

WARNING: The possessive 'its' is not spelled with an apostrophe. The form 'it's' with an apostrophe is the short form for 'it is' or 'it has'.

2 You put numbers and adjectives after the possessive and in front of the noun.

Their two small children were playing outside.
She got a bicycle on her sixth birthday.

3 You use a possessive pronoun when you want to refer to a person or thing and to say who that person or thing belongs to or is connected with. The possessive pronouns are:

mine	yours	his	hers	ours	theirs

Note that 'yours' is both singular and plural.

Is that coffee yours or mine ?
It was his fault, not theirs.

WARNING: There is no possessive pronoun 'its'.

4 You can also say who or what something belongs to or is connected with by using a noun with apostrophe s ('s). For example, if John owns a motorbike, you can refer to it as 'John's motorbike'.

Sylvia put her hand on John's arm.
I like the car's design.

You add apostrophe s ('s) to singular nouns and irregular plural nouns, usually referring to people rather than things.

I wore a pair of my sister's boots.
Children's birthday parties can be boring.

With plural nouns ending in '-s' you only add the apostrophe (').

It is not his parents' problem.

You add apostrophe s ('s) to people's names, even when they end in '-s'.

Could you give me Charles's address?

Note that when you use two or more names linked by 'and', you put the apostrophe s ('s) after the last name.

They have bought Sue and Tim's car.

5 When you want to refer to someone's home, or to some common shops and places of work, you can use apostrophe s ('s) after a name or noun on its own.

He's round at David's.
He bought it at the chemist's.
She must go to the doctor's.

6 You can also use apostrophe s ('s) with some expressions of time to identify something, or to say how much time is involved.

Did you see the cartoon in yesterday's newspaper?
They have four weeks' holiday per year.

7 You can use a prepositional phrase beginning with 'of' to say that one person or thing belongs to or is connected with another.

She is the mother of the boy who lives next door.
Ellen aimlessly turned the pages of her magazine.

After 'of' you can use a possessive pronoun, or a noun or name with apostrophe s ('s).

He was an old friend of mine.
That word was a favourite of your father's.
She's a friend of Stephen's.

8 You can add 'own' after a possessive, or a noun or name with apostrophe s ('s), for emphasis.

My own view is that there are no serious problems.
The professor's own answer may be unacceptable.

Unit 23: Determiners

Main points

- Determiners are used at the beginning of noun groups.
- You use specific determiners when people know exactly which things or people you are talking about.
- You use general determiners to talk about people or things without saying exactly who or what they are.

1 When you use a determiner, you put it at the beginning of a noun group, in front of numbers or adjectives.

I met the two Swedish girls in London.
Our main bedroom is through there.
Have you got another red card?
Several young boys were waiting.

2 When the people or things that you are talking about have already been mentioned, or the people you are talking to know exactly which ones you mean, you use a specific determiner.

The man began to run towards the boy.
Young people don't like these operas.
Her face was very red.

The specific determiners are:

the definite article:	the
demonstratives:	this that these those
possessives:	my your his her its our their

Note that 'your' is used both for the singular and plural possessive.

See Unit 19 for 'this', 'that', 'these', and 'those' as pronouns.

3 When you are mentioning people or things for the first time, or talking about them generally without saying exactly which ones you mean, you use a general determiner.

There was a man in the lift.
We went to an art exhibition.
You can stop at any time you like.
There were several reasons for this.

The general determiners are:

a	all	an	another	any
both	each	either	enough	every
few	fewer	less	little	many
more	most	much	neither	no
other	several	some		

4 Each general determiner is used with particular types of noun, such as:

- singular count nouns

a	an	another	any	each
either	every	neither	no	

I got a postcard from Susan.
Any big tin container will do.
He opened another shop .

- plural count nouns

all	enough	many	no	some
any	few	more	other	both
fewer	most	several		

There were few doctors available.
He spoke many different languages.
Several projects were postponed.

- uncount nouns

all	any	enough	less	little
more	most	much	no	some

There was little applause.
We need more information
He did not speak much English.

WARNING: The following general determiners can never be used with uncount nouns.

a	an	another	both	each
either	every	few	many	
neither	several			

5 Most of the determiners are also pronouns, except 'the', 'a', 'an', 'every', 'no' and the possessives.

I saw several in the woods last night.
Have you got any that I could borrow?
There is enough for all of us.

You use 'one' as a pronoun instead of 'a' or 'an', 'none' instead of 'no', and 'each' instead of 'every'.

Have you got one?
There are none left.
Each has a separate box and number.

Unit 24: Main uses of 'the'

Main points

- You can use 'the' in front of any noun.
- You use 'the' when the person you are talking to knows which person or thing you mean.
- You use 'the' when you are referring back to someone or something.
- You use 'the' when you are specifying which person or thing you are talking about.
- You use 'the' when you are referring to something that is unique.
- You use 'the' when you want to use one thing as an example to say something about all things of the same type.

1 'The' is called the definite article, and is the commonest determiner. You use 'the' when the person you are talking to knows which person or thing you mean. You can use 'the' in front of any noun, whether it is a singular count noun, an uncount noun, or a plural count noun.

She dropped the can.
I remembered the fun I had with them.
The girls were not at home.

2 You use 'the' with a noun when you are referring back to someone or something that has already been mentioned.

I called for a waiter... ...The waiter with a moustache came.

I have bought a house in Wales... ...The house is in an agricultural area.

3 You use 'the' with a noun and a qualifier, such as a prepositional phrase or a relative clause, when you are specifying which person or thing you are talking about.

I've no idea about the geography of Scotland.

The book that I recommended now costs over three pounds.

4 You use 'the' with a noun when you are referring to something of which there is only one in the world.

They all sat in the sun.
We have landed men on the moon.
The sky was a brilliant blue.

You also use 'the' when you are referring to something of which there is only one in a particular place.

Mrs Robertson heard that the church had been bombed.

He decided to put some words on the blackboard.

5 You can use 'the' with a singular count noun when you want to make a general statement about all things of that type. For example, if you say 'The whale is the largest mammal in the world', you mean all whales, not one particular whale.

The computer allows us to deal with a lot of data very quickly.

My father's favourite flower is the rose.

6 You can use 'the' with a singular count noun when you are referring to a system or service. For example, you can use 'the phone' to refer to a telephone system and 'the bus' to refer to a bus service.

I don't like using the phone.
How long does it take on the train?

7 You can use 'the' with the name of a musical instrument when you are talking about someone's ability to play the instrument.

'You play the guitar, I see,' said Simon.
Geoff plays the piano very well.

Unit 25: Other uses of 'the'

Main points

- You do not normally use 'the' with proper nouns referring to people. You do use 'the' with many proper nouns referring to geographical places.
- You use 'the' with some adjectives to talk about groups of people.

1 You do not normally use 'the' with proper nouns that are people's names. However, if you are talking about a family, you can say 'the Browns'.

You use 'the' with some titles, such as 'the Queen of England', and with the names of some organizations, buildings, newspapers, and works of art.

...the United Nations... ...the Taj Mahal...
...the Times... ...the Mona Lisa.

2 You do use 'the' with some proper nouns referring to geographical places.

...the Bay of Biscay... ...the Suez Canal.
...the Arabian Gulf... ...the Pacific Ocean.

You use 'the' with countries whose names include words such as 'kingdom', 'republic', 'states', or 'union'.

...the United Kingdom... ...the Soviet Union.

You use 'the' with countries that have plural nouns as their names.

...the Netherlands... ...the Philippines.

Note that you do not use 'the' with countries that have singular nouns as their names, such as 'China', 'Italy', or 'Turkey'.

You use 'the' with names of mountain ranges and groups of islands.

...the Alps... ...the Himalayas.
...the Bahamas... ...the Canaries.

Note that you do not use 'the' with the names of individual mountains such as 'Everest' or 'Etna', or the names of individual islands such as 'Sicily', 'Minorca', or 'Bali'.

You use 'the' with regions of the world, or regions of a country that include 'north', 'south', 'east', or 'west'.

...the Middle East... ...the Far East.
...the north of England... ...the west of Ireland.

Note that there are some exceptions.

...North America... ...South-East Asia.

You do not use 'the' with 'northern', 'southern', 'eastern', or 'western' and a singular name.

...northern England... ...western Africa.

You use 'the' with the names of areas of water such as seas, oceans, rivers, canals, gulfs, and straits.

...the Mediterranean Sea... ...the Atlantic Ocean.
...the river Ganges... ...the Panama Canal.
...the Gulf of Mexico... ...the straits of Gibraltar.

Note that you do not use 'the' with lakes.

...Lake Geneva... ...Lake Superior.

Note that you do not use 'the' with continents, cities, streets, or addresses.

...Asia... ...Tokyo.
...Oxford Street... ...15 Park Street.

3 You use 'the' with adjectives such as 'rich', 'poor', 'young', 'old', and 'unemployed' to talk about a general group of people. You do not need a noun.

Only the rich could afford his firm's products.
They were discussing the problem of the unemployed.

When you use 'the' with an adjective as the subject of a verb, you use a plural verb.

In the cities the poor are as badly off as they were in the villages.

4 You use 'the' with some nationality adjectives to talk about the people who live in a country.

They will be increasingly dependent on the support of the French.
The Spanish claimed that the money had not been paid.

With other nationalities, you use a plural noun.

...Germans... ...the Americans.

When you use 'the' with a nationality adjective as the subject of a verb, you use a plural verb.

The British are worried.

5 You use 'the' with superlatives.

He was the cleverest man I ever knew.
He was the youngest.
His shoulders hurt the worst.
It was the most exciting summer of their lives.

Unit 26: 'A' and 'an'

Main points

- You only use 'a' or 'an' with singular count nouns.
- You use 'a' or 'an' to talk about a person or thing for the first time.

1 You only use 'a' or 'an' with singular count nouns. 'A' and 'an' are called the indefinite article.

I got a postcard from Susan.
He was eating an apple.

Remember that you use 'a' in front of a word that begins with a consonant sound even if the first letter is a vowel, for example 'a piece, a university, a European language'. You use 'an' in front of a word that begins with a vowel sound even if the first letter is a consonant, for example 'an exercise, an idea, an honest man'.

2 You use 'a' or 'an' when you are talking about a person or thing for the first time.

She picked up a book.
After weeks of looking, we eventually bought a house.
A colleague and I got some money to do research on rats.

Note that the second time you refer to the same person or thing, you use 'the'.

She picked up a book... ...The book was lying on the table.
After weeks of looking, we bought a house... ...The house was in a village.

3 After the verb 'be' or another link verb, you can use 'a' or 'an' with an adjective and a noun to give more information about someone or something.

His brother was a sensitive child.
He seemed a worried man.
It was a really beautiful house.

You can also use 'a' or 'an' with a noun followed by a qualifier, such as a prepositional phrase or a relative clause, when you want to give more information about someone or something.

The information was contained in an article on biology.
I chose a picture that reminded me of my own country.

4 You use 'a' or 'an' after the verb 'be' or another link verb when you are saying what someone is or what job they have.

He became a school teacher.
She is a model and an artist.

5 You use 'a' or 'an' to mean 'one' with some numbers. You can use 'a' or 'an' with nouns that refer to whole numbers, fractions, money, weights, or measures.

a hundred	a thousand	a quarter	a half
a pound	a dollar	a kilo	a litre

6 You do not use 'a' or 'an' with uncount nouns or plural count nouns. You do not need to use a determiner at all with plural count nouns, but you can use the determiners 'any', 'a few', 'many', 'several', or 'some'.

I love dogs.
Do you have any dogs?
Many adults don't listen to children.
I have some children like that in my class.

Note that if you do not use a determiner with a plural count noun, you are often making a general statement about people or things of that type. For example, if you say 'I love dogs', you mean all dogs. However, if you say 'There are eggs in the kitchen', you mean there are some eggs. If you do use a determiner, you mean a number of people or things but not all of them, without saying exactly how many.

I have some friends coming for dinner.
He has bought some plants for the house.
I have some important things to tell them.

Unit 27: All, most, no, none

Main points

- You use ‘all’ with plural count nouns and uncount nouns. You use ‘all’ to talk about every person or thing in the world, or in the group you are talking about.
- You use ‘most’ with plural count nouns and uncount nouns. You use ‘most’ to talk about nearly all of a number of people or things, or nearly all of a quantity of something.
- You use ‘no’ with singular and plural count nouns and uncount nouns. You use ‘no’ to say that something does not exist or is not present.

1 You use ‘all’ with plural count nouns and uncount nouns to talk about every person or thing in the world or in the group that you are talking about.

All children should complete the primary course.
All important decisions were taken by the government.
He soon lost all hope of becoming a rock star.
All luggage will be searched.

2 You use ‘most’ with plural count nouns and uncount nouns to talk about nearly all of a number of people or things, or nearly all of a quantity of something.

The method was suitable for most purposes.
Most good drivers stop at zebra crossings.
Most milk is still delivered to people’s houses.
He ignored most advice, and did what he thought best.

3 You use ‘no’ with singular count nouns, plural count nouns, and uncount nouns to say that something does not exist or is not present.

There was no chair for me to sit on.
They had no immediate plans to change house.
No money was available for the operation.

Note that if there is another word in the clause that makes it negative, you use ‘any’, not ‘no’.

It hasn’t made any difference.
He will never do any work for me again.

4 ‘All’ and ‘most’ are also pronouns, so you can say ‘all of’ and ‘most of’. ‘No’ is not a pronoun, so you must say ‘none of’.

He spent all of the money on a new car.
Most of my friends live in London.
None of those farmers had ever driven a tractor.

Note that you use ‘all of’, ‘most of’, and ‘none of’ with an object pronoun.

All of us were sleeping.
I had seen most of them before.
None of them came to the party.

Note that if the clause is already negative, you use ‘any of’, not ‘none of’.

I hadn’t eaten any of the biscuits.

When ‘none of’ is followed by a plural count noun or pronoun, the verb is usually plural, but can be singular.

None of us are the same.
None of them has lasted very long.

5 You can use ‘all the’ with a plural count noun or an uncount noun. There is no difference in meaning between ‘all the’ and ‘all of the’.

All the girls think it’s great.
All the best jokes came at the end of the programme.
Thank you for all the help you gave me.

WARNING: You cannot say ‘most the’ or ‘none the’. You must say ‘most of the’ or ‘none of the’.

6 You can use ‘all’ after a noun or pronoun to emphasize that the noun or pronoun refers to everyone or everything that has been mentioned or is involved. Note that you can use ‘all’ to emphasize the subject or the object.

The band all live together in the same house.
I enjoyed it all.

Unit 28: Both, either, neither

Main points

- You use 'both', 'either', and 'neither' to talk about two people or things that have been mentioned or are known to the hearer.
- You use 'both' with plural nouns, and 'either' and 'neither' with singular nouns.
- You use 'both of', 'either of', and 'neither of' with plural nouns or pronouns.

1 You use 'both', 'either', and 'neither' when you are saying something about two people or things that have been mentioned, or are known to the person you are talking to.

There were excellent performances from both actresses.

Denis held his cocoa in both hands.

No argument could move either man from this decision.

Neither report mentioned the Americans.

2 You use 'both' when you think of the two people or things as a group. You use 'both' with a plural noun.

Both children were happy with their presents.

Both policies make good sense.

3 You use 'either' when you think of the two people or things as individuals. You use 'either' with a singular noun.

Either way is acceptable.

She could not see either man.

4 You use 'neither' when you are thinking of the two people or things as individuals and you are making a negative statement about them. You use 'neither' with a singular noun.

In reality, neither party was enthusiastic.

Neither man knew what he was doing.

5 You can use 'both' with a specific determiner such as 'the', 'these', or 'my'.

Both the young men agreed to come.

Both these books have been recommended to us.

Both her parents were dead.

WARNING: You cannot use 'either' or 'neither' with a specific determiner.

6 You can use 'both of', 'either of', or 'neither of' with a plural noun or pronoun. Note that when 'both of', 'either of', and 'neither of' are followed by a noun rather than a pronoun, you must use a specific determiner such as 'the', 'these', or 'her' before the noun.

Both of these restaurants are excellent.

Either of them could have done the job.

Neither of our boys was involved.

Note that 'neither of' is normally used with a singular verb but it can be used with a plural verb.

Neither of us was having any luck.

Neither of the children were there.

7 Remember that you can also use 'both', 'either', and 'neither' as conjunctions. You use 'both...and' to give two alternatives and say that each of them is possible or true.

I am looking for opportunities both in this country and abroad.

Both I and my wife were surprised to see you there.

You use 'either...or' to give two alternatives and say that only one of them is possible or true.

You can have either fruit or ice cream.

I was expecting you either today or tomorrow.

You either love him or hate him.

You also use 'neither...nor' to give two alternatives and say that each of them is not possible or is not true.

Neither Margaret nor John was there.

He did it neither quickly nor well.

Unit 29: Quantity 1

Main points

- You use 'much' and 'little' with uncount nouns to talk about a quantity of something.
- You use 'many' and 'few' with plural nouns to talk about a number of people or things.
- You use 'much' in negative sentences and questions, and 'a lot of' or 'plenty of' rather than 'much' in affirmative sentences.
- You use 'more' and 'less' with uncount nouns, and 'more' and 'fewer' with plural count nouns.

1 You use 'much' to talk about a large quantity of something, and 'little' to talk about a small quantity of something. You only use 'much' and 'little' with uncount nouns.

I haven't got much time.
We've made little progress.

2 You use 'many' to talk about a large number of people or things, and 'few' to talk about a small number of people or things. You can only use 'many' and 'few' with plural count nouns.

He wrote many novels.
There were few visitors to our house.

3 You normally use 'much' in negative sentences and questions.

He did not speak much English.
Why haven't I given much attention to this problem?

In affirmative sentences you do not use 'much', you use 'a lot of', 'lots of', or 'plenty of' instead. You can use them with both uncount nouns and plural nouns.

He demanded a lot of attention.
I make a lot of mistakes.
They spent lots of time on the project.
He remembered a large room with lots of windows.
I've got plenty of money.
There are always plenty of jobs to be done.

Note that you can use 'so much' and 'too much' in affirmative sentences.

She spends so much time here.
There is too much chance of error.

4 You use 'so much' to emphasize that a large quantity of something is involved.

I have so much work to do.
They have so much money and we have so little.

You use 'too much' and 'too many' to say that the quantity of something, or the number of people or things, is larger than is reasonable or necessary.

He has too much work.
Too many people still smoke.

You use 'very many' to emphasize that a large number of people or things are involved.

Very many old people live alone.

Note that 'very much' is used with nouns and verbs.

There isn't very much time.
I liked it very much.

5 You use 'few' and 'little' to emphasize that only a small quantity of something or a small number of people or things are involved. They can be used with 'very' for greater emphasis.

The town has few monuments.
I have little time for anything but work.
Very few cars had reversing lights.
I had very little money left.

Note that 'a few' and 'a little' just indicate that a quantity or number is small.

He spread a little honey on a slice of bread.
I usually do a few jobs for him in the house.

6 You use 'more' with uncount nouns and plural count nouns to refer to a quantity of something or a number of people or things that is greater than another quantity or number.

His visit might do more harm than good.
He does more hours than I do.

You use 'less' with uncount nouns to refer to an amount of something that is smaller than another amount.

The poor have less access to education.
This machinery uses less energy.

You use 'fewer', or 'less' in informal English, with plural nouns to refer to a number of people or things that is smaller than another number.

There are fewer trees here.
They have sold less computers this year.

Unit 30: Quantity 2

Main points

- You use 'some' to talk about a quantity or number without being precise.
- You use 'any' to talk about a quantity or number that may or may not exist.
- You use 'another', or 'another' and a number, to talk about additional people or things.
- You use 'each' and 'every' to talk about all the members of a group of people or things.

1 You use 'some' with uncount nouns and plural nouns to talk about a quantity of something or a number of people or things without being precise.

I have left some food for you in the fridge.
Some trains are running late.

You normally use 'some' in affirmative sentences.

There's some chocolate cake over there.
I had some good ideas.

You use 'some' in questions when you expect the answer to be 'yes', for example in offers or requests.

Would you like some coffee?
Could you give me some examples?

You can use 'some' with a singular noun when you do not know which person or thing is involved, or you think it does not matter.

Some man phoned, but didn't leave his number.
Is there some problem?

2 You use 'any' in front of plural and uncount nouns to talk about a quantity of something that may or may not exist. You normally use 'any' in questions and negative sentences.

Are there any jobs men can do but women can't?
It hasn't made any difference.

You use 'any' with a singular noun to emphasize that it does not matter which person or thing is involved.

Any container will do.

You can use 'no' with an affirmative verb instead of 'not any'.

There weren't any tomatoes left.
There were no tomatoes left.

You can also use 'not' and 'any', or 'no', with a comparative.

Her house wasn't any better than ours.
Her house was no better than ours.

3 You use 'another' with singular nouns to talk about an additional person or thing.

Could I have another cup of coffee?
He opened another shop last month.

You can also use 'another' with a number and a plural noun to talk about more people or things.

Another four years passed before we met again.
I've got another three books to read.

You use 'other' with plural nouns and 'the other' with singular or plural nouns.

I've got other things to think about.
The other man has gone.
The other European countries have a beaten us.

4 You use 'each' or 'every' with a singular noun to talk about all the members of a group of people or things. You use 'each' when you are thinking about the members as individuals, and 'every' when you are making a general statement about all of them.

Each county is subdivided into several districts.
Each applicant has five choices.
Every child would have milk every day.
She spoke to every person at that party.

You can modify 'every' but not 'each'.

He spoke to them nearly every day.
We went out almost every evening.

5 You can use 'some of', 'any of', or 'each of', and a noun group to talk about a number of people or things in a group of people or things.

Some of the information has already been analysed.
It was more expensive than any of the other magazines.
He gave each of us advice about our present goals.

You can use 'each of' and a plural noun group but 'every' must be followed by 'one of'.

Each of the drawings is different.
Every one of them is given a financial target.

Note that you can also use 'each' with 'one of'.

This view of poverty influences each one of us.

Unit 31: Position of adjectives

Main points

- There are two main positions for adjectives: in front of a noun, or as the complement of a link verb.
- Most adjectives can be used in either of these positions, but some adjectives can only be used in one.

1 Most adjectives can be used in a noun group, after determiners and numbers if there are any, in front of the noun.

He had a beautiful smile.
She bought a loaf of white bread.
There was no clear evidence.

2 Most adjectives can also be used after a link verb such as 'be', 'become', or 'feel'.

I'm cold.
I felt angry.
Nobody seemed amused.

3 Some adjectives are normally used only after a link verb.

afraid	alive	alone	asleep	aware
content	due	glad	ill	ready
sorry	sure	unable	well	

For example, you can say 'She was glad', but you do not talk about 'a glad woman'.

I wanted to be alone.
We were getting ready for bed.
I'm not quite sure.
He didn't know whether to feel glad or sorry.

4 Some adjectives are normally used only in front of a noun.

eastern	atomic	indoor	occasional
northern	countless	introductory	outdoor
southern	digital	maximum	western
existing	neighbouring		

For example, you talk about 'an atomic bomb', but you do not say 'The bomb was atomic'.

He sent countless letters to the newspapers.
This book includes a good introductory chapter on forests.

5 When you use an adjective to emphasize a strong feeling or opinion, it always comes in front of a noun.

absolute	complete	entire	outright
perfect	positive	pure	real
total	true	utter	

Some of it was absolute rubbish.
He made me feel like a complete idiot.

6 Some adjectives that describe size or age can come after a noun group consisting of a number or determiner and a noun that indicates the unit of measurement.

deep	long	tall	wide
high	old	thick	

He was about six feet tall.
The water was several metres deep.
The baby is nine months old.

Note that you do not say 'two pounds heavy', you say 'two pounds in weight'.

7 A few adjectives are used alone after a noun.

designate	elect	galore	incarnate

She was now the president elect.
There are empty houses galore.

8 A few adjectives have a different meaning depending on whether they come in front of or after a noun.

concerned	involved	present	proper	responsible

For example, 'the concerned mother' means a mother who is worried, but 'the mother concerned' means the mother who has been mentioned.

It's one of those incredibly involved stories.
The people involved are all doctors.
I'm worried about the present situation.
Of the 18 people present, I knew only one.
Her parents were trying to act in a responsible manner.
We do not know the person responsible for his death.

Unit 32: Order of adjectives

Main points

- You put opinion adjectives in front of descriptive adjectives.
- You put general opinion adjectives in front of specific opinion adjectives.
- You can sometimes vary the order of adjectives.
- If you use two or more descriptive adjectives, you put them in a particular order.
- If you use a noun in front of another noun, you put any adjectives in front of the first noun.

1 You often want to add more information to a noun than you can with one adjective. In theory, you can use the adjectives in any order, depending on the quality you want to emphasize. In practice, however, there is a normal order.

When you use two or more adjectives in front of a noun, you usually put an adjective that expresses your opinion in front of an adjective that just describes something.

You live in a nice big house.
He is a naughty little boy.
She was wearing a beautiful pink suit.

2 When you use more than one adjective to express your opinion, an adjective with a more general meaning such as 'good', 'bad', 'nice', or 'lovely' usually comes before an adjective with a more specific meaning such as 'comfortable', 'clean', or 'dirty'.

I sat in a lovely comfortable armchair in the corner.

He put on a nice clean shirt.

3 You can use adjectives to describe various qualities of people or things. For example, you might want to indicate their size, their shape, or the country they come from.

Descriptive adjectives belong to six main types, but you are unlikely ever to use all six types in the same noun group. If you did, you would normally put them in the following order:

size	age	shape	colour	nationality	material

This means that if you want to use an 'age' adjective and a 'nationality' adjective, you put the 'age' adjective first.

We met some young Chinese girls.

Similarly, a 'shape' adjective normally comes before a 'colour' adjective.

He had round black eyes.

Other combinations of adjectives follow the same order. Note that 'material' means any substance, not only cloth.

There was a large round wooden table in the room.

The man was carrying a small black plastic bag.

4 You usually put comparative and superlative adjectives in front of other adjectives.

Some of the better English actors have gone to live in Hollywood.

These are the highest monthly figures on record.

5 When you use a noun in front of another noun, you never put adjectives between them. You put any adjectives in front of the first noun.

He works in the French film industry.
He receives a large weekly cash payment.

6 When you use two adjectives as the complement of a link verb, you use a conjunction such as 'and' to link them. With three or more adjectives, you link the last two with a conjunction, and put commas after the others.

The day was hot and dusty.
The room was large but square.
The house was old, damp and smelly.
We felt hot, tired and thirsty.

Unit 33: Adjective + 'to' or 'that'

Main points

- Adjectives used after link verbs are often followed by 'to'-infinitive clauses or 'that'-clauses.
- Some adjectives are always followed by 'to'-infinitive clauses.
- You often use 'to'-infinitive clauses or 'that'-clauses after adjectives to express feelings or opinions.
- You often use 'to'-infinitive clauses after adjectives when the subject is impersonal 'it'.

1 After link verbs, you often use adjectives that describe how someone feels about an action or situation. With some adjectives, you can add a 'to'-infinitive clause or a 'that'-clause to say what the action or situation is.

afraid	anxious	ashamed	disappointed
frightened	glad	happy	pleased
proud	sad	surprised	unhappy

If the subject is the same in both clauses, you usually use a 'to'-infinitive clause. If the subject is different, you must use a 'that'-clause.

I was happy to see them again.
He was happy that they were coming to the party.

You often use a 'to'-infinitive clause when talking about future time in relation to the main clause.

I am afraid to go home.
He was anxious to leave before it got dark.

You often use a 'that'-clause when talking about present or past time in relation to the main clause.

He was anxious that the passport was missing.
They were afraid that I might have talked to the police.

2 You often use 'sorry' with a 'that'-clause. Note that 'that' is often omitted.

I'm very sorry that I can't join you.
I'm sorry I'm so late.

3 Some adjectives are not usually used alone, but have a 'to'-infinitive clause after them to say what action or situation the adjective relates to.

able	apt	bound	due
inclined	liable	likely	prepared
ready	unlikely	unwilling	willing

They were unable to help her.
They were not likely to forget it.
I am willing to try.
I'm prepared to say I was wrong.

4 When you want to express an opinion about someone or something, you often use an adjective followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause.

difficult	easy	impossible	possible	right	wrong

She had been easy to deceive.
The windows will be almost impossible to open.
Am I wrong to stay here?

Note that in the first two examples, the subject of the main clause is the object of the 'to'-infinitive clause. In the third example, the subject is the same in both clauses.

5 With some adjectives, you use a 'that'-clause to express an opinion about someone or something.

awful	bad	essential	extraordinary
funny	good	important	interesting
obvious	sad	true	

I was sad that people had reacted in this way.
It is extraordinary that we should ever have met!

6 You can also use adjectives with 'to'-infinitive clauses after 'it' as the impersonal subject. You use the preposition 'of' or 'for' to indicate the person or thing that the adjective relates to.

It was easy to find the path.
It was good of John to help me.
It was difficult for her to find a job.

See Unit 17 for 'it' as impersonal subject.

See Unit 47 for more information about adjectives followed by 'of' or 'for'.

Unit 34: '-ing' and '-ed' adjectives

Main points

- Many adjectives ending in '-ing' describe the effect that something has on someone's feelings.
- Some adjectives ending in '-ing' describe a process or state that continues over a period of time.
- Many adjectives ending in '-ed' describe people's feelings.

1 You use many '-ing' adjectives to describe the effect that something has on your feelings, or on the feelings of people in general. For example, if you talk about 'a surprising number', you mean that the number surprises you.

alarming	charming	embarrassing	surprising
amazing	confusing	exciting	terrifying
annoying	convincing	frightening	tiring
astonishing	depressing	interesting	worrying
boring	disappointing	shocking	welcoming

He lives in a charming house just outside the town.

She always has a warm welcoming smile.

Most '-ing' adjectives have a related transitive verb. See Unit 51 for information on transitive verbs.

2 You use some '-ing' adjectives to describe something that continues over a period of time.

ageing	decreasing	existing	living
booming	dying	increasing	remaining

Britain is an ageing society.

Increasing prices are making food very expensive.

These adjectives have related intransitive verbs. See Unit 51 for information on intransitive verbs.

3 Many '-ed' adjectives describe people's feelings. They have the same form as the past participle of a transitive verb and have a passive meaning. For example, 'a frightened person' is a person who has been frightened by something.

alarmed	delighted	frightened	surprised
amused	depressed	interested	tired
astonished	disappointed	satisfied	worried
bored	excited	shocked	

She looks alarmed about something.

A bored student complained to his teacher.

She had big blue frightened eyes.

Note that the past participles of irregular verbs do not end in '-ed', but can be used as adjectives. See pages 216-217 for a list of irregular past participles.

The bird had a broken wing.

His coat was dirty and torn.

4 Like other adjectives, '-ing' and '-ed' adjectives can be:

- used in front of a noun
  They still show amazing loyalty to their parents.
  This is the most terrifying tale ever written.
  I was thanked by the satisfied customer.
  The worried authorities cancelled the match.
- used after link verbs
  It's amazing what they can do.
  The present situation is terrifying.
  He felt satisfied with all the work he had done.
  My husband was worried.
- modified by adverbials such as 'quite', 'really', and 'very'
  The film was quite boring.
  There is nothing very surprising in this.
  She was quite astonished at his behaviour.
  He was a very disappointed young man.
- used in the comparative and superlative
  His argument was more convincing than mine.
  He became even more depressed after she died.
  This is one of the most boring books I've ever read.
  She was the most interested in going to the cinema.

5 A small number of '-ed' adjectives are normally only used after link verbs such as 'be', 'become', or 'feel'. They are related to transitive verbs, and are often followed by a prepositional phrase, a 'to'-infinitive clause, or a 'that'-clause.

convinced	interested	prepared	tired
delighted	involved	scared	touched
finished	pleased	thrilled	

The Brazilians are pleased with the results.

He was always prepared to account for his actions.

She was scared that they would find her.

Unit 35: Comparison: basic forms

Main points

- You add '-er' for the comparative and '-est' for the superlative of one-syllable adjectives and adverbs.
- You use '-er' and '-est' with some two-syllable adjectives.
- You use 'more' for the comparative and 'most' for the superlative of most two-syllable adjectives, all longer adjectives, and adverbs ending in '-ly'.
- Some common adjectives and adverbs have irregular forms.

1 You add '-er' for the comparative form and '-est' for the superlative form of one-syllable adjectives and adverbs. If they end in '-e', you add '-r' and '-st'.

cheap	→	cheaper	→ cheapest
safe	→	safer	→ safest

close	cold	fast	hard	large
light	nice	poor	quick	rough
small	weak	wide	young	

They worked harder.
I've found a nicer hotel.

If they end in a single vowel and consonant (except '-w'), double the consonant.

big	→ bigger	→ biggest

fat	hot	sad	thin	wet

The day grew hotter.
Henry was the biggest of them.

2 With two-syllable adjectives and adverbs ending in a consonant and '-y', you change the '-y' to '-i' and add '-er' and '-est'.

happy	→ happier	→	happiest

angry	busy	dirty	easy	friendly
funny	heavy	lucky	silly	tiny

It couldn't be easier.
That is the funniest bit of the film.

3 You use 'more' for the comparative and 'most' for the superlative of most two-syllable adjectives, all longer adjectives, and adverbs ending in '-ly'.

careful	→	more careful	→	most careful
beautiful	→	more beautiful	→	most beautiful
seriously	→	more seriously	→	most seriously

Be more careful next time.
They are the most beautiful gardens in the world.
It affected Clive most seriously.

Note that for 'early' as an adjective or adverb, you use 'earlier' and 'earliest', not 'more' and 'most'.

4 With some common two-syllable adjectives and adverbs you can either add '-er' and '-est', or use 'more' and 'most'.

common	gentle	likely	pleasant	simple
cruel	handsome	narrow	polite	stupid

Note that 'clever' and 'quiet' only add '-er' and '-est'.

It was quieter outside.
He was the cleverest man I ever knew.

5 You normally use 'the' with superlative adjectives in front of a noun, but you can omit 'the' after a link verb.

It was the happiest day of my life.
I was happiest when I was on my own.

WARNING: When 'most' is used without 'the' in front of adjectives and adverbs, it often means almost the same as 'very'.

This book was most interesting.
I object most strongly.

6 A few common adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

good/well	→	better	→	best
bad/badly	→	worse	→	worst
far	→	farther/further	→	farthest/furthest
old	→	older/elder	→	oldest/eldest

She would ask him when she knew him better.
She sat near the furthest window.

Note that you use 'elder' or 'eldest' to say which brother, sister, or child in a family you mean.

Our eldest daughter couldn't come.

Unit 36: Comparison: uses

Main points

- Comparative adjectives are used to compare people or things.
- Superlative adjectives are used to say that one person or thing has more of a quality than others in a group or others of that kind.
- Comparative adverbs are used in the same way as adjectives.

1 You use comparative adjectives to compare one person or thing with another, or with the same person or thing at another time. After a comparative adjective, you often use 'than'.

She was much older than me.
I am happier than I have ever been.

2 You use a superlative to say that one person or thing has more of a quality than others in a group or others of that kind.

Tokyo is Japan's largest city.
He was the tallest person there.
Buses are often the cheapest way of travelling.

3 You can use comparative and superlative adjectives in front of a noun.

I was a better writer than he was.
He had more important things to do.
It was the quickest route from Rome to Naples.

You can also use comparative and superlative adjectives after link verbs.

My brother is younger than me.
He feels more content now.
The sergeant was the tallest.
This book was the most interesting.

4 You can use adverbs of degree in front of comparative adjectives.

a bit	far	a great/good deal	a little
a lot	much	rather	slightly

This car's a bit more expensive.
Now I feel a great deal more confident.
It's a rather more complicated story than that.

You can also use adverbs of degree such as 'by far', 'easily', 'much', or 'quite' in front of 'the' and superlative adjectives.

It was by far the worst hospital I had ever seen.
She was easily the most intelligent person in the class.

Note that you can put 'very' between 'the' and a superlative adjective ending in '-est'.

It was of the very highest quality.

5 When you want to say that one situation depends on another, you can use 'the' and a comparative followed by 'the' and another comparative.

The smaller it is, the cheaper it is to post.
The larger the organisation is, the greater the problem of administration becomes.

When you want to say that something increases or decreases, you can use two comparatives linked by 'and'.

It's getting harder and harder to find a job.
Cars are becoming more and more expensive.

6 After a superlative adjective, you can use a prepositional phrase to specify the group you are talking about.

Henry was the biggest of them.
These cakes are probably the best in the world.
He was the most dangerous man in the country.

7 You use the same structures in comparisons using adverbs as those given for adjectives:

- 'than' after comparative adverbs
  Prices have been rising faster than incomes.
- 'the' and a comparative adverb followed by 'the' and another comparative adverb
  The quicker we finish, the sooner we will go home.
- two comparative adverbs linked by 'and'
  He sounded worse and worse.
  He drove faster and faster till we told him to stop.

Unit 37: Other ways of comparing

Main points

- This includes words like: 'as...as', 'the same (as)' and 'like'.
- You use 'as...as...' to compare people or things.
- You can also compare people or things by using 'the same (as)'.
- You can also compare people or things by using a link verb and a phrase beginning with 'like'.

1 You use 'as...as...' to compare people or things that are similar in some way.You use 'as' and an adjective or adverb, followed by 'as' and a noun group, an adverbial, or a clause.

You're as bad as your sister.
The airport was as crowded as ever.
I am as good as she is.
Let us examine it as carefully as we can.

2 You can make a negative comparison using 'not as...as...' or 'not so...as...'.

The food wasn't as good as yesterday.
They are not as clever as they appear to be.
He is not so old as I thought.

3 You can use the adverbs 'almost', 'just', 'nearly', or 'quite' in front of 'as...as...'.

He was almost as fast as his brother.
Mary was just as pale as before.
She was nearly as tall as he was.

In a negative comparison, you can use 'not nearly' or 'not quite' before 'as...as...'.

This is not nearly as complicated as it sounds.
The hotel was not quite as good as they expected.

4 When you want to say that one thing is very similar to something else, you can use 'the same as' followed by a noun group, an adverbial, or a clause.

Your bag is the same as mine.
I said the same as always.
She looked the same as she did yesterday.

If people or things are very similar or identical, you can also say that they are 'the same'.

Teenage fashions are the same all over the world.
The initial stage of learning English is the same for many students.

You can use some adverbs in front of 'the same as' or 'the same'.

almost	just	much	roughly
exactly	more or less	nearly	virtually

He did exactly the same as John did.
You two look almost the same.

You can use 'the same' in front of a noun group, with or without 'as' after the noun group.

They reached almost the same height.
It was painted the same colour as the wall.

5 You can also compare people or things by using a link verb such as 'be', 'feel', 'look', or 'seem' and a phrase beginning with 'like'.

It was like a dream.
He still feels like a child.
He looked like an actor.
The houses seemed like mansions.

You can use some adverbs in front of 'like'.

a bit	a little	exactly	just
least	less	more	most
quite	rather	somewhat	very

He looks just like a baby.
Of all his children, she was the one most like me.

6 If the noun group after 'as' or 'like' in any of these structures is a pronoun, you use an object pronoun or possessive pronoun.

Jane was as clever as him.
His car is the same as mine.

7 You can also use 'less' and 'least' to make comparisons with the opposite meaning to 'more' and 'most'.

They were less fortunate than us.
He was the least skilled of the workers.
We see him less frequently than we used to.

Unit 38: Adverbials

Main points

- Adverbials are usually adverbs, adverb phrases, or prepositional phrases.
- Adverbials of manner, place, and time are used to say how, where, or when something happens.
- Adverbials usually come after the verb, or after the object if there is one.
- The usual order of adverbials is manner, then place, then time.

1 An adverbial is often one word, an adverb.

Sit there quietly, and listen to this music.

However, an adverbial can also be a group of words:

- an adverb phrase

  He did not play well enough to win.
- a prepositional phrase

  The children were playing in the park.
- a noun group, usually a time expression

  Come and see me next week.

2 You use an adverbial of manner to describe the way in which something happens or is done.

They looked anxiously at each other.

She listened with great patience as he told his story.

You use an adverbial of place to say where something happens.

A plane flew overhead.

No birds or animals came near the body.

You use an adverbial of time to say when something happens.

She will be here soon.

He was born on 3 April 1925.

3 You normally put adverbials of manner, place, and time after the main verb.

She sang beautifully.

The book was lying on the table.

The car broke down yesterday.

If the verb has an object, you put the adverbial after the object.

I did learn to play a few tunes very badly.

Thomas made his decision immediately.

He took the glasses to the kitchen.

If you are using more than one of these adverbials in a clause, the usual order is manner, then place, then time.

They were sitting quite happily in the car. (manner, place)

She spoke very well at the village hall last night. (manner, place, time)

4 You usually put adverbials of frequency, probability, and duration in front of the main verb.

She occasionally comes to my house.

You have very probably heard the news by now.

They had already given me the money.

A few adverbs of degree also usually come in front of the main verb.

She really enjoyed the party.

5 When you want to focus on an adverbial, you can do this by putting it in a different place in the clause:

- you can put an adverbial at the beginning of a clause, usually for emphasis

  Slowly, he opened his eyes.

  In September I travelled to California.

  Next to the coffee machine stood a pile of cups.

  Note that after adverbials of place, as in the last example, the verb can come in front of the subject.
- you can sometimes put adverbs and adverb phrases in front of the main verb for emphasis, but not prepositional phrases or noun groups

  He deliberately chose it because it was cheap.

  I very much wanted to go with them.
- you can change the order of adverbials of manner, place, and time when you want to change the emphasis

  They were sitting in the car quite happily. (place, manner)

  At the meeting last night, she spoke very well. (place, time, manner)

Unit 39: Adverbials of manner

Main points

- Most adverbs of manner are formed by adding '-ly' to an adjective, but sometimes other spelling changes are needed.
- You cannot form adverbs from adjectives that end in '-ly'.
- Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives.
- You do not use adverbs after link verbs, you use adjectives.
- Adverbials of manner are sometimes prepositional phrases or noun groups.

1 Adverbs of manner are often formed by adding '-ly' to an adjective.

Adjectives:	bad	beautiful	careful
	quick	quiet	soft
Adverbs:	badly	beautifully	carefully
	quickly	quietly	softly

2 Adverbs formed in this way usually have a similar meaning to the adjective.

She is as clever as she is beautiful.
He talked so politely and danced so beautifully.
'We must not talk. We must be quiet,' said Sita.
She wanted to sit quietly, to relax.

3 There are sometimes changes in spelling when an adverb is formed from an adjective.

'-le' changes to '-ly':	gentle	→	gently
'-y' changes to '-ily':	easy	→	easily
'-ic' changes to '-ically':	automatic	→	automatically
'-ue' changes to '-uly':	true	→	truly
'-ll' changes to '-lly':	full	→	fully

Note that 'public' changes to 'publicly', not 'publically'.

WARNING: You cannot form adverbs from adjectives that already end in '-ly'. For example, you cannot say 'He smiled at me friendlily'. You can sometimes use a prepositional phrase instead: 'He smiled at me in a friendly way'.

4 Some adverbs of manner have the same form as adjectives and have similar meanings, for example 'fast', 'hard', and 'late'.

I've always been interested in fast cars.
(adjective)
The driver was driving too fast.
(adverb)

Note that 'hardly' and 'lately' are not adverbs of manner and have different meanings from the adjectives 'hard' and 'late'.

It was a hard decision to make.
I hardly had any time to talk to her.
The train was late as usual.
Have you seen John lately?

5 The adverb of manner related to the adjective 'good' is 'well'.

He is a good dancer.
He dances well.

Note that 'well' can sometimes be an adjective when it refers to someone's health.

'How are you?' - 'I am very well, thank you.'

6 You do not use adverbs after link verbs such as 'be', 'become', 'feel', 'get', 'look', and 'seem'. You use an adjective after these verbs. For example, you do not say 'Sue felt happily'. You say 'Sue felt happy'.

See Unit 73 for more information on link verbs.

7 You do not often use prepositional phrases or noun groups as adverbials of manner. However, you occasionally need to use them, for example when there is no adverb form available. The prepositional phrases and noun groups usually include a noun such as 'way', 'fashion', or 'manner', or a noun that refers to someone's voice.

She asked me in such a nice manner that I couldn't refuse.
He did it the right way.
They spoke in angry tones.

Prepositional phrases with 'like' are also used as adverbials of manner.

I slept like a baby.
He drove like a madman.

Unit 40: Adverbials of time

Main points

- Adverbials of time can be time expressions such as 'last night'.
- Adverbials of time can be prepositional phrases with 'at', 'in', or 'on'.
- 'For' refers to a period of time in the past, present, or future.
- 'Since' refers to a point in past time.

1 You use adverbials of time to say when something happens. You often use noun groups called time expressions as adverbials of time.

yesterday	last night	next Saturday
today	last year	next week
the other day	tomorrow	the day after tomorrow

Note that you do not use the prepositions 'at', 'in', or 'on' with time expressions.

One of my children wrote to me today.
So, you're coming back next week?

You often use time expressions with verbs in the present tense to talk about the future.

The plane leaves tomorrow morning.
They're coming next week.

2 You can use prepositional phrases as adverbials of time:

- 'at' is used with:

clock times:	at eight o'clock, at three fifteen
religious festivals:	at Christmas, at Easter
mealtimes:	at breakfast, at lunchtimes
specific periods:	at night, at the weekend, at weekends, at half-term

- 'in' is used with:

seasons:	in autumn, in the spring
years and centuries:	in 1985, in the year 2000, in the nineteenth century
months:	in July, in December
parts of the day:	in the morning, in the evenings

Note that you also use 'in' to say that something will happen during or after a period of time in the future.

I think we'll find out in the next few days.

- 'on' is used with:

days:	on Monday, on Tuesday morning, on Sunday evenings
special days:	on Christmas Day, on my birthday, on his wedding anniversary
dates:	on the twentieth of July, on June 21st

3 You use 'for' with verbs in any tense to say how long something continues to happen.

He is in Italy for a month.
I remained silent for a long time.
I will be in London for three months.

WARNING: You do not use 'during' to say how long something continues to happen. You cannot say 'I went there during three weeks'.

4 You use 'since' with a verb in the present perfect or past perfect tense to say when something started to happen.

Marilyn has lived in Paris since 1984.
I had eaten nothing since breakfast.

5 You can use many other prepositional phrases as adverbials of time. You use:

- 'during' and 'over' for a period of time in which something happens
  I saw him twice during the holidays.
  Will you stay here over Christmas?
- 'from...to/till/until' and 'between...and' for the beginning and end of a period of time
  The building is closed from April to May.
  She worked from four o'clock till ten o'clock.
  Can you take the test between now and June?
- 'by' when you mean 'not later than'
  By eleven o'clock, Brody was back in his office.
  Can we get this finished by tomorrow?
- 'before' and 'after'
  I saw him before the match.
  She left the house after ten o'clock.

'Since', 'till', 'until', 'after', and 'before' can also be conjunctions with time clauses.

See Unit 96.

I've been wearing glasses since I was three.

6 You use the adverb 'ago' with the past simple to say how long before the time of speaking something happened. You always put 'ago' after the period of time.

We saw him about a month ago.
John's wife died five years ago.

WARNING: You do not use 'ago' with the present perfect tense. You cannot say 'We have gone to Spain two years ago'.

Unit 41: Frequency and probability

Main points

- This includes words like: ‘always’, ‘ever’, ‘never’, ‘perhaps’, ‘possibly’ and ‘probably’.
- Adverbials of frequency are used to say how often something happens.
- Adverbials of probability are used to say how sure you are about something.
- These adverbials usually come before the main verb, but they come after ‘be’ as a main verb.

1 You use adverbials of frequency to say how often something happens.

a lot	always	ever	frequently
hardly ever	never	normally	occasionally
often	rarely	sometimes	usually

We often swam in the sea.
She never comes to my parties.

2 You use adverbials of probability to say how sure you are about something.

certainly	definitely	maybe	obviously
perhaps	possibly	probably	really

I definitely saw her yesterday.
The driver probably knows the quickest route.

3 You usually put adverbials of frequency and probability before the main verb and after an auxiliary or a modal.

He sometimes works downstairs in the kitchen.
You are definitely wasting your time.
I have never had such a horrible meal!
I shall never forget this day.

Note that you usually put them after ‘be’ as a main verb.

He is always careful with his money.
You are probably right.

‘Perhaps’ usually comes at the beginning of the sentence.

Perhaps the beaches are cleaner in the north.
Perhaps you need a membership card to get in.

‘A lot’ always comes after the main verb.

I go swimming a lot in the summer.

4 ‘Never’ is a negative adverb.

She never goes abroad.
I’ve never been to Europe.

You normally use ‘ever’ in questions, negative sentences, and ‘if’-clauses.

Have you ever been to a football match?
Don’t ever do that again!
If you ever need anything, just call me.

Note that you can sometimes use ‘ever’ in affirmative sentences, for example after a superlative.

She is the best dancer I have ever seen.

You use ‘hardly ever’ in affirmative sentences to mean almost never.

We hardly ever meet.

Unit 42: Adverbials of duration

Main points

- 'Already' is used to say that something has happened earlier than expected.
- 'Still' is used to say that something continues to happen until a particular time.
- 'Yet' is used to say that something has not happened before a particular time.
- 'Any longer', 'any more', 'no longer', and 'no more' are used to say that something has stopped happening.

1 You use adverbials of duration to say that an event or situation is continuing, stopping, or is not happening at the moment.

She still lives in London.
I couldn't stand it any more.
It isn't dark yet.

2 You use 'already' to say that something has happened sooner than it was expected to happen. You put 'already' in front of the main verb.

He had already bought the cups and saucers.
I've already seen them.
The guests were already coming in.

You put 'already' after 'be' as a main verb.

Julie was already in bed.

You can also use 'already' to emphasize that something is the case, for example when someone else does not know or is not sure.

I am already aware of that problem.

You do not normally use 'already' in negative statements, but you can use it in negative 'if'-clauses.

Show it to him if he hasn't already seen it.

You can put 'already' at the beginning or end of a clause for emphasis.

Already he was calculating the profit he could make.
I've done it already.

3 You use 'still' to say that a situation continues to exist up to a particular time in the past, present, or future. You put 'still' in front of the main verb.

We were still waiting for the election results.
My family still live in India.
You will still get tickets, if you hurry.

You put 'still' after 'be' as a main verb.

Martin's mother died, but his father is still alive.

You can use 'still' after the subject and before the verb group in negative sentences to express surprise or impatience.

You still haven't given us the keys.
He still didn't say a word.
It was after midnight, and he still wouldn't leave.

Remember that you can use 'still' at the beginning of a clause with a similar meaning to 'after all' or 'nevertheless'.

Still, he is my brother, so I'll have to help him.
Still, it's not too bad. We didn't lose all the money.

4 You use 'yet' at the end of negative sentences and questions to say that something has not happened or had not happened up to a particular time, but is or was expected to happen later.

We haven't got the tickets yet.
Have you joined the swimming club yet?
They hadn't seen the baby yet.

Remember that 'yet' can also be used at the beginning of a clause with a similar meaning to 'but'.

I don't miss her, yet I do often wonder where she went.
They know they won't win. Yet they keep on trying.

5 You use 'any longer' and 'any more' at the end of negative clauses to say that a past situation has ended and does not exist now or will not exist in the future.

I wanted the job, but I couldn't wait any longer.
He's not going to play any more.

In formal English, you can use an affirmative clause with 'no longer' and 'no more'. You can put them at the end of the clause, or in front of the main verb.

He could stand the pain no more.
He no longer wanted to buy it.

Unit 43: Adverbials of degree

Main points

- Adverbs of degree usually modify verbs.
- Some adverbs of degree can modify adjectives, other adverbs, or clauses.

1 You use adverbs of degree to modify verbs. They make the verb stronger or weaker.

I totally disagree.
I can nearly swim.

2 Some adverbs can come in front of a main verb, after a main verb, or after the object if there is one.

badly	greatly	strongly
completely	seriously	totally

Mr Brooke strongly criticized the Bank of England.
I disagree completely with John Taylor.
That argument doesn't convince me totally.

Some adverbs are mostly used in front of the verb.

almost	largely	nearly	really	quite

He almost crashed into a lorry.

Note that 'really' is used at the beginning of a clause to express surprise, and at the end of a clause as an adverb of manner.

Really, I didn't know that!
He wanted it really, but was too shy to ask.

'A lot' and 'very much' come after the main verb if there is no object, or after the object.

She helped a lot.
We liked him very much.

'Very much' can come after the subject and in front of verbs like 'want', 'prefer', and 'enjoy'.

I very much wanted to take it with me.

3 Some adverbs of degree go in front of adjectives or other adverbs and modify them.

awfully	fairly	quite	really
extremely	pretty	rather	very

...a fairly large office, with filing space.

Note that you can use 'rather' before or after 'a' or 'an' followed by an adjective and a noun.

Seaford is rather a pleasant town.
It is a rather complicated story.

When 'quite' means 'fairly', you put it in front of 'a' or 'an' followed by an adjective and a noun.

My father gave me quite a large sum of money.

However, when 'quite' means 'extremely', you can put it after 'a'. You can say 'a quite enormous sum'.

4 You use some adverbs of degree to modify clauses and prepositional phrases.

entirely	just	largely
mainly	partly	simply

Are you saying that simply because I am here?
I don't think it's worth going just for a day.

5 You use 'so' and 'such' to emphasize a quality that someone or something has. 'So' can be followed by an adjective, an adverb, or a noun group beginning with 'many', 'much', 'few', or 'little'.

John is so interesting to talk to.
Science is changing so rapidly.
I want to do so many different things.

'Such' is followed by a singular noun group with 'a', or a plural noun group.

There was such a noise we couldn't hear.
They said such nasty things .

WARNING: 'So' is never followed by a singular noun group with 'a' or a plural noun group.

6 You use 'too' when you mean 'more than is necessary' or 'more than is good'. You can use 'too' before adjectives and adverbs, and before 'many', 'much', 'few', or 'little'.

The prices are too high.
I've been paying too much tax.

You use 'enough' after adjectives and adverbs.

I waited until my daughter was old enough to read.
He didn't work quickly enough.

Note that 'enough' is also a determiner.

We've got enough money to buy that car now.

7 You use emphasizing adverbs to modify adjectives such as 'astonishing', 'furious', and 'wonderful', which express extreme qualities.

absolutely	entirely	purely	really	totally
completely	perfectly	quite	simply	utterly

I think he's absolutely wonderful.

Unit 44: Place and direction

Main points

- This includes words like: 'above', 'below', 'down', 'from', 'to', 'towards'and 'up'.
- You normally use prepositional phrases to say where a person or thing is, or the direction they are moving in.
- You can also use adverbs and adverb phrases for place and direction.
- Many words are both prepositions and adverbs.

1 You use prepositions to talk about the place where someone or something is. Prepositions are always followed by a noun group, which is called the object of the preposition.

above	among	at	behind	below
beneath	beside	between	in	inside
near	on	opposite	outside	over
round	through	under	underneath	

He stood near the door.

Two minutes later we were safely inside the taxi.

Note that some prepositions consist of more than one word.

in between	in front of	next to	on top of

There was a man standing in front of me.

The books were piled on top of each other.

2 You can also use prepositions to talk about the direction that someone or something is moving in, or the place that someone or something is moving towards.

across	down	out of	through	up
along	into	past	to	back to
onto	round	towards		

They dived into the water.

She turned and rushed out of the room.

3 Many prepositions can be used both for place and direction.

The bank is just across the High Street. (place)

I walked across the room. (direction)

We live in the house over the road. (place)

I stole his keys and escaped over the wall. (direction)

4 You can also use adverbs and adverb phrases for place and direction.

abroad	here	underground	anywhere
away	indoors	upstairs	everywhere
downstairs	outdoors	nowhere	
downwards	there	somewhere	

Sheila was here a moment ago.

Can't you go upstairs and turn the bedroom light off?

Note that a few noun groups can also be used as adverbials of place or direction.

Steve lives next door at number 23.

I thought we went the other way last time.

5 Many words can be used as prepositions and as adverbs, with no difference in meaning. Remember that prepositions have noun groups as objects, but adverbs do not.

Did he fall down the stairs?

Please do sit down.

I looked underneath the bed, but the box had gone!

Always put a sheet of paper underneath.

Unit 45: Place – at, in, on

Main points

- You use ‘at’ to talk about a place as a point.
- You use ‘in’ to talk about a place as an area.
- You use ‘on’ to talk about a place as a surface.

1 You use ‘at’ when you are thinking of a place as a point in space.

She waited at the bus stop for over twenty minutes.

‘Where were you last night?’ - ‘At Mick’s house.’

2 You also use ‘at’ with words such as ‘back’, ‘bottom’, ‘end’, ‘front’, and ‘top’ to talk about the different parts of a place.

Mrs Castle was waiting at the bottom of the stairs.

They escaped by a window at the back of the house.

I saw a taxi at the end of the street.

You use ‘at’ with public places and institutions. Note that you also say ‘at home’ and ‘at work’.

I have to be at the station by ten o’clock.
We landed at a small airport.
A friend of mine is at Training College.
She wanted to stay at home.

You say ‘at the corner’ or ‘on the corner’ when you are talking about streets.

The car was parked at the corner of the street.
There’s a telephone box on the corner.

You say ‘in the corner’ when you are talking about a room.

She put the chair in the corner of the room.

3 You use ‘in’ when you are talking about a place as an area. You use ‘in’ with:

- a country or geographical region

  When I was in Spain, it was terribly cold.
  A thousand homes in the east of Scotland suffered power cuts.

- a city, town, or village

  I’ve been teaching at a college in London.

- a building when you are talking about people or things inside it

  They were sitting having dinner in the restaurant.

You also use ‘in’ with containers of any kind when talking about things inside them.

She kept the cards in a little box.

4 Compare the use of ‘at’ and ‘in’ in these examples.

I had a hard day at the office. (‘at’ emphasizes the office as a public place or institution)

I left my coat behind in the office. (‘in’ emphasizes the office as a building)

There’s a good film at the cinema. (‘at’ emphasizes the cinema as a public place)

It was very cold in the cinema. (‘in’ emphasizes the cinema as a building.)

5 When talking about addresses, you use ‘at’ when you give the house number, and ‘in’ when you just give the name of the street.

They used to live at 5, Weston Road.
She got a job in Oxford Street.

Note that American English uses ‘on’: ‘He lived on Penn Street.’

You use ‘at’ when you are talking about someone’s house.

I’ll see you at Fred’s house.

6 You use ‘on’ when you are talking about a place as a surface. You can also use ‘on top of’.

I sat down on the sofa.
She put her keys on top of the television.

You also use ‘on’ when you are thinking of a place as a point on a line, such as a road, a railway line, a river, or a coastline.

Scrabster is on the north coast.
Oxford is on the A34 between Birmingham and London.

See Unit 40 for information on ‘at’, ‘in’, and ‘on’ in adverbials of time.

Unit 46: Transport prepositions

Main points

- This includes phrases like: 'by bus', 'in a car', 'on the plane', and 'off the train'.
- You can use 'by' with most forms of transport.
- You use 'in', 'into', and 'out of' with cars.
- You normally use 'on', 'onto', and 'off' with other forms of transport.

1 When you talk about the type of vehicle or transport you use to travel somewhere, you use 'by'.

by bus	by bicycle	by car
by coach	by plane	by train

She had come by car with her husband and her four children.

I left Walsall in the afternoon and went by bus and train to Nottingham.

WARNING: If you want to say you walk somewhere, you say you go 'on foot'. You do not say 'by foot'.

Marie decided to continue on foot.

2 You use 'in', 'into', and 'out of' when you are talking about cars, vans, lorries, taxis, and ambulances.

I followed them in my car.

The carpets had to be collected in a van.

Mr Ward happened to be getting into his lorry.

She was carried out of the ambulance and up the steps.

3 You use 'on', 'onto', and 'off' when you are talking about other forms of transport, such as buses, coaches, trains, ships, and planes.

Why don't you come on the train with me to New York?

Peter Hurd was already on the plane from California.

The last thing he wanted was to spend ten days on a boat with Hooper.

He jumped back onto the old bus, now nearly empty.

Mr Bixby stepped off the train and walked quickly to the exit.

You can use 'in', 'into', and 'out of' with these other forms of transport, usually when you are focusing on the physical position or movement of the person, rather than stating what form of transport they are using.

The passengers in the plane were beginning to panic.

He got back into the train quickly, before Batt could stop him.

We jumped out of the bus and ran into the nearest shop.

Unit 47: Adjective + preposition

Main points

- Some adjectives used after link verbs can be used alone or followed by a prepositional phrase.
- Some adjectives must be followed by particular prepositions.
- Some adjectives can be followed by different prepositions to introduce different types of information.

1 When you use an adjective after a link verb, you can often use the adjective on its own or followed by a prepositional phrase.

See Unit 33 for other patterns.

He was afraid.
He was afraid of his enemies.

2 Some adjectives cannot be used alone after a link verb. If they are followed by a prepositional phrase, it must have a particular preposition:

aware of	accustomed to	unaware of
unaccustomed to	fond of	used to

I've always been terribly fond of you.
He is unaccustomed to the heat.

3 Some adjectives can be used alone, or followed by a particular preposition:

- used alone, or with 'of' to specify the cause of a feeling

afraid	ashamed	convinced	critical
envious	frightened	jealous	proud
scared	suspicious	terrified	tired

They may feel jealous of your success.
I was terrified of her.

- used alone, or with 'of' to specify the person who has a quality

brave	careless	clever	generous
good	intelligent	kind	nice
polite	sensible	silly	stupid
thoughtful	unkind	unreasonable	wrong

That was clever of you!
I turned the job down, which was stupid of me.

- used alone or used with 'to', usually referring to:

similarity:	close equal identical related similar
marriage:	married engaged
loyalty:	dedicated devoted loyal
rank:	junior senior

My problems are very similar to yours.
He was dedicated to his job.

- used alone, or followed by 'with' to specify the cause of a feeling

bored	content	displeased	dissatisfied
impatient	impressed	pleased	satisfied

I could never be bored with football.
He was pleased with her.

- used alone, or with 'at', usually referring to:

strong reactions:	alarmed amazed astonished shocked surprised
ability:	bad excellent good hopeless useless

He was shocked at the hatred they had known.
She had always been good at languages.

- used alone, or with 'for' to specify the person or thing that a quality relates to

common	difficult	easy	essential
important	necessary	possible	unnecessary
unusual	usual		

It's difficult for young people on their own.
It was unusual for them to go away at the weekend.

4 Some adjectives can be used alone, or used with different prepositions.

- used alone, with an impersonal subject and 'of' and the subject of the action, or with a personal subject and 'to' and the object of the action.

cruel	friendly	generous	good
kind	mean	nasty	nice
polite	rude	unfriendly	unkind

It was rude of him to leave so suddenly.
She was rude to him for no reason.

- used alone, with 'about' to specify a thing or 'with' to specify a person

angry	annoyed	delighted	disappointed
fed up	furious	happy	upset

She was still angry about the result.
They're getting pretty fed up with him.

Unit 48: Noun + preposition

Main points

- 'Of' can be used to add many different types of information, 'with' is used to specify a quality or possession.
- Some nouns are always followed by particular prepositions.

1 You can give more information about a noun by adding a prepositional phrase after it.

Four men on holiday were in the car.
A sound behind him made him turn.

2 You often use the preposition 'of' after a noun to add various kinds of information. For example, you can use 'of' to indicate:

- what something is made of or consists of
  ...a wall of stone.
  A feeling of panic was rising in him.
- what the subject matter of speech, writing, or a picture is
  She gave a brief account of her interview.
  There was a picture of them both in the paper.
- what a person or thing belongs to or is connected with
  She was the daughter of the village priest.
  The boys sat on the floor of the living room.
- what qualities a person or thing has
  She was a woman of energy and ambition.
  They faced problems of great complexity.

3 After nouns referring to actions, you use 'of' to indicate the subject or object of the action.

...the arrival of the police.
...the destruction of their city.

After nouns referring to people who perform an action, you use 'of' to say what the action involves or is aimed at.

...supporters of the hunger strike.
...a student of English.

Note that you often use two nouns, rather than a noun and a prepositional phrase. For example, you say 'bank robbers', not 'robbers of the bank'.

4 After nouns referring to measurement, you use 'of' to give the exact figure.

...an average annual temperature of 20 degrees.
...a speed of 25 kilometres an hour.

You can use 'of' after a noun to give someone's age.

Jonathan was a child of seven when it happened.

5 You use 'with' after a noun to say that a person or thing has a particular quality, feature, or possession.

...a girl with red hair.
...the man with the gun.

Note that you use 'in' after a noun to say what someone is wearing.

...a grey-haired man in a raincoat.
...the man in dark glasses.

6 Some nouns are usually followed by a particular preposition. Here are some examples of:

- nouns followed by 'to'

alternative	answer	approach	attitude
introduction	invitation	reaction	reference
resistance	return		

This was my first real introduction to Africa.

- nouns followed by 'for'

admiration	desire	dislike	need
reason	respect	responsibility	search
substitute	taste	thirst	

Their need for money is growing fast.

- nouns followed by 'on'

agreement	attack	comment	effect	tax

She had a dreadful effect on me.

- nouns followed by 'with' or 'between'

connection	contact	link	relationship

His illness had some connection with his diet.

- nouns followed by 'in'

decrease	difficulty	fall	increase	rise

They demanded a large increase in wages.

Unit 49: Verb + preposition

Main points

- Some verbs do not take an object and are normally followed by a preposition.
- Some verbs take an object followed by a particular preposition.
- Some verbs can take either an object or a preposition.

1 Many verbs that are used without an object are normally followed by a prepositional phrase. Some verbs take a particular preposition:

belong to	consist of	hint at	hope for
insist on	lead to	listen to	pay for
qualify for	refer to	relate to	sympathize with

The land belongs to a rich family.
She then referred to the Minister's report.

2 With other verbs that are used without an object, the choice of a different preposition may alter the meaning of the clause.

agree on/with	apologize for/to	result from/in
appeal for/to	conform to/with	suffer from/with

They agreed on a plan of action.
You agreed with me that we should buy a car.
His failure resulted from lack of attention to details.
The match resulted in a draw.

3 With verbs that are used without an object, different prepositions are used to introduce different types of information.

- 'about' indicates the subject matter

care	dream	hear	speak	think
complain	explain	know	talk	write

We will always care about freedom.
Tonight I'm going to talk about engines.

- 'at' indicates direction

glance	grin	look	smile
glare	laugh	shout	stare

I don't know why he was laughing at that joke.
'Hey!' she shouted at him.

- 'for' indicates purpose or reason

apologize	apply	ask	look	wait

He wanted to apologize for being late.
I'm going to wait for the next bus.

- 'into' indicates the object involved in a collision

bump	crash	drive	run

His car crashed into the wall.
She drove into the back of a lorry.

- 'of' indicates facts or information

hear	know	speak	talk	think

I've heard of him but I don't know who he is.
Do you know of the new plans for the sports centre?

- 'on' indicates confidence or certainty

count	depend	plan	rely

You can count on me.
You can rely on him to be polite.

- 'to' indicates the listener or reader

complain	listen	speak	write
explain	say	talk	

They complained to me about the noise.
Mary turned her head to speak to him.

- 'with' indicates someone whose opinion is the same or different

agree	argue	disagree	side

Do you agree with me about this?
The daughters sided with their mothers.

4 Some verbs have an object, but are also followed by a preposition.

The police accused him of murder.
They borrowed some money from the bank.

Some verbs can take either an object or a prepositional phrase with no change in meaning.

He had to fight them .
He was fighting against history.

Unit 50: Phrasal verbs

Main points

- A phrasal verb is a combination of a verb and an adverb or preposition.
- The usual meaning of the verb is normally altered.
- Phrasal verbs are used in four main structures.

1 Phrasal verbs are verbs that combine with adverbs or prepositions. The adverbs and prepositions are called particles, for example 'down', 'in', 'off', 'out', and 'up'.

She turned off the radio.
Mr Knight offered to put him up.

2 Phrasal verbs extend the usual meaning of the verb or create a new meaning. For example, if you 'break' something, you damage it, but if you 'break out of' a place, you escape from it.

They broke out of prison on Thursday night.
The pain gradually wore off.

3 Phrasal verbs are normally used in one of four main structures. In the first structure, the verb is followed by a particle, and there is no object.

break out	get by	look in	stop off
catch on	give in	ring off	wait up
check up	go away	start out	watch out
come in	grow up	stay up	wear off

War broke out in September.
You'll have to stay up late tonight.

4 In the second structure, the verb is followed by a particle and an object.

fall for	grow on	part with	set about
feel for	look after	pick on	take after

She looked after her invalid mother.
Peter takes after his father but John is more like me.

5 In the third structure, the verb is followed by an object and a particle.

answer back	call back	count in	order about
ask in	catch out	invite out	tell apart

I answered him back and took my chances.
He loved to order people about.

6 Some phrasal verbs can be used in both the second structure and the third structure: verb followed by a particle and an object, or verb followed by an object and a particle.

add on	bring up	call up	fold up
hand over	knock over	point out	pull down
put away	put up	rub out	sort out
take up	tear up	throw away	try out

It took ages to clean up the mess.
It took ages to clean the mess up.
There was such a mess. It took ages to clean it up.

WARNING: If the object is a pronoun, it must go in front of the particle. You cannot say 'He cleaned up it'.

7 In the fourth structure, the verb is followed by a particle and a preposition with an object.

break out of	catch up with	come down with
get on with	go down with	keep on at
look forward to	make off with	miss out on
play around with	put up with	run away with
stick up for	talk down to	walk out on

You go on ahead. I'll catch up with you later.
Children have to learn to stick up for themselves.

8 A very few verbs are used in the structure: verb followed by an object, a particle, and a preposition with its object.

do out of	let in for	put down to
put up to	take out on	talk out of

I'll take you up on that generous invitation.
Kroop tried to talk her out of it.

Unit 51: Verbs and objects

Main points

- Intransitive verbs do not have an object.
- Transitive verbs have an object.
- Some verbs can be used with or without an object, depending on the situation or their meaning.

1 Many verbs do not normally have an object. They are called 'intransitive' verbs. They often refer to:

existence:	appear die disappear happen live remain
the human body:	ache bleed blush faint shiver smile
human noises:	cough cry laugh scream snore speak yawn
light, smell, vibration:	glow shine sparkle stink throb vibrate
position, movement:	arrive come depart fall flow go kneel run sit sleep stand swim wait walk work

An awful thing has happened.
The girl screamed.
I waited.

Note that intransitive verbs cannot be used in the passive.

2 Many verbs normally have an object. These verbs are called 'transitive' verbs. They are often connected with:

physical objects:	build buy carry catch cover cut destroy hit own remove sell use waste wear
senses:	feel hear see smell taste touch
feelings:	admire enjoy fear frighten hate like love need prefer surprise trust want
facts, ideas:	accept believe correct discuss expect express forget include know mean remember report
people:	address blame comfort contact convince defy kill persuade please tease thank warn

He hit the ball really hard.
Did you see the rainbow?
They both enjoyed the film.
She reported the accident to the police.
Don't blame me.

Note that transitive verbs can be used in the passive.

They were blamed for everything.

WARNING: 'Have' is a transitive verb, but cannot be used in the passive. You can say 'I have a car' but not 'A car is had by me'.

3 Often, the people you are talking to know what the object is because of the situation, or because it has already been mentioned. In this case you can omit the object, even though the verb is transitive.

accept	answer	change	choose
clean	cook	draw	drive
eat	explain	forget	help
iron	know	learn	leave
paint	park	phone	read
remember	ride	sing	steal
study	type	understand	wash
watch	write		

I don't own a car. I can't drive.
You don't smoke, do you?
I asked a question and George answered.
Both dresses are beautiful. It's difficult to choose.

4 Many verbs have more than one meaning, and are transitive in one meaning and intransitive in another meaning. For example, the verb 'run' is intransitive when you use it to mean 'move quickly' but transitive when you use it to mean 'manage or operate'.

call	fit	lose	manage	miss
move	play	run	show	spread

The hare runs at enormous speed.
She runs a hotel.
She moved gracefully.
The whole incident had moved her profoundly.

5 A few verbs are normally intransitive, but can be used with an object that is closely related to the verb.

dance (a dance)	die (a death)	dream (a dream)
laugh (a laugh)	live (a life)	sigh (a sigh)
smile (a smile)		

Steve smiled his thin, cruel smile.
He appears to have lived the life of any other rich gentleman.
I once dreamed a very nice dream.

Note that you normally add more information about the object, for example by using adjectives in front of the noun.

Unit 52: Verbs with two objects

Main points

- Some verbs have two objects, a direct object and an indirect object.
- The indirect object can be used without a preposition, or after 'to' or 'for'.

1 Some verbs have two objects after them, a direct object and an indirect object. For example, in the sentence 'I gave John the book', 'the book' is the direct object. 'John' is the indirect object. Verbs that have two objects are sometimes called 'ditransitive' verbs or 'double-transitive' verbs.

His uncle had given him books on India.
She sends you her love.
I passed him the cup.

2 When the indirect object is a pronoun, or another short noun group such as a noun with 'the', you put the indirect object in front of the direct object.

Dad gave me a car.
You promised the lad a job.
He had lent my cousin the money.
She bought Dave and me an ice cream.

3 You can also use the prepositions 'to' and 'for' to introduce the indirect object. If you do this, you put the preposition and indirect object after the direct object.

He handed his room key to the receptionist.
Bill saved a piece of cake for the children.

When the indirect object consists of several words, you normally use a preposition to introduce it.

She taught physics and chemistry to pupils at the local school.
I made that lamp for a seventy-year-old woman.

You often use a preposition when you want to emphasize the indirect object.

Did you really buy that for me?

4 With some verbs you can only use 'for', not 'to', to introduce the indirect object.

book	cut	make	prepare
buy	find	paint	save
cook	keep	pour	win

They booked a place for me.
He had found some old clothes for the beggar.
They bought a present for the teacher.
She painted a picture for her father.

5 With some verbs you normally use 'to' to introduce the indirect object.

give	pay	read	show
lend	post	sell	teach
offer	promise	send	tell
pass			

I had lent my bicycle to a friend.
Ralph passed a message to Jack.
They say they posted the letter to me last week.
He sold it to me.

Note that you can use 'for' with these verbs, but it has a different meaning. 'For' indicates that one person does something on behalf of another person, so that the other person does not have to do it.

His mother paid the bill for him.
If you're going out, can you post this for me, please?

Unit 53: Reflexive verbs

Main points

- Transitive verbs are used with a reflexive pronoun to indicate that the object is the same as the subject, for example: 'I hurt myself'.
- Some verbs which do not normally have a person as the object can have reflexive pronouns as the object.

1 You use a reflexive pronoun after a transitive verb to indicate that the object is the same as the subject.

He blamed himself for his friend's death.
I taught myself French.

See Unit 20 for more information on reflexive pronouns.

2 In theory, most transitive verbs can be used with a reflexive pronoun. However, you often use reflexive pronouns with the following verbs.

amuse	dry	introduce	repeat	teach
blame	help	kill	restrict	
cut	hurt	prepare	satisfy	

Sam amused himself by throwing branches into the fire.
'Can I borrow a pencil?' - 'Yes, help yourself.'
Prepare yourself for a shock.
He introduced himself to me.

3 Verbs like 'dress', 'shave', and 'wash', which describe actions that people do to themselves, do not usually take reflexive pronouns in English, although they do in some other languages. With these verbs, reflexive pronouns are only used for emphasis.

I usually shave before breakfast.
He prefers to shave himself, even with that broken arm.
She washed very quickly and rushed downstairs.
Children were encouraged to wash themselves.

4 'Behave' does not normally take an object at all, but can take a reflexive pronoun as object.

If they don't behave, send them to bed.
He is old enough to behave himself.

5 Some verbs do not normally have a person as object, because they describe actions that you do not do to other people. However, these verbs can have reflexive pronouns as object, because you can do these actions to yourself.

apply	compose	distance	enjoy
excel	exert	express	strain

I really enjoyed the party.
Just go out there and enjoy yourself.
She expressed surprise at the news.
Professor Dale expressed himself very forcibly.

6 When 'busy' and 'content' are used as verbs, they always take a reflexive pronoun as their direct object. They are therefore true 'reflexive verbs'.

He had busied himself in the laboratory.
I had to content myself with watching the little moving lights.

Unit 54: Reciprocal verbs

Main points

- Some verbs describe two people or two groups of people doing the same thing to each other, for example: 'We met', 'I met you', 'We met each other'.
- You use 'each other' or 'one another' for emphasis.
- With some verbs, you use 'each other' or 'one another' after 'with'.

1 Some verbs refer to actions that involve two people or two groups of people doing the same thing to each other. These verbs are sometimes called 'reciprocal' verbs.

We met in Delhi.
Jane and Sarah told me that they met you.
They met each other for the first time last week.

2 The two people or groups of people involved in the action are often mentioned as the plural subject of the verb, and the verb does not have an object. For example, 'John and Mary argued' means that John argued with Mary and Mary argued with John.

argue	clash	coincide	combine
compete	fight	kiss	marry
match	meet		

The pair of you have argued about that for years.
We competed furiously.
Their children are always fighting.
They kissed.

3 When you want to emphasize that both people or groups of people are equally involved, you can use the pronouns 'each other' or 'one another' as the object of the verb. Verbs that refer to actions in which there is physical contact between people are often used with 'each other' or 'one another'.

cuddle	embrace	fight
hug	kiss	touch

We embraced each other.
They fought one another desperately for it.
They kissed each other in greeting.
It was the first time they had touched one another.

4 Some verbs do not take an object, so you use a preposition before 'each other' or 'one another'.

They parted from each other after only two weeks.
We talk to one another as often as possible.

5 With some verbs you have a choice of preposition before 'each other' or 'one another'. For example, you can 'fight with' one another or 'fight against' one another.

with/against:	compete fight
with/from:	part
with/to:	correspond relate talk

Many countries are competing with each other.
Did you compete against each other in yesterday's race?
Stephen and I parted with one another on good terms.
They parted from one another quite suddenly.

6 With some verbs, you can only use 'with' before 'each other' or 'one another'. Note that most of these verbs refer to people talking or working together.

agree	argue	clash
collide	communicate	co-operate
disagree	quarrel	

We do agree with each other sometimes.
Have they communicated with each other since then?
The two lorries collided with one another on the motorway.

7 If you want to focus on one of the people involved, you make them the subject of the verb and make the other person the object.

She married a young engineer.
You could meet me at the restaurant.

If the verb cannot take an object, you mention the other person after a preposition.

Youths clashed with police in Belfast.
She was always quarrelling with him.

Unit 55: Ergative verbs

Main points

- Ergative verbs are both transitive and intransitive. The object of the transitive use is the subject of the intransitive use, for example: 'I opened the door', 'The door opened'.
- A few verbs are only ergative with particular nouns.
- A few of these verbs need an adverbial when they are used without an object.

1 Some verbs can be used as transitive verbs to focus on the person who performs an action, and as intransitive verbs to focus on the thing affected by the action.

When I opened the door, there was Laverne.
Suddenly the door opened.

Note that the object of the transitive verb, in this case 'the door', is the subject of the intransitive verb. Verbs like these are called 'ergative' verbs.

2 Ergative verbs often refer to:

- changes

begin	break	change	crack	dry
end	finish	grow	improve	increase
slow	start	stop	tear	

I broke the glass.
The glass broke all over the floor.
The driver stopped the car.
A big car stopped.

- Cooking

bake	boil	cook	defrost
fry	melt	roast	simmer

I've boiled an egg.
The porridge is boiling.
I'm cooking spaghetti.
The rice is cooking.

- position or movement

balance	close	drop	move	open
rest	rock	shake	stand	turn

She rested her head on his shoulder.
Her head rested on the table.
An explosion shook the hotel.
The whole room shook.

- vehicles

back	drive	reverse	sail
crash	fly	run	

He had crashed the car twice.
Her car crashed into a tree.
She sailed her yacht round the world.
The ship sailed on Monday.

3 Some verbs can be used in these two ways only with a small set of nouns. For example, you can say 'He fired a gun' or 'The gun fired'. You can do the same with other words referring to types of gun, 'cannon', 'pistol', or 'rifle'. However, although you can say 'He fired a bullet', you cannot say 'The bullet fired'.

catch:	belt, cloth, clothing, dress, shirt, trousers
fire:	cannon, gun, pistol, rifle
play:	guitar, music, piano, violin
ring:	alarm, bell
show:	anger, disappointment, emotions, fear, joy
sound:	alarm, bell, horn

I caught my dress on the fence.
My tights caught on a nail.
A car was sounding its horn.
A horn sounded in the night.

4 A few verbs can be used in both ways, but need an adverbial when they are used without an object.

clean	handle	polish	stain
freeze	mark	sell	wash

He sells books.
This book is selling well.
She had handled a machine gun.
This car handles very nicely.

Unit 56: Common verb + noun patterns

Main points

- Examples are: 'have a bath'; 'give a shout'; 'make promises'; 'take care'.
- Common verbs are often used with nouns to describe actions.
- You use 'have' with nouns referring to eating, drinking, talking, and washing.
- You use 'give' with nouns referring to noises, hitting, and talking.
- You use 'make' with nouns referring to talking, plans, and travelling.

1 When you want to talk about actions, you often use common verbs with nouns as their object. The nouns describe the action. For example, if you say 'I had a shower', the noun tells you what the action was. The common verbs have very little meaning.

I had a nice rest.
She made a remark about the weather.

The nouns often have related verbs that do not take an object.

Helen went upstairs to rest.
I remarked that it would be better if I came.

2 Different verbs are used with different nouns. You use 'have' with nouns referring to:

meals:	breakfast dinner drink lunch meal taste tea
talking:	chat conversation discussion talk
washing:	bath shower wash
relaxation:	break holiday rest
disagreement:	argument fight quarrel trouble

We usually have lunch at one o'clock.
He was having his first holiday for five years.

3 You use 'give' with nouns referring to:

human noises:	cry gasp giggle groan laugh scream shout sigh whistle yell
facial expressions:	grin smile
hitting:	kick punch push slap
talking:	advice answer example information interview lecture news report speech talk warning

Mr Sutton gave a shout of triumph.
She gave a long lecture about Roosevelt.

4 You use 'make' with nouns referring to:

talking and sounds:	comment enquiry noise point promise remark sound speech suggestion
plans:	arrangement choice decision plan
travelling:	journey tour trip visit

He made the shortest speech I've ever heard.
In 1978 he made his first visit to Australia.

5 You use 'take' with these nouns:

care	interest	risk
chance	offence	time
charge	photograph	trouble
decision	responsibility	turns

He was taking no chances.
She was prepared to take great risks.

6 You use 'go' and 'come' with '-ing' nouns referring to sports and outdoor activities.

She goes climbing in her holidays.
Every morning, he goes jogging with Tommy.

Note that you can also use 'go for' and 'come for' with 'a jog', 'a run', 'a swim', 'a walk'.

They went for a run before breakfast.

7 You use 'do' with '-ing' nouns referring to jobs connected with the home, and nouns referring generally to work.

He wants to do the cooking.
He does all the shopping and I do the washing.
The man who did the job had ten years' training.
He has to get up early and do a hard day's work.

'Do' is often used instead of more specific verbs. For example, you can say 'Have you done your teeth?' instead of 'Have you brushed your teeth?'

Do I need to do my hair?

Unit 57: Auxiliary verbs

Main points

- The auxiliaries 'be', 'have', and 'do' are used in forming tenses, negatives, and questions.
- The auxiliary 'be' is used in forming the continuous tenses and the passive.
- The auxiliary 'have' is used in forming the perfect tenses.
- The auxiliary 'do' is used in making negative and question forms from sentences that have a verb in a simple tense.

1 The auxiliary verbs are 'be', 'have', and 'do'. They are used with a main verb to form tenses, negatives, and questions.

He is planning to get married soon.
I haven't seen Peter since last night.
Which doctor do you want to see?

2 'Be' as an auxiliary is used:

- with the '-ing' form of the main verb to form continuous tenses
  He is living in Germany.
  They were going to phone you.
- with the past participle of the main verb to form the passive
  These cars are made in Japan.
  The walls of her flat were covered with posters.

3 You use 'have' as an auxiliary with the past participle to form the perfect tenses.

I have changed my mind.
I wish you had met Guy.

The present perfect continuous, the past perfect continuous, and the perfect tenses in the passive, are formed using both 'have' and 'be'.

He has been working very hard recently.
She did not know how long she had been lying there.
The guest-room window has been mended.
They had been taught by a young teacher.

4 'Be' and 'have' are also used as auxiliaries in negative sentences and questions in continuous and perfect tenses, and in the passive.

He isn't going.
Hasn't she seen it yet?
Was it written in English?

You use 'do' as an auxiliary to make negative and question forms from sentences that have a verb in the present simple or past simple.

He doesn't think he can come to the party.
Do you like her new haircut?
She didn't buy the house.
Didn't he get the job?

Note that you can use 'do' as a main verb with the auxiliary 'do'.

He didn't do his homework.
Do they do the work themselves?

You can also use the auxiliary 'do' with 'have' as a main verb.

He doesn't have any money.
Does anyone have a question?

You only use 'do' in affirmative sentences for emphasis or contrast.

I do feel sorry for Roger.

WARNING: You never use the auxiliary 'do' with 'be' except in the imperative.

Don't be stupid!
Do be a good boy and sit still.

5 Some grammars include modals among the auxiliary verbs. When there is a modal in the verb group, it is always the first word in the verb group, and comes before the auxiliaries 'be' and 'have'.

She might be going to Switzerland for Christmas.
I would have liked to have seen her.

Note that you never use the auxiliary 'do' with a modal.

See Units 79-91 for more information on modals.

Unit 58: The present tenses

Main points

- There are four present tenses - present simple ('I walk'), present continuous ('I am walking'), present perfect ('I have walked'), and present perfect continuous ('I have been walking').
- All the present tenses are used to refer to a time which includes the present.
- Present tenses can also be used for predictions made in the present about future events.

1 There are four tenses which begin with a verb in the present tense. They are the present simple, the present continuous, the present perfect, and the present perfect continuous. These are the present tenses.

2 The present simple and the present continuous are used with reference to present time. If you are talking about the general present, or about a regular or habitual action, you use the present simple.

George lives in Birmingham.
They often phone my mother in London.

If you are talking about something in the present situation, you use the present continuous.

He's playing tennis at the University.
I'm cooking the dinner.

The present continuous is often used to refer to a temporary situation.

She's living in a flat at present.

3 You use the present perfect or the present perfect continuous when you are concerned with the present effects of something which happened at a time in the past, or which started in the past but is still continuing.

Have you seen the film at the Odeon?
We've been waiting here since before two o'clock.

4 If you are talking about something which is scheduled or timetabled to happen in the future, you can use the present simple tense.

The next train leaves at two fifteen in the morning.
It's Tuesday tomorrow.

5 If you are talking about something which has been arranged for the future, you can use the present continuous. When you use the present continuous like this, there is nearly always a time adverbial like 'tomorrow', 'next week', or 'later' in the clause.

We're going on holiday with my parents this year.
The Browns are having a party next week.

6 It is only in the main clauses that the choice of tense can be related to a particular time. In subordinate clauses, for example in 'if'- clauses, time clauses, and defining relative clauses, present tenses often refer to a future time in relation to the time in the main clause.

You can go at five if you have finished.
Let's have a drink before we start.
We'll save some food for anyone who arrives late.

7 The present simple tense normally has no auxiliary verb, but questions and negative sentences are formed with the auxiliary 'do'.

Do you live round here?
Does your husband do most of the cooking?
They don't often phone during the week.
She doesn't like being late if she can help it.

Unit 59: The past tenses

Main points

- There are four past tenses - past simple ('I walked'), past continuous ('I was walking'), past perfect ('I had walked'), and past perfect continuous ('I had been walking').
- All the past tenses are used to refer to past time.
- The past tenses are often used as polite forms.
- The past tenses have special meanings in conditional clauses and when referring to imaginary situations.

1 There are four tenses which begin with a verb in the past tense. They are the past simple, the past continuous, the past perfect, and the past perfect continuous. These are the past tenses. They are used to refer to past time, and also to refer to imaginary situations, and to express politeness.

2 The past simple and the past continuous are used with reference to past time. You use the past simple for events which happened in the past.

I woke up early and got out of bed.

If you are talking about the general past, or about regular or habitual actions in the past, you also use the past simple.

She lived just outside London.

We often saw his dog sitting outside his house.

If you are talking about something which continued to happen before and after a particular time in the past, you use the past continuous.

They were sitting in the kitchen, when they heard the explosion.

Jack arrived while the children were having their bath.

The past continuous is often used to refer to a temporary situation.

He was working at home at the time.

Bill was using my office until I came back from America.

3 You use the past perfect and past perfect continuous tenses when you are talking about the past and you are concerned with something which happened at an earlier time, or which had started at an earlier time but was still continuing.

I had heard it was a good film so we decided to go and see it.

It was getting late. I had been waiting there since two o'clock.

4 You sometimes use a past tense rather than a present tense when you want to be more polite. For example, in the following pairs of sentences, the second one is more polite.

Do you want to see me now?
Did you want to see me now?
I wonder if you can help me.
I was wondering if you could help me.

5 The past tenses have special meanings in conditional clauses and when referring to hypothetical and imaginary situations, for example after 'I wish' or 'What if...?'. You use the past simple and past continuous for something that you think is unlikely to happen.

If they saw the mess, they would be very angry.
We would tell you if we were selling the house.

You use the past perfect and past perfect continuous when you are talking about something which could have happened in the past, but which did not actually happen.

If I had known that you were coming, I would have told Jim.

They wouldn't have gone to bed if they had been expecting you to arrive.

Unit 60: The continuous tenses

Main points

- Continuous tenses describe actions which continue to happen before and after a particular time.
- Continuous tenses can also indicate duration and change.

1 You use a continuous tense to indicate that an action continues to happen before and after a particular time, without stopping. You use the present continuous for actions which continue to happen before and after the moment of speaking.

I'm looking at the photographs my brother sent me.

They're having a meeting.

2 When you are talking about two actions in the present tense, you use the present continuous for an action that continues to happen before and after another action that interrupts it. You use the present simple for the other action.

The phone always rings when I'm having a bath.

Friends always talk to me when I'm trying to study.

3 When you are talking about the past, you use the past continuous for actions that continued to happen before and after another action, or before and after a particular time. This is often called the 'interrupted past'. You use the past simple for the other action.

He was watching television when the doorbell rang.

It was 6 o'clock. The train was nearing London.

WARNING: If two things happened one after another, you use two verbs in the past simple tense.

As soon as he saw me, he waved.

4 You can use continuous forms with modals in all their usual meanings.

See Units 79 to 91 for more information on modals.

What could he be thinking of?

They might be telling lies.

5 You use continuous tenses to express duration, when you want to emphasize how long something has been happening or will happen for.

We had been living in Athens for five years.

They'll be staying with us for a couple of weeks.

He has been building up the business all his life.

By 1992, he will have been working for ten years.

Note that you do not have to use continuous tenses for duration.

We had lived in Africa for five years.

He worked for us for ten years.

6 You use continuous tenses to describe a state or situation that is temporary.

I'm living in London at the moment.

He'll be working nights next week.

She's spending the summer in Europe.

7 You use continuous tenses to show that something is changing, developing, or progressing.

Her English was improving.

The children are growing up quickly.

The video industry has been developing rapidly.

8 As a general rule, verbs which refer to actions that require a deliberate effort can be used in continuous tenses, verbs which refer to actions that do not require a deliberate effort are not used in continuous tenses.

I think it's going to rain. ('think' = 'believe'. Believing does not require deliberate effort)

Please be quiet. I'm thinking . ('think' = 'try to solve a problem'. Trying to solve a problem does require deliberate effort)

However, many verbs are not normally used in the continuous tenses. These include verbs that refer to thinking, liking and disliking, appearance, possession, and perception.

See Unit 62 for lists of these verbs.

Unit 61: The perfect tenses

Main points

- You use the present perfect ('I have walked') to relate the past to the present.
- You use the past perfect ('I had walked') to talk about a situation that occurred before a particular time in the past.

1 You use the present perfect tense when you are concerned with the present effects of something which happened at an indefinite time in the past.

I'm afraid I've forgotten my book.

Have you heard from Jill recently?

Sometimes, the present effects are important because they are very recent.

Karen has just passed her exams.

You also use the present perfect when you are thinking of a time which started in the past and is still continuing.

Have you really lived here for ten years?

He has worked here since 1987.

You also use the present perfect in time clauses, when you are talking about something which will be done at some time in the future.

Tell me when you have finished.

I'll write to you as soon as I have heard from Jenny.

2 When you want to emphasize the fact that a recent event continued to happen for some time, you use the present perfect continuous.

She's been crying.

I've been working hard all day.

.

3 You use the past perfect tense when you are looking back from a point in past time, and you are concerned with the effects of something which happened at an earlier time in the past.

I apologized because I had forgotten my book.

He felt much happier once he had found a new job.

They would have come if we had invited them.

You also use the past perfect when you are thinking of a time which had started earlier in the past but was still continuing.

I was about twenty. I had been studying French for a couple of years.

He hated games and had always managed to avoid children's parties.

4 You use the future perfect tense when you are looking back from a point in the future and you are talking about something which will have happened at a time between now and that future point.

In another two years, you will have left school.

Take these tablets, and in twenty-four hours the pain will have gone.

You also use the future perfect when you are looking back from the present and guessing that an action will be finished.

I'm sure they will have arrived home by now.

It's too late to ring Don. He will have left the house by now.

5 You can also use other modals with 'have', when you are looking back from a point in time at something which you think may have happened at an earlier time.

I might have finished work by then.

He should have arrived in Paris by the time we phone.

For more information on modals with 'have', see Units 79 to 91

Unit 62: Talking about the present

Main points

- For the general present, general truths, and habitual actions, you use the present simple ('I walk').
- For something which is happening now, or for temporary situations, you use the present continuous ('I am walking').

1 If you are talking about the present in general, you normally use the present simple tense. You use the present simple for talking about the general present including the present moment.

My dad works in Saudi Arabia.
He lives in the French Alps near the Swiss border.

2 If you are talking about general truths, you use the present simple.

Water boils at 100 degrees centigrade.
Love makes the world go round.
The bus takes longer than the train.

3 If you are talking about regular or habitual actions, you use the present simple.

Do you eat meat?
I get up early and eat my breakfast in bed.
I pay the milkman on Fridays.

4 If you are talking about something which is regarded as temporary, you use the present continuous.

Do you know if she's still playing tennis these days?
I'm working as a British Council officer.

5 If you are talking about something which is happening now, you normally use the present continuous tense.

We're having a meeting. Come and join in.
Wait a moment. I'm listening to the news.

6 There are a number of verbs which are used in the present simple tense even when you are talking about the present moment. These verbs are not normally used in the present continuous or the other continuous tenses. These verbs usually refer to:

thinking:	believe forget imagine know realize recognize suppose think understand want wish
liking and disliking:	admire dislike hate like love prefer
appearance:	appear look like resemble seem
possession:	belong to contain have include own possess
perception:	hear see smell taste
being:	be consist of exist

I believe he was not to blame.
She hates going to parties.
Our neighbours have two cars.

Note that you normally use verbs of perception with the modal 'can', rather than using the present simple tense.

I can smell gas.

Some other common verbs are not normally used in the present continuous or the other continuous tenses.

concern	deserve	fit	interest	involve
matter	mean	satisfy	surprise	

What do you mean?

WARNING: Some of the verbs listed above can be used in continuous tenses in other meanings. For example, 'have' referring to possession is not used in continuous tenses. You do not say 'I am having a car'. But note the following examples.

We're having a party tomorrow.
He's having problems with his car.
She's having a shower.

Unit 63: Talking about the past

Main points

- For actions, situations, or regular events in the past, you use the past simple ('I walked'). For regular events in the past, you can also use 'would' or 'used to'.
- For events that happened before and after a time in the past, and for temporary situations, you use the past continuous ('I was walking').
- For present effects of past situations, you use the present perfect ('I have walked'), and for past effects of earlier events you use the past perfect ('I had walked').
- For future in the past, you use 'would', 'was/were going to', or the past continuous ('I was walking').

---

1 When you want to talk about an event that occurred at a particular time in the past, you use the past simple.

The Prime Minister flew into New York yesterday.

The new term started last week.

You also use the past simple to talk about a situation that existed over a period of time in the past.

We spent most of our time at home last winter.

They earned their money quickly that year.

---

2 When you want to talk about something which took place regularly in the past, you use the past simple.

They went for picnics most weekends.

We usually spent the winter at Aunt Meg's house.

WARNING: The past simple always refers to a time in the past. A time reference is necessary to say what time in the past you are referring to. The time reference can be established in an earlier sentence or by another speaker, but it must be established.

When you want to talk about something which occurred regularly in the past, you can use 'would' or 'used to' instead of the past simple.

We would normally spend the winter in Miami.

People used to believe that the world was flat.

WARNING: You do not normally use 'would' with this meaning with verbs which are not used in the continuous tenses.

For a list of these verbs, see Unit 62.

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3 When you want to talk about something which continued to happen before and after a given time in the past, you use the past continuous.

I hurt myself when I was mending my bike.

It was midnight. She was driving home.

You also use the past continuous to talk about a temporary state of affairs in the past.

Our team were losing 2-1 at the time.

We were staying with friends in Italy.

For more information on continuous tenses, see Unit 60.

---

4 When you are concerned with the present effects or future effects of something which happened at an indefinite time in the past, you use the present perfect.

I'm afraid I've forgotten my book, so I don't know.

Have you heard from Jill recently? How is she?

You also use the present perfect when you are thinking of a time which started in the past and still continues.

Have you ever stolen anything? (= at any time up to the present)

He has been here since six o'clock. (= and he is still here)

---

5 When you are looking back from a point in past time, and you are concerned with the effects of something which happened at an earlier time in the past, you use the past perfect.

I apologized because I had left my wallet at home.

They would have come if we had invited them.

---

6 When you want to talk about the future from a point of view in past time, you can use 'would', 'was / were going to', or the past continuous.

He thought to himself how wonderful it would taste.

Her daughter was going to do the cooking.

Mike was taking his test the week after.

Unit 64: 'Will' and 'going to'

Main points

- When you are making predictions about the future or talking about future intentions, you can use either 'will' ('I will walk') or 'going to' ('I am going to walk').
- For promises and offers relating to the future, you use 'will' ('I will walk').
- For future events based on arrangements, you use the future continuous ('I will be walking').
- For events that will happen before a time in the future, you use the future perfect ('I will have walked').

1 You cannot talk about the future with as much certainty as you can about the present or the past. You are usually talking about what you think might happen or what you intend to happen. This is why you often use modals. Although most modals can be used with future reference, you most often use the modal 'will' to talk about the future.

Nancy will arrange it.
When will I see them?

2 When you are making predictions about the future that are based on general beliefs, opinions, or attitudes, you use 'will'.

The weather tomorrow will be warm and sunny.
I'm sure you will enjoy your visit to the zoo.

This use of 'will' is common in sentences with conditional clauses.

You'll be late, if you don't hurry.

When you are using facts or events in the present situation as evidence for a prediction, you can use 'going to'.

It's going to rain . (I can see black clouds)
I'm going to be late. (I have missed my train)

3 When you are saying what someone has decided to do, you use 'going to'.

They're going to have a party.
I'm going to stay at home today.

WARNING: You do not normally use 'going to' with the verb 'go'. You usually just say 'I'm going' rather than 'I'm going to go'.

'What are you going to do this weekend?' - 'I'm going to the cinema.'

When you are announcing a decision you have just made or are about to make, you use 'will'.

I'm tired. I think I'll go to bed.

4 In promises and offers relating to the future, you often use 'will' with the meaning 'be willing to'.

I'll do what I can.
I'll help with the washing-up.

Note that you can use 'will' with this meaning in an 'if'-clause.

I'll put you through, if you'll hang on for a minute. (= if you are willing to hang on for a minute)

WARNING: Remember that you do not normally use 'will' in 'if'-clauses.

See Unit 66 for more information on 'if'-clauses.

If you do that, you will be wasting your time.
The children will call out if they think he is wrong.

5 When you want to say that something will happen because arrangements have been made, you use the future continuous tense.

I'll be seeing them when I've finished with you.
I'll be waiting for you outside.
She'll be appearing at the Royal Festival Hall.

6 When you want to talk about something that has not happened yet but will happen before a particular time in the future, you use the future perfect tense.

By the time we phone he'll already have started.
By 2010, he will have worked for twelve years.

Unit 65: Present tenses for future

Main points

- When you are talking about the future in relation to official timetables or the calendar, you use the present simple ('I walk').
- When talking about people's plans and arrangements for the future, you use the present continuous ('I am walking').
- In 'if'-clauses, time clauses, and defining relative clauses, you can use the present simple ('I walk') to refer to the future.

1 When you are talking about something in the future which is based on an official timetable or calendar, you use the present simple tense. You usually put a time adverbial in these sentences.

My last train leaves Euston at 11.30.
The UN General Assembly opens in New York this month.
Our next lesson is on Thursday.
We set off early tomorrow morning.

2 In statements about fixed dates, you normally use the present simple.

Tomorrow is Tuesday.
It's my birthday next month.
Monday is the seventeenth of July.

3 When you want to talk about people's plans or arrangements for the future, you use the present continuous tense.

I'm meeting Bill next week.
They're getting married in June.

4 You often talk about the future using the present tense of verbs such as 'hope', 'expect', 'intend', and 'want' with a 'to'-infinitive clause, especially when you want to indicate your uncertainty about what will actually happen.

We hope to see you soon.
Bill expects to be back at work tomorrow.

After the verb 'hope', you often use the present simple to refer to the future.

I hope you enjoy your holiday.

5 In subordinate clauses, the relationships between tense and time are different. In 'if'-clauses and time clauses, you normally use the present simple for future reference.

If he comes, I'll let you know.
Please start when you are ready.
We won't start until everyone arrives.
Lock the door after you finally leave.

6 In defining relative clauses, you normally use the present simple, not 'will', to refer to the future.

Any decision that you make will need her approval.
Give my love to any friends you meet.
There is a silver cup for the runner who finishes first.

7 If you want to show that a condition has to be the case before an action can be carried out, you use the present perfect for future events.

We won't start until everyone has arrived.
I'll let you know when I have arranged everything.

Unit 66: Conditionals using 'if'

Main points

- You use conditional clauses to talk about a possible situation and its results.
- Conditional clauses can begin with 'if'.
- A conditional clause needs a main clause to make a complete sentence. The conditional clause can come before or after the main clause.

1 You use conditional clauses to talk about a situation that might possibly happen and to say what its results might be.

You use 'if' to mention events and situations that happen often, that may happen in the future, that could have happened in the past but did not happen, or that are unlikely to happen at all.

If the light comes on, the battery is OK.
I'll call you if I need you.
If I had known, I'd have told you.
If she asked me, I'd help her.

2 When you are talking about something that is generally true or happens often, you use a present or present perfect tense in the main clause and the conditional clause.

If they lose weight during an illness, they soon regain it afterwards.
If an advertisement does not tell the truth, the advertiser is committing an offence.
If the baby is crying, it is probably hungry.
If they have lost any money, they report it to me.

WARNING: You do not use the present continuous in both clauses. You do not say 'If they are losing money, they are getting angry.'

3 When you use a conditional clause with a present or present perfect tense, you often use an imperative in the main clause.

Wake me up if you're worried.
If he has finished, ask him to leave quietly.
If you are very early, don't expect them to be ready.

4 When you are talking about something which may possibly happen in the future, you use a present or present perfect tense in the conditional clause, and the simple future in the main clause.

If I marry Celia, we will need the money.
If you are going to America, you will need a visa.
If he has done the windows, he will want his money.

WARNING: You do not normally use 'will' in conditional clauses. You do not say 'If I will see you tomorrow, I will give you the book'.

5 When you are talking about something that you think is unlikely to happen, you use the past simple or past continuous in the conditional clause and 'would' in the main clause.

If I had enough money, I would buy the car.
If he was coming , he would ring.

WARNING: You do not normally use 'would' in conditional clauses. You do not say 'If I would do it, I would do it like this'.

6 'Were' is sometimes used instead of 'was' in the conditional clause, especially after 'I'.

If I were as big as you, I would kill you.
If I weren't so busy, I would do it for you.

You often say 'If I were you' when you are giving someone advice.

If I were you, I would take the money.
I should keep out of Bernadette's way if I were you.

7 When you are talking about something which could have happened in the past but which did not actually happen, you use the past perfect in the conditional clause. In the main clause, you use 'would have' and a past participle.

If he had realized that, he would have run away.
I wouldn't have been so depressed if I had known how common this feeling is.

WARNING: You do not use 'would have' in the conditional clause. You do not say 'If I would have seen him, I would have told him'.

Unit 67: 'If' with modals; 'unless'

Main points

- You can use a modal in a conditional clause.
- You use 'unless' to mention an exception to what you are saying.

1 You sometimes use modals in conditional clauses. In the main clause, you can still use a present tense for events that happen often, 'will' for events that are quite likely in the future, 'would' for an event that is unlikely to happen, and 'would have' for events that were possible but did not happen.

If he can't come, he usually phones me.

If they must have it today, they will have to come back at five o'clock.

If I could only find the time, I'd do it gladly.

If you could have seen him, you would have laughed too.

'Should' is sometimes used in conditional clauses to express greater uncertainty.

If any visitors should come, I'll say you aren't here.

2 You can use other modals besides 'will', 'would' and 'would have' in the main clause with their usual meanings.

She might phone me, if she has time.

You could come, if you wanted to.

If he sees you leaving, he may cry.

Note that you can have modals in both clauses: the main clause and the conditional clause.

If he can't come, he will phone.

See Units 79 to 91 for more information.

3 In formal English, if the first verb in a conditional clause is 'had', 'should', or 'were', you can put the verb at the beginning of the clause and omit 'if'.

For example, instead of saying 'If he should come, I will tell him you are sick', it is possible to say 'Should he come, I will tell him you are sick'.

Should ministers decide to hold an inquiry, we would welcome it.

Were it all true, it would still not excuse their actions.

Had I known, I would not have done it.

4 When you want to mention an exception to what you are saying, you use a conditional clause beginning with 'unless'.

You will fail your exams.

You will fail your exams unless you work harder.

Note that you can often use 'if...not' instead of 'unless'.

You will fail your exams if you do not work harder.

When you use 'unless', you use the same tenses that you use with 'if'.

She spends Sundays in the garden unless the weather is awful.

We usually walk, unless we're going shopping.

He will not let you go unless he is forced to do so.

You wouldn't believe it, unless you saw it.

5 'If' and 'unless' are not the only ways of beginning conditional clauses. You can also use 'as long as', 'only if', 'provided', 'provided that', 'providing', 'providing that', or 'so long as'. These expressions are all used to indicate that one thing only happens or is true if another thing happens or is true.

We were all right as long as we kept our heads down.

I will come only if nothing is said to the press.

She was prepared to come, provided that she could bring her daughter.

Providing they remained at a safe distance, we would be all right.

Detergent cannot harm a fabric, so long as it has been properly dissolved.

Unit 68: I wish, If only, ..as if..

Main points

- You use 'I wish' and 'If only' to talk about wishes and regrets.
- You use '..as if..' and '..as though..' to show that information in a manner clause is not or might not be true.

1 You can express what you want to happen now by using 'I wish' or 'If only' followed by a past simple verb.

I wish he wasn't here.

If only she had a car.

Note that in formal English, you sometimes use 'were' instead of 'was' in sentences like these.

I often wish that I were really wealthy.

When you want to express regret about past events, you use the past perfect.

I wish I hadn't married him.

When you want to say that you wish that someone was able to do something, you use 'could'.

If only they could come with us!

When you want to say that you wish that someone was willing to do something, you use 'would'.

If only they would realise how stupid they've been.

2 When you want to indicate that the information in a manner clause might not be true, or is definitely not true, you use 'as if' or 'as though'.

She reacted as if she didn't know about the race.

She acts as though she owns the place.

After 'as if' or 'as though', you often use a past tense even when you are talking about the present, to emphasize that the information in the manner clause is not true. In formal English, you use 'were' instead of 'was'.

Presidents can't dispose of companies as if people didn't exist.

She treats him as though he was her own son.

He looked at me as though I were mad.

3 You can also use 'as if' or 'as though' to say how someone or something feels, looks, or sounds.

She felt as if she had a fever.

He looked as if he hadn't slept very much.

Mary sounded as though she had just run all the way.

You can also use 'it looks' and 'it sounds' with 'as if' and 'as though'.

It looks to me as if he wrote down some notes.

It sounds to me as though he's just being awkward.

4 When the subject of the manner clause and the main clause are the same, you can often use a participle in the manner clause and omit the subject and the verb 'be'.

He ran off to the house as if escaping.

He shook his head as though dazzled by his own vision.

You can also use 'as if' or 'as though' with a 'to'-infinitive clause.

As if to remind him, the church clock struck eleven.

5 In informal speech, people often use 'like' instead of 'as if' or 'as' to say how a person feels, looks, or sounds. Some speakers of English think that this use of 'like' is incorrect.

He felt like he'd won the pools.

You look like you've seen a ghost.

You talk just like my father does.

You can also use 'like' in prepositional phrases to say how someone does something.

He was sleeping like a baby.

I behaved like an idiot , and I'm sorry.

Unit 69: Verbs with '-ing' clauses

Main points

- Many verbs are followed by an '-ing' clause.
- Some verbs are followed by an object and an '-ing' clause that describes what the object is doing.

1 Many verbs are followed by an '-ing' clause. The subject of the verb is also the subject of the '-ing' clause. The '-ing' clause begins with an '-ing' form. The most common of these verbs are:

- verbs of saying and thinking

admit	consider	deny	describe
imagine	mention	recall	suggest

He denied taking drugs.
I suggested meeting her for a coffee.

Note that all of these verbs except for 'describe' can also be followed by a 'that'-clause. See Unit 76.

He denied that he was involved.

- verbs of liking and disliking

adore	detest	dislike	dread	enjoy
fancy	like	love	mind	resent

Will they enjoy using it?
I don't mind telling you.

'Like' and 'love' can also be followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause. See Unit 71.

- other common verbs

avoid	commence	delay	finish	involve	keep
miss	postpone	practice	resist	risk	stop

I've just finished reading that book.
Avoid giving any unnecessary information.

- common phrasal verbs

burst out	carry on	end up	give up
go round	keep on	put off	set about

She carried on reading.
They kept on walking for a while.

Note that some common phrases can be followed by an '-ing' clause.

can't help	can't stand	feel like

I can't help worrying.

2 After the verbs and phrases mentioned above, you can also use 'being' followed by a past participle.

They enjoy being praised.
I dislike being interrupted.

After some verbs of saying and thinking, you can use 'having' followed by a past participle.

admit	deny	mention	recall

Michael denied having seen him.

3 'Come' and 'go' are used with '-ing' clauses to describe the way that a person or thing moves.

They both came running out.
It went sliding across the road out of control.

'Go' and 'come' are also used with '-ing' nouns to talk about sports and outdoor activities. See Unit 56.

Did you say they might go camping?

4 Some verbs can be followed by an object and an '-ing' clause. The object of the verb is the subject of the '-ing' clause.

catch	imagine	prevent	watch
find	leave	stop	

It is hard to imagine him existing without it.
He left them making their calculations.

Note that 'prevent' and 'stop' are often used with 'from' in front of the '-ing' clause.

I wanted to prevent him from seeing that.

Most verbs of perception can be followed by an object and an '-ing' clause or a base form. See Unit 72.

I saw him riding a bicycle.
I saw a policeman walk over to one of them.

See also Unit 94 for '-ing' clauses after nouns.

Unit 70: Infinitives

Main points

- Some verbs are followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause. Others are followed by an object and a 'to'-infinitive clause.
- Some verbs are followed by a 'wh'-word and a 'to'-infinitive clause. Others are followed by an object, a 'wh'-word, and a 'to'-infinitive clause.
- Nouns are followed by 'to'-infinitive clauses that indicate the aim, purpose or necessity of something, or that give extra information.

1 Some verbs are followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause. The subject of the verb is also the subject of the 'to'-infinitive clause.

- verbs of saying and thinking

agree	expect	learn	plan
choose	hope	mean	promise
decide	intend	offer	refuse

She had agreed to let us use her flat.
I decided not to go out for the evening.

- other verbs

fail	manage	pretend	tend	want

England failed to win a place in the finals.

2 Some verbs are followed by an object and a 'to'-infinitive clause. The object of the verb is the subject of the 'to'-infinitive clause.

- verbs of saying and thinking

advise	encourage	invite	persuade	teach
ask	expect	order	remind	tell

I asked her to explain.
They advised us not to wait around too long.

- other verbs

allow	force	get	help	want

I could get someone else to do it.
I didn't want him to go.

Note that 'help' can also be followed by an object and a base form.

I helped him fix it.

WARNING: You do not use 'want' with a 'that'-clause. You do not say 'I want that you do something'.

3 Some verbs are followed by 'for' and an object, then a 'to'-infinitive clause. The object of 'for' is the subject of the 'to'-infinitive clause.

appeal	ask	pay	wish
arrange	long	wait	

Could you arrange for a taxi to collect us?
I waited for him to speak.

4 Some link verbs, and 'pretend' are followed by 'to be' and an '-ing' form for continuing actions, and by 'to have' and a past participle for finished actions. See also Unit 73.

We pretended to be looking inside.
I don't appear to have written down his name.

5 Some verbs are normally used in the passive when they are followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause.

believe	consider	feel	find	know
report	say	think	understand	

He is said to have died a natural death.
Is it thought to be a good thing?

6 Some verbs are followed by a 'wh'-word and a 'to'-infinitive clause. These include:

ask	explain	imagine	learn	understand
decide	forget	know	remember	wonder

I didn't know what to call him.
She had forgotten how to ride a bicycle.

Some verbs are followed by an object, then a 'wh'-word and a 'to'-infinitive clause.

ask remind show teach tell

I asked him what to do.
Who will show him how to use it?

Some verbs only take 'to'-infinitive clauses to express purpose.

See Unit 97.

The captain stopped to reload the gun.
He went to get some fresh milk.

7 You use a 'to'-infinitive clause after a noun to indicate the aim of an action or the purpose of a physical object.

We arranged a meeting to discuss the new rules.
He had nothing to write with.

You also use a 'to'-infinitive clause after a noun to say that something needs to be done.

I gave him several things to mend.
'What's this?' - 'A list of things to remember.'

8 You use a 'to'-infinitive clause after a noun group that includes an ordinal number, a superlative, or a word like 'next', 'last', or 'only'.

She was the first woman to be elected to the council.
Mr Holmes was the oldest person to be chosen.
The only person to speak was James.

9 You use a 'to'-infinitive clause after abstract nouns to give more specific information about them.

All it takes is a willingness to learn.
He'd lost the ability to communicate with people.

The following abstract nouns are often followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause:

ability	attempt	chance	desire
failure	inability	need	opportunity
unwillingness	willingness		

Note that the verbs or adjectives which are related to these nouns can also be followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause. For example, you can say 'I attempted to find them', and 'He was willing to learn'.

See Unit 95 for information on nouns that are related to reporting verbs and can be followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause.

Unit 71: Verb + 'to'- or '-ing'

Main points

- Some verbs take a 'to'-infinitive clause or an '-ing' clause with little difference in meaning. Others take a 'to'-infinitive or '-ing' clause, but the meaning is different.

1 The following verbs can be followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause or an '-ing' clause, with little difference in meaning.

attempt	begin	bother	continue	fear
hate	love	prefer	start	try

It started raining.
A very cold wind had started to blow.
The captain didn't bother answering.
I didn't bother to answer.

Note that if these verbs are used in a continuous tense, they are followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause.

The company is beginning to export to the West.
We are continuing to make good progress.

After 'begin', 'continue', and 'start', you use a 'to'-infinitive clause with the verbs 'understand', 'know', and 'realize'.

I began to understand her a bit better.

2 You can often use 'like' with a 'to'-infinitive or an '-ing' clause with little difference in meaning.

I like to fish.
I like fishing.

However, there is sometimes a difference. You can use 'like' followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause to say that you think something is a good idea, or the right thing to do. You cannot use an '-ing' clause with this meaning.

They like to interview you first.
I didn't like to ask him.

3 After 'remember', 'forget', and 'regret', you use an '-ing' clause if you are referring to an event after it has happened.

I remember discussing it once before.
I'll never forget going out with my old aunt.
She did not regret accepting his offer.

You use a 'to'-infinitive clause after 'remember' and 'forget' if you are referring to an event before it happens.

I must remember to send a gift for her child.
Don't forget to send in your entries.

After 'regret', in formal English, you use a 'to'-infinitive clause with these verbs to say that you are sorry about what you are saying or doing now:

announce	learn	see
inform	say	tell

I regret to say that it was all burned up.

4 If you 'try to do' something, you make an effort to do it. If you 'try doing' something, you do it as an experiment, for example to see if you like it or if it is effective.

I tried to explain.
Have you tried painting it?

5 If you 'go on doing' something, you continue to do it. If you 'go on to do' something, you do it after you have finished doing something else.

I went on writing.
He later went on to form a computer company.

6 If you 'are used to doing' something, you are accustomed to doing it. If you 'used to do' something, you did it regularly in the past, but you no longer do it now.

We are used to working together.
I used to live in this street.

7 After 'need', you use a 'to'-infinitive clause if the subject of 'need' is also the subject of the 'to'-infinitive clause. You use an '-ing' form if the subject of 'need' is the object of the '-ing' clause.

We need to ask certain questions.
It needs cutting.

Unit 72: Verbs with other clauses

Main points

- 'Make' and 'let' can be followed by an object and a base form.
- Some verbs of perception can be followed by an object and an '-ing' clause, or an object and a base form.
- 'Have' and 'get' can be followed by an object and a past participle.
- 'Dare' is followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause or a base form.

1 You can use an object and a base form after 'make' to say that one person causes another person to do something, or after 'let' to say they allow them to do something.

My father made me go for the interview.
Jenny let him talk.

2 Some verbs of perception are used with an object and an '-ing' clause if an action is unfinished or continues over a period of time, and with an object and a base form if the action is finished.

feel	hear	see	watch

He heard a distant voice shouting.
Dr Hochstadt heard her gasp.

You normally use an '-ing' clause after 'notice', 'observe', 'smell', and 'understand'.

I could smell Chinese vegetables cooking.
We can understand them wanting to go.

3 You can use an object and a past participle after 'have' or 'get', when you want to say that someone arranges for something to be done. 'Have' is slightly more formal.

We've just had the house decorated.
We must get the car repaired.

You also use 'have' and 'get' with an object and a past participle to say that something happens to someone, especially if it is unpleasant.

She had her purse stolen.
He got his car broken into at the weekend.

4 You use 'have' followed by an object and an '-ing' clause, or an object and a past participle, when you want to say that someone causes something to happen, either intentionally or unintentionally.

Alan had me looking for that book all day.
He had me utterly confused.

5 You use 'want' and 'would like' with an object and a past participle to indicate that you want something to be done.

I want the work finished by January 1st.
How would you like your hair cut, sir?

6 'Dare' can be followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause or a base form in negative or interrogative sentences:

- when there is an auxiliary or modal in front of 'dare'
  He did not dare to walk to the village.
  What bank would dare offer such terms?
- when you use the form 'dares' or 'dared' (but not 'dares not' or 'dared not')
  No one dares disturb him.
  No other manager dared to compete.

You must use a base form in:

- negative or interrogative sentences without an auxiliary or modal before 'dare'
  I daren't ring Jeremy again.
  Nobody dare disturb him.
  Dare she go in?
- negative sentences with 'dares not' or 'dared not'
  He dares not risk it.
  Sonny dared not disobey.

Note that the phrase 'how dare you' is always followed by a base form.

How dare you speak to me like that?

'Dare' is rarely used in affirmative sentences.

Unit 73: Link verbs

Main points

- Link verbs are used to join the subject with a complement.
- Link verbs can have adjectives, noun groups, or 'to'-infinitive clauses as complements.
- You can use 'it' and 'there' as impersonal subjects with link verbs.

1 A small but important group of verbs are followed by a complement rather than an object. The complement tells you more about the subject. Verbs that take complements are called 'link' verbs.

appear	be	become	feel	get
go	grow	keep	look	prove
remain	seem	smell	sound	stay
taste	turn			

I am proud of these people.
She was getting too old to play tennis.
They looked all right to me.

2 Link verbs often have adjectives as complements describing the subject.

We felt very happy.
He was the tallest in the room.

See Units 31 to 33 and Unit 47 for more information about adjectives after link verbs.

3 You can use link verbs with noun groups as complements to give your opinion about the subject.

He's not the right man for it.
She seemed an ideal person to look after them.

You also use noun groups as complements after 'be', 'become', and 'remain' to specify the subject.

He became a geologist.
Promises by MPs remained just promises.
This one is yours.

Note that you use object pronouns after 'be'.

It's me again.

4 Some link verbs can have 'to'-infinitive clauses as complements.

appear	grow	prove
get	look	seem

He appears to have taken my keys.
She seemed to like me.

These verbs, and 'remain', can also be followed by 'to be' and a complement.

Mary seemed to be asleep.
His new job proved to be a challenge.

5 You can use 'it' and 'there' as impersonal subjects with link verbs.

It seems silly not to tell him.
There appears to have been a mistake.

See Units 17 and 18 for more information.

You can use 'be' with some abstract nouns as the subject, followed by a 'that'-clause or a 'to'-infinitive clause as the complement.

advice	agreement	answer	decision
idea	plan	problem	solution

The answer is that they are not interested in it.
The idea was to spend more money on training.

Some can only have a 'that'-clause.

conclusion	explanation	fact	feeling
reason	report	thought	understanding

The fact is that I can't go to the party.

Unit 74: Reporting the past

Main points

- A report structure is used to report what people say or think.
- You use the present tense of the reporting verb when you are reporting something that someone says or thinks at the time you are speaking.
- You often use past tenses in report structures because a reported clause usually reports something that was said or believed in the past.

1 You use a report structure to report what people say or think. A report structure consists of two parts. One part is the reporting clause, which contains the reporting verb.

I told him nothing was going to happen to me.
I agreed that he should do it.

The other part is the reported clause.

He felt that he had to do something.
Henry said he wanted to go home.

See Units 75-77 for more information on report structures.

2 For the verb in the reporting clause, you choose a tense that is appropriate at the time you are speaking.

Because reports are usually about something that was said or believed in the past, both the reporting verb and the verb in the reported clause are often in a past tense.

Mrs Kaur announced that the lecture had begun.
At the time we thought that he was mad.

3 Although you normally use past tenses in reports about the past, you can use a present tense in the reported clause if what you are saying is important in the present, for example:

- because you want to emphasize that it is still true

Did you tell him that this young woman is looking for a job?

- because you want to give advice or a warning, or make a suggestion for the present or future

I told you they have this class on Friday afternoon, so you should have come a bit earlier.

4 You use a present tense for the reporting verb when you are reporting:

- what someone says or thinks at the time you are speaking

She says she wants to see you this afternoon.
I think there's something wrong.

Note that, as in the last example, it may be your own thoughts that you are reporting.

- what someone often says

He says that no one understands him.

- what someone has said in the past, if what they said is still true

My doctor says it's nothing to worry about.

5 If you are predicting what people will say or think, you use a future tense for the reporting verb.

No doubt he will claim that his car broke down.
They will think we are making a fuss.

6 You very rarely try to report the exact words of a statement. You usually give a summary of what was said. For example, John might say:

'I tried to phone you about six times yesterday. I let the phone ring for ages but there was no answer. I couldn't get through at all so I finally gave up.'

You would probably report this as:

John said he tried to phone several times yesterday, but he couldn't get through.

7 When you are telling a story of your own, or one that you have heard from someone else, direct speech simply becomes part of the narrative.

In this extract a taxi driver picks up a passenger:

'What part of London are you headed for?' I asked him.

'I'm going to Epsom for the races. It's Derby day today.'

'So it is,' I said. 'I wish I were going with you. I love betting on horses.'

You might report this as part of the narrative without reporting verbs:

My passenger was going to Epsom to see the Derby, and I wanted to go with him.

Unit 75: Reported questions

Main points

- You use reported questions to talk about a question that someone else has asked.
- In reported questions, the subject of the question comes before the verb.
- You use 'if' or 'whether' in reported 'yes/no'-questions.

1 When you are talking about a question that someone has asked, you use a reported question.

She asked me why I was so late.
He wanted to know where I was going.
I demanded to know what was going on.
I asked her if I could help her.
I asked her whether there was anything wrong.

In formal and written English, 'enquire' (also spelled 'inquire') is often used instead of 'ask'.

Wilkie had enquired if she did a lot of acting.
He inquired whether he could see her.

2 When you are reporting a question, the verb in the reported clause is often in a past tense. This is because you are often talking about the past when you are reporting someone else's words.

She asked me why I was so late.
Pat asked him if she had hurt him.

However, you can use a present or future tense if the question you are reporting relates to the present or future.

Mark was asking if you're enjoying your new job.
They asked if you'll be there tomorrow night.

3 In reported questions, the subject of the question comes before the verb, just as it does in affirmative sentences.

She asked me why I was late.
I asked what he was doing.

4 You do not normally use the auxiliary 'do' in reported questions.

She asked him if his parents spoke French.
They asked us what we thought.

The auxiliary 'do' can be used in reported questions, but only for emphasis, or to make a contrast with something that has already been said. It is not put before the subject as in direct questions.

She asked me whether I really did mean it.
I told him I didn't like classical music. He asked me what kind of music I did like.

5 You use 'if' or 'whether' to introduce reported 'yes/no'-questions.

I asked him if he was on holiday.
She hugged him and asked him whether he was all right.
I asked him whether he was single.

'Whether' is used especially when there is a choice of possibilities.

I was asked whether I wanted to stay at a hotel or at his home.
They asked whether Tim was or was not in the team.
I asked him whether he loved me or not.

Note that you can put 'or not' immediately after 'whether', but not immediately after 'if'.

The police didn't ask whether or not they were in.

See Units 74, 76, and 77 for more information on reporting.

Unit 76: Reporting: 'that'-clauses

Main points

- You usually use your own words to report what someone said, rather than repeating their exact words.
- Report structures contain a reporting clause first, then a reported clause.
- When you are reporting a statement, the reported clause is a 'that'-clause.
- You must mention the hearer with 'tell'. You need not mention the hearer with 'say'.

1 When you are reporting what someone said, you do not usually repeat their exact words, you use your own words in a report structure.

Jim said he wanted to go home.

Jim's actual words might have been 'It's time I went' or 'I must go'.

Report structures contain two clauses. The first clause is the reporting clause, which contains a reporting verb such as 'say', 'tell', or 'ask'.

She said that she'd been to Belgium.

The man in the shop told me how much it would cost.

You often use verbs that refer to people's thoughts and feelings to report what people say. If someone says 'I am wrong', you might report this as 'He felt that he was wrong'. See Unit 77 for more information.

2 The second clause in a report structure is the reported clause, which contains the information that you are reporting. The reported clause can be a 'that'-clause, a 'to'-infinitive clause, an 'if'-clause, or a 'wh'-word clause.

She said that she didn't know.
He told me to do it.
Mary asked if she could stay with us.
She asked where he'd gone.

3 If you want to report a statement, you use a 'that'-clause after a verb such as 'say'.

admit	agree	answer	argue	claim
complain	decide	deny	explain	insist
mention	promise	reply	say	warn

He said that he would go.

I replied that I had not read it yet.

You often omit 'that' from the 'that'-clause, but not after 'answer', 'argue', 'explain', or 'reply'.

They said I had to see a doctor first.

He answered that the price would be three pounds.

You often mention the hearer after the preposition 'to' with the following verbs.

admit	complain	mention	suggest
announce	explain	say	

He complained to me that you were rude.

4 'Tell' and some other reporting verbs are also used with a 'that'-clause, but with these verbs you have to mention the hearer as the object of the verb.

convince	notify	reassure	tell
inform	persuade	remind	

He told me that he was a farmer.

I informed her that I could not come.

The word 'that' is often omitted after 'tell'.

I told them you were at the dentist.

You can also mention the hearer as the object of the verb with 'promise' and 'warn'.

I promised her that I wouldn't be late.

5 Note the differences between 'say' and 'tell'. You cannot use 'say' with the hearer as the object of the verb. You cannot say 'I said them you had gone'. You cannot use 'tell' without the hearer as the object of the verb. You cannot say 'I told that you had gone'. You cannot use 'tell' with 'to' and the hearer. You cannot say 'I told to them you had gone'.

6 The reporting verbs that have the hearer as object, such as 'tell', can be used in the passive.

She was told that there were no tickets left.

Most reporting verbs that do not need the hearer as object, such as 'say', can be used in the passive with impersonal 'it' as subject, but not 'answer', 'complain', 'insist', 'promise', 'reply', or 'warn'.

It was said that the money had been stolen.

See also Units 74 and 77.

Unit 77: Other report structures

Main points

- When reporting an order, a request, or a piece of advice, the reported clause is a 'to'-infinitive clause, used after an object.
- When reporting a question, the reported clause is an 'if'-clause or a 'wh'-word clause.
- Many reporting verbs refer to people's thoughts and feelings.

1 If you want to report an order, a request, or a piece of advice, you use a 'to'-infinitive clause after a reporting verb such as 'tell', 'ask', or 'advise'. You mention the hearer as the object of the verb, before the 'to'-infinitive clause.

advise	ask	beg	command
forbid	instruct	invite	order
persuade	remind	tell	warn

Johnson told her to wake him up.
He ordered me to fetch the books.
He asked her to marry him.
He advised me to buy it.

If the order, request, or advice is negative, you put 'not' before the 'to'-infinitive.

He had ordered his officers not to use weapons.
She asked her staff not to discuss it publicly.
Doctors advised him not to play for three weeks.

If the subject of the 'to'-infinitive clause is the same as the subject of the main verb, you can use 'ask' or 'beg' to report a request without mentioning the hearer.

I asked to see the manager.
Both men begged not to be named.

2 If you want to report a question, you use a verb such as 'ask' followed by an 'if'-clause or a 'wh'-word clause.

I asked if I could stay with them.
They wondered whether the time was right.
He asked me where I was going.
She inquired how Ibrahim was getting on.

Note that in reported questions, the subject of the question comes before the verb, just as it does in affirmative sentences.

See Unit 75.

3 Many reporting verbs refer to people's thoughts and feelings but are often used to report what people say. For example, if someone says 'I must go', you might report this as 'She wanted to go' or 'She thought she should go'.

Some of these verbs are followed by:

- a 'that'-clause

accept	believe	consider	fear
feel	guess	imagine	know
suppose	think	understand	worry

We both knew that the town was cut off.
I had always believed that I would see him again.

- a 'to'-infinitive clause

intend	plan	want

He doesn't want to get up.

- a 'that'-clause or a 'to'-infinitive clause

agree	decide	expect	forget	hope
prefer	regret	remember	wish	

She hoped she wasn't going to cry.
They are in love and wish to marry.

'Expect' and 'prefer' can also be followed by an object and a 'to'-infinitive.

I'm sure she doesn't expect you to take the plane.
The headmaster prefers them to act plays they have written themselves.

4 A speaker's exact words are more often used in stories than in ordinary conversation.

'I knew I'd seen you,' I said.
'Only one,' replied the Englishman.
'Let's go and have a look at the swimming pool,' she suggested.

In ordinary conversation, it is normal to use a report structure rather than to repeat someone's exact words.

Unit 78: The passive voice

Main points

- You use the passive voice to focus on the person or thing affected by an action.
- You form the passive by using a form of 'be' and a past participle.
- Only verbs that have an object can have a passive form. With verbs that can have two objects, either object can be the subject of the passive.

1 When you want to talk about the person or thing that performs an action, you use the active voice.

Mr Smith locks the gate at 6 o'clock every night.
The storm destroyed dozens of trees.

When you want to focus on the person or thing that is affected by an action, rather than the person or thing that performs the action, you use the passive voice.

The gate is locked at 6 o'clock every night.
Dozens of trees were destroyed.

2 The passive is formed with a form of the auxiliary 'be', followed by the past participle of a main verb.

Two new stores were opened this year.
The room had been cleaned.

Continuous passive tenses are formed with a form of the auxiliary 'be' followed by 'being' and the past participle of a main verb.

Jobs are still being lost.
It was being done without his knowledge.

3 After modals you use the base form 'be' followed by the past participle of a main verb.

What can be done?
We won't be beaten.

When you are talking about the past, you use a modal with 'have been' followed by the past participle of a main verb.

He may have been given the car.
He couldn't have been told by Jimmy.

4 You form passive infinitives by using 'to be' or 'to have been' followed by the past participle of a main verb.

He wanted to be forgiven.
The car was reported to have been stolen.

5 In informal English, 'get' is sometimes used instead of 'be' to form the passive.

Our car gets cleaned every weekend.
He got killed in a plane crash.

6 When you use the passive, you often do not mention the person or thing that performs the action at all. This may be because you do not know or do not want to say who it is, or because it does not matter.

Her boyfriend was shot in the chest.
Your application was rejected.
Such items should be carefully packed in tea chests.

7 If you are using the passive and you do want to mention the person or thing that performs the action, you use 'by'.

He had been poisoned by his girlfriend.
He was brought up by an aunt.

You use 'with' to talk about something that is used to perform the action.

A circle was drawn in the dirt with a stick.
He was killed with a knife.

8 Only verbs that usually have an object can have a passive form. You can say 'people spend money' or 'money is spent'.

An enormous amount of money is spent on beer.
The food is sold at local markets.

With verbs which can have two objects, you can form two different passive sentences. For example, you can say 'The secretary was given the key' or 'The key was given to the secretary'.

They were offered a new flat.
The books will be sent to you.

See Unit 52 for more information on verbs that can have two objects.

Unit 79: Introduction to modals

Main points

- The modal verbs are: 'can', 'could', 'may', 'might', 'must', 'ought', 'shall', 'should', 'will', and 'would'
- Modals are always the first word in a verb group.
- All modals except for 'ought' are followed by the base form of a verb.
- 'Ought' is followed by a 'to'-infinitive.
- Modals have only one form.
- Modals can be used for various different purposes. These are explained in Units 80-91.

1 Modals are always the first word in a verb group. All modals except for 'ought' are followed by the base form of a verb.

I must leave fairly soon.
I think it will look rather nice.
Things might have been so different.
People may be watching.

2 'Ought' is always followed by a 'to'-infinitive.

She ought to go straight back to England.
Sam ought to have realized how dangerous it was.
You ought to be doing this.

3 Modals have only one form. There is no '-s' form for the third person singular of the present tense, and there are no '-ing' or '-ed' forms.

There's nothing I can do about it.
I'm sure he can do it.

4 Modals do not normally indicate the time when something happens. There are, however, a few exceptions.

'Shall' and 'will' often indicate a future event or situation.

I shall do what you suggested.
He will not return for many hours.

'Could' is used as the past form of 'can' to express ability. 'Would' is used as the past form of 'will' to express the future.

When I was young, I could run for miles.
He remembered that he would see his mother the next day.

5 In spoken English and informal written English, 'shall' and 'will' are shortened to '-'ll', and 'would' to '-'d', and added to a pronoun.

I'll see you tomorrow.
I hope you'll agree.
Posy said she'd love to stay.

'Shall', 'will', and 'would' are never shortened if they come at the end of a sentence.

Paul said he would come, and I hope he will.

In spoken English, you can also add '-'ll' and '-'d' to nouns.

My car'll be outside.
The headmaster'd be furious.

WARNING: Remember that '-d' is also the short form of the auxiliary 'had'.

I'd heard it many times.

Unit 80: Introduction to modals 2

Main points

- You use negative words with modals to make negative clauses.
- Modals go in front of the subject in questions.
- You never use two modals together.

1 To make a clause negative, you put a negative word immediately after the modal.

You must not worry.
I can never remember his name.
He ought not to have done that.

'Can not' is always written as one word, 'cannot'.

I cannot go back.

However, if 'can' is followed by 'not only', 'can' and 'not' are not joined.

We can not only book your flight for you, but also advise you about hotels.

2 In spoken English and informal written English, 'not' is often shortened to '-n't' and added to the modal. The following modals are often shortened in this way:

could not	→	couldn't
should not	→	shouldn't
must not	→	mustn't
would not	→	wouldn't

We couldn't leave the farm.
You mustn't talk about Ron like that.

Note the following irregular short forms:

shall not	→	shan't
will not	→	won't
cannot	→	can't

I shan't let you go.
Won't you change your mind?
We can't stop now.

'Might not' and 'ought not' are sometimes shortened to 'mightn't' and 'oughtn't'.

Note that 'may not' is very rarely shortened to 'mayn't' in modern English.

3 To make a question, you put the modal in front of the subject.

Could you give me an example?
Will you be coming in later?
Shall I shut the door?

Modals are also used in question tags.

See Units 7 and 8 for more information.

4 You never use two modals together. For example, you cannot say 'He will can come'. Instead you can say 'He will be able to come'.

I shall have to go.
Your husband might have to give up work.

5 Instead of using modals, you can often use other verbs and expressions to make requests, offers, or suggestions, to express wishes or intentions, or to show that you are being polite.

For example, 'be able to' is used instead of 'can', 'be likely to' is used instead of 'might', and 'have to' is used instead of 'must'.

All members are able to claim expenses.
I think that we are likely to see more of this.

These expressions are also used after modals.

I really thought I wouldn't be able to visit you this week.

6 'Dare' and 'need' sometimes behave like modals.

See Unit 72 for information on 'dare' and Units 71 and 90 for information on 'need'.

Unit 81: Possibility

Main points

- You use 'can' to say that something is possible.
- You use 'could','might', and 'may' to indicate that you are not certain whether something is possible, but you think it is.

1 When you want to say that something is possible, you use 'can'.

Cooking can be a real pleasure.
In some cases this can cause difficulty.

You use 'cannot' or 'can't' to say that something is not possible.

This cannot be the answer.
You can't be serious.

2 When you want to indicate that you are not certain whether something is possible, but you think it is, you use 'could', 'might', or 'may'. There is no important difference in meaning between these modals, but 'may' is slightly more formal.

That could be one reason.
He might come.
They may help us.

You can also use 'might not' or 'may not' in this way.

He might not be in England at all.
They may not get a house with central heating.
Note that 'could not' normally refers to ability in the past. See Unit 83.

3 When there is a possibility that something happened in the past, but you are not certain if it actually happened, you use 'could have', 'may have', or 'might have', followed by a past participle.

It could have been tomato soup.
You may have noticed this advertisement.

You can also use 'might not have' or 'may not have' in this way.

He might not have seen me.
They may not have done it.

You use 'could not have' when you want to indicate that it is not possible that something happened.

He didn't have a boat, so he couldn't have rowed away.
It couldn't have been wrong.

You also use 'could have' to say that there was a possibility of something happening in the past, but it did not happen.

It could have been awful. (But it wasn't awful.)
You could have got a job last year. (But you didn't get a job.)

4 You also use 'might have' or 'could have' followed by a past participle to say that if a particular thing had happened, then there was a possibility of something else happening.

She said it might have been all right, if the weather had been good. (But the weather wasn't good, so it wasn't all right.)
If I'd been there, I could have helped you. (But I wasn't there, so I couldn't help you.)

5 'Be able to', 'not be able to', and 'be unable to' are sometimes used instead of 'can' and 'cannot', for example after another modal, or when you want to use a 'to'-infinitive, an '-ing' form, or a past participle.

When will I be able to pick them up?
He had been unable to get a ticket.

6 You use 'used to be able to' to say that something was possible in the past, but is not possible now.

Everyone used to be able to have free eye tests.
You used to be able to buy cigarettes in packs of five.

7 Note that you also use 'could' followed by a negative word and the comparative form of an adjective to emphasize a quality that someone or something has. For example, if you say 'I couldn't be happier', you mean that you are very happy indeed and cannot imagine being happier than you are now.

You couldn't be more wrong.
He could hardly have felt more ashamed of himself.

Unit 82: Probability and certainty

Main points

- You use 'must', 'ought', 'should', or 'will' to express probability or certainty.
- You use 'cannot' or 'can't' as the negative of 'must', rather than 'must not' or 'mustn't', to say that something is not probable or is not certain.

1 When you want to say that something is probably true or that it will probably happen, you use 'should' or 'ought'. 'Should' is followed by the base form of a verb. 'Ought' is followed by a 'to'-infinitive.

We should arrive by dinner time.
She ought to know.

When you want to say that you think something is probably not true or that it will probably not happen, you use 'should not' or 'ought not'.

There shouldn't be any problem.
That ought not to be too difficult.

2 When you want to say that you are fairly sure that something has happened, you use 'should have' or 'ought to have', followed by a past participle.

You should have heard by now that I'm leaving.
They ought to have arrived yesterday.

When you want to say that you do not think that something has happened, you use 'should not have' or 'ought not to have', followed by a past participle.

You shouldn't have had any difficulty in getting there.
This ought not to have been a problem.

3 You also use 'should have' or 'ought to have' to say that you expected something to happen, but that it did not happen.

Yesterday should have been the start of the soccer season.
She ought to have been home by now.

Note that you do not normally use the negative forms with this meaning.

4 When you are fairly sure that something is the case, you use 'must'.

Oh, you must be Sylvia's husband.
He must know something about it.

If you are fairly sure that something is not the case, you use 'cannot' or 'can't'.

This cannot be the whole story.
He can't be very old - he's about 25, isn't he?

WARNING: You do not use 'must not' or 'mustn't' with this meaning.

5 When you want to say that you are almost certain that something has happened, you use 'must have', followed by a past participle.

This article must have been written by a woman.
We must have taken the wrong road.

To say that you do not think that something has happened, you use 'can't have', followed by a past participle.

You can't have forgotten me.
He can't have said that.

6 You use 'will' or '-'ll' to say that something is certain to happen in the future.

People will always say the things you want to hear.
They'll manage.

You use 'will not' or 'won't' to say that something is certain not to happen.

You won't get much sympathy from them.

7 There are several ways of talking about probability and certainty without using modals. For example, you can use:

- 'bound to' followed by the base form of a verb
  It was bound to happen.
  You're bound to make a mistake.
- an adjective such as 'certain', 'likely', 'sure', or 'unlikely', followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause or a 'that'-clause
  They were certain that you were defeated.
  I am not likely to forget it.

See Unit 33 for more information on these adjectives.

Unit 83: Ability

Main points

- You use 'can' to talk about ability in the present and in the future.
- You use 'could' to talk about ability in the past.
- You use 'be able to' to talk about ability in the present, future, and past.

1 You use 'can' to say that someone has the ability to do something.

You can all read and write.
Anybody can become a qualified teacher.

You use 'cannot' or 'can't' to say that they do not have the ability to do something.

He cannot dance.

2 When you want to talk about someone's ability in the past as a result of a skill they had or did not have, you use 'could', 'could not', or 'couldn't'.

He could run faster than anyone else.
A lot of them couldn't read or write.

3 You also use 'be able to', 'not be able to', and 'be unable to' to talk about someone's ability to do something, but 'can' and 'could' are more common.

She was able to tie her own shoelaces.
They are not able to run very fast.
Many people were unable to read or write.

4 You use 'was able to' and 'were able to' to say that someone managed to do something in a particular situation in the past.

After treatment he was able to return to work.
The farmers were able to pay the new wages.
We were able to find time to discuss it.

WARNING: You do not normally use 'could' to say that someone managed to do something in a particular situation. However, you can use 'could not' or 'couldn't' to say that someone did not manage to do something in a particular situation.

We couldn't stop laughing.
I just couldn't think of anything to say.

5 When you want to say that someone had the ability to do something in the past, but did not do it, you use 'could have' followed by a past participle.

You could have given it all to me.
You know, she could have done French.

You often use this form when you want to express disapproval about something that was not done.

You could have been a little bit tidier.
You could have told me!

6 You use 'could not have' or 'couldn't have' followed by a past participle to say that it is not possible that someone had the ability to do something.

I couldn't have gone with you, because I was in London at the time.
She couldn't have taken the car, because Jim was using it.

7 In most cases, you can choose to use 'can' or 'be able to'. However, you sometimes have to use 'be able to'. You have to use 'be able to' if you are using another modal, or if you want to use an '-ing' form, a past participle, or a 'to'-infinitive.

Nobody else will be able to read it.
...the satisfaction of being able to do the job.
I don't think I'd have been able to get an answer.
You're foolish to expect to be able to do that.

8 You also use 'can' or 'could' with verbs such as 'see', 'hear', and 'smell' to say that someone is or was aware of something through one of their senses.

I can smell gas.
I can't see her.
I could see a few stars in the sky.
There was such a noise we couldn't hear.

Unit 84: Permission

Main points

- You use 'can' or 'be allowed to' to talk about whether someone has permission to do something or not.
- You usually use 'can' to give someone permission to do something.
- You usually use 'can' or 'could' to ask for permission to do something.

1 You use 'can' to say that someone is allowed to do something. You use 'cannot' or 'can't' to say that they are not allowed to do it.

Students can take a year away from university.

Children cannot bathe except in the presence of two lifesavers.

You use 'could' to say that someone was allowed to do something in the past. You use 'could not' or 'couldn't' to say that they were not allowed to do it.

We could go to any part of the island we wanted.

Both students and staff could use the swimming pool.

We couldn't go into the library after 5 pm.

2 You also use 'be allowed to' when you are talking about permission, but not when you are asking for it or giving it.

When Mr Wilt asks for a solicitor he will be allowed to see one.

It was only after several months that I was allowed to visit her.

You're not allowed to use calculators in exams.

3 In more formal situations, 'may' is used to say that someone is allowed to do something, and 'may not' is used to say that they are not allowed to do it.

They may do exactly as they like.

The retailer may not sell that book below the publisher's price.

4 When you want to give someone permission to do something, you use 'can'.

You can borrow that pen if you want to.

You can go off duty now.

She can go with you.

'May' is also used to give permission, but this is more formal.

You may speak.

You may leave as soon as you have finished.

5 When you want to refuse someone permission to do something, you use 'cannot', 'can't', 'will not', 'won't', 'shall not', or 'shan't'.

'Can I have some sweets?' - 'No, you can't!'

'I'll just go upstairs.' - 'You will not!'

You shan't leave without my permission.

6 When you are asking for permission to do something, you use 'can' or 'could'. If you ask in a very simple and direct way, you use 'can'.

Can I ask a question?

Can we have something to wipe our hands on please?

'Could' is more polite than 'can'.

Could I just interrupt a minute?

Could we put this fire on?

'May' is also used to ask permission, but this is more formal.

May I have a cigarette?

'Might' is rather old-fashioned and is not often used in modern English in this way.

Might I inquire if you are the owner?

7 You have to use 'be allowed to' instead of a modal if you are using another modal, or if you want to use an '-ing' form, a past participle, or a 'to'-infinitive.

Teachers will be allowed to decide for themselves.

I am strongly in favour of people being allowed to put on plays.

They have not been allowed to come.

We were going to be allowed to travel on the trains.

Unit 85: Instructions and requests

Main points

- You use 'Could you' to tell someone politely to do something.
- Imperatives are not very polite.
- You also use 'Could you' to ask someone politely for help.
- You use 'I would like', 'Would you mind', 'Do you think you could', and 'I wonder if you could' to make requests.

1 When you want to tell someone to do something, you can use 'Could you', 'Will you', and 'Would you'. 'Could you' is very polite.

Could you make out her bill, please?
Could you just switch on the light behind you?

'Will you' and 'Would you' are normally used by people in authority. 'Would you' is more polite than 'Will you'.

Would you tell her that Adrian phoned?
Will you please leave the room?

Note that although these sentences look like questions ('Will you', not 'You will'), they are not really questions.

2 If someone in authority wants to tell someone to do something, they sometimes say 'I would like you to do this' or 'I'd like you to do this'.

Penelope, I would like you to get us the files.
I'd like you to finish this work by Thursday.

3 You can use an imperative to tell someone to do something, but this is not very polite.

Stop her.
Go away, all of you.

However, imperatives are commonly used when talking to people you know very well.

Come here, love.
Sit down and let me get you a drink.

You often use imperatives in situations of danger or urgency.

Look out! There's a car coming.
Put it away before Mum sees you.

4 When you want to ask someone to help you, you use 'Could you', 'Would you', 'Can you', or 'Will you'. 'Could you' and 'Would you' are used in formal situations, or when you want to be very polite, for example because you are asking for something that requires a lot of effort. 'Could you' is more polite than 'Would you'.

Could you show me how to do this?
Would you do me a favour?

'Will you' and 'Can you' are used in informal situations, especially when you are not asking for something that requires a lot of effort.

Will you post this for me on your way to work?
Can you make me a copy of that?

5 You also use 'I would like' or 'I'd like', followed by a 'to'-infinitive or a noun group, to make a request.

I would like to ask you one question.
I'd like steak and chips, please.

6 You can also make a request by using:

- 'Would you mind', followed by an '-ing' form
  Would you mind doing the washing up?
  Would you mind waiting a moment?
- 'Do you think you could', followed by the base form of a verb
  Do you think you could help me?
- 'I wonder if you could', followed by the base form of a verb
  I wonder if you could look after my cat for me while I'm away?

Unit 86: Suggestions

Main points

- You use 'could', 'couldn't', or 'shall' to make a suggestion.
- You use 'Shall we' to suggest doing something with someone.
- You use 'You might like' or 'You might want' to make polite suggestions.
- You use 'may as well' or 'might as well' to suggest a sensible action.
- You use 'What about', 'Let's', 'Why don't', and 'Why not' to make suggestions.

1 You use 'could' to suggest doing something.

You could phone her.
She could go into research.
We could go on Friday.

You also use 'couldn't' in a question to suggest doing something.

Couldn't you just build some more factories?
Couldn't we do it at the weekend?

2 You use 'Shall we' to suggest doing something with somebody else.

Shall we go and see a film?
Shall we talk about something different now?

You use 'Shall I' to suggest doing something yourself.

Shall I contact the Chairman?

3 You use 'You might', followed by a verb meaning 'like' or 'want', to make a suggestion in a very polite way.

I thought perhaps you might like to come along with me.
You might want to try another shop.

You can also do this using 'It might be', followed by a noun group or an adjective, and a 'to'-infinitive.

I think it might be a good idea to stop recording now.
It might be wise to get a new car.

4 You use 'may as well' or 'might as well' to suggest doing something, but only because it seems the sensible thing to do, or because there is no reason not to do it.

You may as well open them all.
He might as well take the car.

5 You can also make a suggestion by using:

- 'What about' or 'How about' followed by an '-ing' form
  What about going to Judy's?
  How about using my car?
- 'Let's' followed by the base form of a verb
  Let's go outside.
- 'Why don't I', 'Why don't you' or 'Why don't we' followed by the base form of a verb
  Why don't I pick you up at seven?
  Why don't you write to her yourself?
  Why don't we just give them what they want?
- 'Why not' followed by the base form of a verb
  Why not bring him along?
  Why not try both?

Unit 87: Offers and invitations

Main points

- You use 'Would you like' to offer something to someone or to invite them to do something.
- You use 'Can I', 'Could I', and 'Shall I' when you offer to help someone.

1 When you are offering something to someone, or inviting them to do something, you use 'Would you like'.

Would you like a drink?
Would you like to come for a meal?

You can use 'Will you' to offer something to someone you know quite well, or to give an invitation in a fairly informal way.

Will you have another biscuit, Dave?
Will you come to my party on Saturday?

2 You use 'Can I' or 'Could I' when you are offering to do something for someone. 'Could I' is more polite.

Can I help you with the dishes?
Could I help you carry those bags?

You also use 'Shall I' when you are offering to do something, especially if you are fairly sure that your offer will be accepted.

Shall I shut the door?
Shall I spell that for you?

3 You use 'I can' or 'I could' to make an offer when you want to say that you are able to help someone.

I have a car. I can take Daisy to the station.
I could pay some of the rent.

4 You also use 'I'll' to offer to do something.

I'll give them a ring if you like.
I'll show you the hotel.

5 You use 'You must' if you want to invite someone very persuasively to do something.

You must come round for a meal some time.
You must come and visit me.

6 There are other ways of making offers and giving invitations without using modals. For example, you can use 'Let me' when offering to help someone.

Let me take you to your room.
Let me drive you to London.

You can make an offer or give an invitation in a more informal way by using an imperative sentence, when it is clear that you are not giving an order.

Have a cigar.
Come to my place.

You can add emphasis by putting 'do' in front of the verb.

Do have a chocolate biscuit.
Do help yourselves.

You can also give an invitation by using 'Why don't you' or 'How about'.

Why don't you come to lunch tomorrow?
How about coming with us to the party?

Unit 88: Wants and wishes

Main points

- You use 'would like' to say what you want.
- You use 'wouldn't like' to say what you do not want.
- You use 'would rather' or 'would sooner' to say what you prefer.
- You also use 'wouldn't mind' to say what you want.

1 You can say what someone wants by using 'would like' followed by a 'to'-infinitive or a noun group.

I would like to know the date of the next meeting.
John would like his book back.

When the subject is a pronoun, you often use the short form '-'d' instead of 'would'.

I'd like more information about the work you do.
We'd like seats in the non-smoking section, please.

In spoken English, you can also use the short form '-'d' instead of 'would' when the subject is a noun.

Sally'd like to go to the circus.

2 You can say what someone does not want by using 'would not like' or 'wouldn't like'.

I would not like to see it.
They wouldn't like that.

3 You use 'would like' followed by 'to have' and a past participle to say that someone wishes now that something had happened in the past, but that it did not happen.

I would like to have felt more relaxed.
She'd like to have heard me first.

You use 'would have liked', followed by a 'to'-infinitive or a noun group, to say that someone wanted something to happen, but it did not happen.

Perhaps he would have liked to be a teacher.
I would have liked more ice cream.

Note the difference. 'Would like to have' refers to present wishes about past events. 'Would have liked' refers to past wishes about past events.

4 You can also use 'would hate', 'would love', or 'would prefer', followed by a 'to'-infinitive or a noun group.

I would hate to move to another house now.
I would prefer a cup of coffee.

Note that 'would enjoy' is followed by a noun group or an '-ing' form, not by a 'to'-infinitive.

I would enjoy a bath before we go.
I would enjoy seeing him again.

5 You can use 'would rather' or 'would sooner' followed by the base form of a verb to say that someone prefers one situation to another.

He'd rather be playing golf.
I'd sooner walk than take the bus.

6 You use 'I wouldn't mind', followed by an '-ing' form or a noun group, to say that you would like to do or have something.

I wouldn't mind being the manager of a store.
I wouldn't mind a cup of tea.

Unit 89: Obligation and necessity 1

Main points

- You use 'have to', 'must', and 'mustn't' to talk about obligation and necessity in the present and future.
- You use 'had to' to talk about obligation and necessity in the past.
- You use the auxiliary 'do' with 'have to' to make questions.
- You use 'have got to' in informal English.

1 When you want to say that someone has an obligation to do something, or that it is necessary for them to do it, you use 'must' or 'have to'.

You must come to the meeting tomorrow.
The plants must have plenty of sunshine.
I enjoy parties, unless I have to make a speech.
He has to travel to find work.

2 There is sometimes a difference between 'must' and 'have to'. When you are stating your own opinion that something is an obligation or a necessity, you normally use 'must'.

I must be very careful not to upset him.
We must eat before we go.
He must stop working so hard.

When you are giving information about what someone else considers to be an obligation or a necessity, you normally use 'have to'.

They have to pay the bill by Thursday.
She has to go now.

Note that you normally use 'have to' for things that happen repeatedly, especially with adverbs of frequency such as 'often', 'always', and 'regularly'.

I always have to do the shopping.
You often have to wait a long time for a bus.

3 You use 'must not' or 'mustn't' to say that it is important that something is not done or does not happen.

You must not talk about politics.
They mustn't find out that I came here.

Note that 'must not' does not mean the same as 'not have to'. If you 'must not' do something, it is important that you do not do it.

If you 'do not have to' do something, it is not necessary for you to do it, but you can do it if you want.

WARNING: You only use 'must' for obligation and necessity in the present and the future. When you want to talk about obligation and necessity in the past, you use 'had to' rather than 'must'.

She had to catch the six o'clock train.
I had to wear a suit.

4 You use 'do', 'does', or 'did' when you want to make a question using 'have to' and 'not have to'.

How often do you have to buy petrol for the car?
Does he have to take so long to get ready?
What did you have to do?
Don't you have to be there at one o'clock?

WARNING: You do not normally form questions like these by putting a form of 'have' before the subject. For example, you do not normally say 'How often have you to buy petrol?'

5 In informal English, you can use 'have got to' instead of 'have to'.

You've just got to make sure you tell him.
She's got to see the doctor.
Have you got to go so soon?

WARNING: You normally use 'had to', not 'had got to', for the past.

He had to know.
I had to lend him some money.

6 You can only use 'have to', not 'must', if you are using another modal, or if you want to use an '-ing' form, a past participle, or a 'to'-infinitive.

They may have to be paid by cheque.
She grumbled a lot about having to stay abroad.
I would have had to go through London.
He doesn't like to have to do the same job every day.

Unit 90: Obligation and necessity 2

Main points

- You use 'need to' to talk about necessity.
- You use 'don't have to', 'don't need to', 'haven't got to', or 'needn't' to say that it is not necessary to do something.
- You use 'needn't' to give someone permission not to do something.
- You use 'need not have', 'needn't have', 'didn't need to', or 'didn't have to' to say that it was not necessary to do something in the past.

1 You can use 'need to' to talk about the necessity of doing something.

You might need to see a doctor.
A number of questions need to be asked.

2 You use 'don't have to' when there is no obligation or necessity to do something.

Many women don't have to work.
You don't have to learn any new typing skills.

You can also use 'don't need to', 'haven't got to', or 'needn't' to say that there is no obligation or necessity to do something.

You don't need to buy anything.
I haven't got to go to work today.
I can pick John up. You needn't bother.

3 You also use 'needn't' when you are giving someone permission not to do something.

You needn't say anything if you don't want to.
You needn't stay any longer tonight.

4 You use 'need not have' or 'needn't have' and a past participle to say that someone did something which was not necessary. You are often implying that the person did not know at the time that their action was not necessary.

I needn't have waited until the game began.
Nell needn't have worked.
They needn't have worried about Reagan.

5 You use 'didn't need to' to say that something was not necessary, and that it was known at the time that the action was not necessary. You do not know if the action was done, unless you are given more information.

They didn't need to talk about it.
I didn't need to worry.

6 You also use 'didn't have to' to say that it was not necessary to do something.

He didn't have to speak.
Bill and I didn't have to pay.

7 You cannot use 'must' to refer to the past, so when you want to say that it was important that something did not happen or was not done, you use other expressions.

You can say 'It was important not to', or use phrases like 'had to make sure' or 'had to make certain' in a negative sentence.

It was important not to take the game too seriously.
It was necessary that no one was aware of being watched.
You had to make sure that you didn't spend too much.
We had to do our best to make certain that it wasn't out of date.

Unit 91: Mild obligation and advice

Main points

- You use 'should' and 'ought' to talk about mild obligation.
- You use 'should have' and 'ought to have' to say that there was a mild obligation to do something in the past, but it was not done.
- You can also use 'had better' to talk about mild obligation.

1 You can use 'should' and 'ought' to talk about a mild obligation to do something. When you use 'should' and 'ought', you are saying that the feeling of obligation is not as strong as when you use 'must'.

'Should' and 'ought' are very common in spoken English.

'Should' is followed by the base form of a verb, but 'ought' is followed by a 'to'-infinitive.

When you want to say that there is a mild obligation not to do something, you use 'should not', 'shouldn't, 'ought not', or 'oughtn't'.

2 You use 'should' and 'ought' in three main ways:

- when you are talking about what is a good thing to do, or the right thing to do.
  We should send her a postcard.
  We shouldn't spend all the money.
  He ought to come more often.
  You ought not to see him again.
- when you are trying to advise someone about what to do or what not to do.
  You should claim your pension 3-4 months before you retire.
  You shouldn't use a detergent.
  You ought to get a new TV.
  You oughtn't to marry him.
- when you are giving or asking for an opinion about a situation. You often use 'I think', 'I don't think', or 'Do you think' to start the sentence.
  I think that we should be paid more.
  I don't think we ought to grumble.
  Do you think he ought not to go?
  What do you think we should do?

3 You use 'should have' or 'ought to have' and a past participle to say that there was a mild obligation to do something in the past, but that it was not done. For example, if you say 'I should have given him the money yesterday', you mean that you had a mild obligation to give him the money yesterday, but you did not give it to him.

I should have finished my drink and gone home.
You should have realised that he was joking.
We ought to have stayed in tonight.
They ought to have taken a taxi.

You use 'should not have' or 'ought not to have' and a past participle to say that it was important not to do something in the past, but that it was done. For example, if you say 'I should not have left the door open', you mean that it was important that you did not leave the door open, but you did leave it open.

I should not have said that.
You shouldn't have given him the money.
They ought not to have told him.
She oughtn't to have sold the ring.

4 You use 'had better' followed by a base form to indicate mild obligation to do something in a particular situation. You also use 'had better' when giving advice or when giving your opinion about something. The negative is 'had better not'.

I think I had better show this to you now.
You'd better go tomorrow.
I'd better not look at this.

WARNING: The correct form is always 'had better' (not 'have better'). You do not use 'had better' to talk about mild obligation in the past, even though it looks like a past form.

Unit 92: Defining relative clauses

Main points

- You use defining relative clauses to say exactly which person or thing you are talking about.
- Defining relative clauses are usually introduced by a relative pronoun such as 'that', 'which', 'who', 'whom', or 'whose'.
- A defining relative clause comes immediately after noun, and needs a main clause to make a complete sentence.

1 You use defining relative clauses to give information that helps to identify the person or thing you are talking about.

The man who you met yesterday was my brother.

The car which crashed into me belonged to Paul.

When you are talking about people, you use 'that' or 'who' in the relative clause.

He was the man that bought my house.

You are the only person here who knows me.

When you are talking about things, you use 'that' or 'which' in the relative clause.

There was ice cream that Mum had made herself.

I will tell you the first thing which I can remember.

2 'That', 'who', or 'which' can be:

- the subject of the verb in the relative clause

The thing that really surprised me was his attitude.

The woman who lives next door is very friendly.

The car which caused the accident drove off.

- the object of the verb in the relative clause

The thing that I really liked about it was its size.

The woman who you met yesterday lives next door.

The car which I wanted to buy was not for sale.

In formal English, 'whom' is used instead of 'who' as the object of the verb in the relative clause.

She was a woman whom I greatly respected.

3 You can leave out 'that', 'who', or 'which' when they are the object of the verb in the relative clause.

The woman you met yesterday lives next door.

The car I wanted to buy was not for sale.

The thing I really liked about it was its size.

WARNING: You cannot leave out 'that', 'who', or 'which' when they are the subject of the verb in the relative clause. For example, you say 'The woman who lives next door is very friendly'. You do not say 'The woman lives next door is very friendly'.

4 A relative pronoun in a relative clause can be the object of a preposition. Usually the preposition goes at the end of the clause.

I wanted to do the job which I'd been training for.

The house that we lived in was huge.

You can often omit a relative pronoun that is the object of a preposition.

Angela was the only person I could talk to.

She's the girl I sang the song for.

The preposition always goes in front of 'whom', and in front of 'which' in formal English.

These are the people to whom Catherine was referring.

He was asking questions to which there were no answers.

5 You use 'whose' in relative clauses to indicate who something belongs to or relates to. You normally use 'whose' for people, not for things.

A child whose mother had left him was crying loudly.

We have only told the people whose work is relevant to this project.

6 You can use 'when', 'where', and 'why' in defining relative clauses after certain nouns. You use 'when' after 'time' or time words such as 'day' or 'year'. You use 'where' after 'place' or place words such as 'room' or 'street'. You use 'why' after 'reason'.

There had been a time when she hated all men.

This is the year when profits should increase.

He showed me the place where they work.

That was the room where I did my homework.

There are several reasons why we can't do that.

Unit 93: Non-defining clauses

Main points

- You use non-defining relative clauses to give extra information about the person or thing you are talking about.
- Non-defining relative clauses must be introduced by a relative pronoun such as 'which', 'who', 'whom', or 'whose'.
- A non-defining relative clause comes immediately after a noun and needs a main clause to make a complete sentence.

1 You use non-defining relative clauses to give extra information about the person or thing you are talking about. The information is not needed to identify that person or thing.

Professor Marvin, who was always early, was there already.

'Who was always early' gives extra information about Professor Marvin. This is a non-defining relative clause, because it is not needed to identify the person you are talking about. We already know that you are talking about Professor Marvin.

Note that in written English, a non-defining relative clause is usually separated from the main clause by a comma, or by two commas.

I went to the cinema with Mary, who I think you met.

British Rail, which has launched an enquiry, said one coach was badly damaged.

2 You always start a non-defining relative clause with a relative pronoun. When you are talking about people, you use 'who'. 'Who' can be the subject or object of a non-defining relative clause.

Heath Robinson, who died in 1944, was a graphic artist and cartoonist.

I was in the same group as Janice, who I like a lot.

In formal English, 'whom' is sometimes used instead of 'who' as the object of a non-defining relative clause.

She was engaged to a sailor, whom she had met at Dartmouth.

3 When you are talking about things, you use 'which' as the subject or object of a non-defining relative clause.

I am teaching at the Selly Oak centre, which is just over the road.

He was a man of considerable inherited wealth, which he ultimately spent on his experiments.

WARNING: You do not normally use 'that' in non-defining relative clauses.

4 You can also use a non-defining relative clause beginning with 'which' to say something about the whole situation described in a main clause.

I never met Brando again, which was a pity.

She was a little tense, which was understandable.

Small computers need only small amounts of power, which means that they will run on small batteries.

5 When you are talking about a group of people or things and then want to say something about only some of them, you can use one of the following expressions:

many of which	many of whom	none of which
none of whom	one of which	one of whom
some of which	some of whom	

He talked about several very interesting people, some of whom he was still in contact with.

6 You can use 'when' and 'where' in non-defining relative clauses after expressions of time or place.

This happened in 1957, when I was still a baby.

She has just come back from a holiday in Crete, where Alex and I went last year.

Unit 94: Participle clauses

Main points

- Nouns are followed by '-ing' clauses that say what a person or thing is doing.
- Nouns are followed by '-ed' clauses that show that a person or thing has been affected or caused by an action.

1 You can often give more information about a noun, or an indefinite pronoun such as 'someone' or 'something', by adding a clause beginning with an '-ing' form, an '-ed' form, or a 'to'-infinitive.

He gestured towards the box lying on the table.
I think the idea suggested by Tim is the best one.
She wanted someone to talk to.

2 You use an '-ing' clause after a noun to say what someone or something is doing or was doing at a particular time.

The young girl sitting opposite him was his daughter.
Most of the people strolling in the park were teenagers.

3 You can also use an '-ing' clause after a noun to say what a person or thing does generally, rather than at a particular time.

Problems facing parents should be discussed.
The men working there were not very friendly.

4 You often use an '-ing' clause after a noun which is the object of a verb of perception, such as 'see', 'hear', or 'feel'.

See also Unit 72.

Suddenly we saw Amy walking down the path.
He heard a distant voice shouting.
I could feel something touching my face and neck , something ice-cold.

5 You use an '-ed' clause after a noun to show that someone or something has been affected or caused by an action.

He was the new minister appointed by the President.
The man injured in the accident was taken to hospital.

Remember that not all verbs have regular '-ed' forms.

A story written by a young girl won the competition.
She was wearing a dress bought in Paris.

Unit 95: Adding to a noun group

Main points

- Some adjectives can be used after nouns.
- You can use relative clauses after nouns.
- Adverbials of place and time can come after nouns.
- A noun can be followed by another noun group.
- You can use 'that'-clauses after some nouns.

1 You can use some adjectives after a noun to give more information about it, but the adjectives are usually followed by a prepositional phrase, a 'to'-infinitive clause, or an adverbial.

This is a warning to people eager for a quick profit.

These are the weapons likely to be used.

For a list of the facilities available here, ask the secretary.

You must talk to the people concerned.

See Unit 31 for more information on adjectives used after nouns.

2 When you want to give more precise information about the person or thing you are talking about, you can use a defining relative clause after the noun.

The man who had done it was arrested.

There are a lot of things that are wrong.

Nearly all the people I used to know have gone.

Note that you can also use defining relative clauses after indefinite pronouns such as 'someone' or 'something'.

I'm talking about somebody who is really ill.

See Unit 92 for more information on defining relative clauses.

3 You can use an adverbial of place or time after a noun.

People everywhere are becoming more selfish.

This is a reflection of life today.

4 You can add a second noun group after a noun. The second noun group gives you more precise information about the first noun.

Her mother, a Canadian, died when she was six.

Note that the second noun group is separated by commas from the rest of the clause.

5 Nouns such as 'advice', 'hope', and 'wish', which refer to what someone says or thinks, can be followed by a 'that'-clause. Here are some examples:

advice	agreement	belief	claim
conclusion	decision	feeling	hope
promise	threat	warning	wish

It is my firm belief that more women should stand for Parliament.

I had a feeling that no-one thought I was good enough.

Note that all these nouns are related to reporting verbs, which also take a 'that'-clause. For example, 'information' is related to 'inform', and 'decision' is related to 'decide'.

Some of these nouns can also be followed by a 'to'-infinitive clause.

agreement	decision	hope	order
promise	threat	warning	wish

The decision to go had not been an easy one.

I reminded Barnaby of his promise to buy his son a horse.

6 A few other nouns can be followed by a 'that'-clause.

advantage	confidence	danger
effect	evidence	fact
idea	impression	news
opinion	possibility	view

He didn't want her to get the idea that he was rich.

I had no evidence that Jed was the killer.

He couldn't believe the news that his house had just burned down.

Note that when a noun group is the object of a verb, it may be followed by different structures.

See Units 69 to 72 for more information.

Unit 96: Time clauses

Main points

- You use time clauses to say when something happens.
- Time clauses can refer to the past, present, or future.
- Time clauses are introduced by words such as 'after', 'when', or 'while'.
- A time clause needs a main clause to make a complete sentence. The time clause can come before or after the main clause.

1 You use time clauses to say when something happens. The verb in the time clause can be in a present or a past tense.

I look after the children while she goes to London.

I haven't given him a thing to eat since he arrived.

WARNING: You never use a future tense in a time clause. You use one of the present tenses instead.

Let me stay here till Jeannie comes to bed.

I'll do it when I've finished writing this letter.

2 When you want to say that two events happen at the same time, you use a time clause with 'as', 'when', or 'while'.

We arrived as they were leaving.

Sometimes the two events happen together for a period of time.

She wept bitterly as she told her story.

Sometimes one event interrupts another event.

He was having his dinner when the telephone rang.

John will arrive while we are watching the film.

Note that you often use a continuous tense for the interrupted action. See Unit 60.

3 When you want to say that one event happens before or after another event, you use a time clause with 'after', 'as soon as', 'before', or 'when'.

As soon as we get tickets, we'll send them to you.

Can I see you before you go, Helen?

When he had finished reading, he looked up.

Note that you use the past perfect to indicate an event that happened before another event in the past.

4 When you want to mention a situation which started in the past and continued until a later time, you use a time clause with 'since' or 'ever since'. You use a past simple or a past perfect in the time clause, and a past perfect in the main clause.

He hadn't cried since he was a boy of ten.

Janine had been busy ever since she had heard the news.

I'd wanted to come ever since I was a child.

If the situation started in the past and still continues now, you use a past simple in the time clause, and a present perfect in the main clause.

I've been in politics since I was at university.

Ever since you arrived you've been causing trouble.

Note that after impersonal 'it' and a time expression, if the main clause is in the present tense, you use 'since' with a past simple.

It is two weeks now since I wrote to you.

If the main clause is in the past tense, you use 'since' with a past perfect.

It was nearly seven years since I'd seen Toby.

For 'since' as a preposition, see Unit 40.

5 When you want to talk about when a situation ends, you use a time clause with 'till' or 'until' and a present or past tense.

We'll support them till they find work.

I stayed there talking to them until I saw Sam.

She waited until he had gone.

6 When you want to say that something happens before or at a particular time, you use a time clause with 'by the time' or 'by which time'.

By the time I went to bed, I was exhausted.

He came back later, by which time they had gone.

7 In written or formal English, if the subject of the main clause and the time clause are the same, you sometimes omit the subject in the time clause and use a participle as the verb.

I read the book before going to see the film.

The car was stolen while parked in a London street.

Unit 97: Purpose and reason clauses

Main points

- Purpose clauses are introduced by conjunctions such as 'so', 'so as to', 'so that', 'in order to' or 'in order that'.
- Reason clauses are introduced by conjunctions such as 'as', 'because', or 'in case'.
- A purpose or reason clause needs a main clause to make a complete sentence.
- A purpose clause usually comes after a main clause. A reason clause can come before or after a main clause.

1 You use a purpose clause when you are saying what someone's intention is when they do something. The most common type of purpose clause is a 'to'-infinitive clause.

The children sleep together to keep warm.

They locked the door to stop us from getting in.

Instead of using an ordinary 'to'-infinitive, you often use 'in order to' or 'so as to' with an infinitive.

He was giving up his job in order to stay at home.

I keep the window open, so as to let fresh air in.

To make a purpose clause negative, you have to use 'in order not to' or 'so as not to' with an infinitive.

I would have to give myself something to do in order not to be bored.

They went on foot, so as not to be heard.

Another way of making purpose clauses negative is by using 'to avoid' with an '-ing' form or a noun group.

I had to turn away to avoid letting him see my smile.

They drove through town to avoid the motorway.

2 Another type of purpose clause begins with 'in order that', 'so', or 'so that'. These clauses usually contain a modal.

When the main clause refers to the present, you usually use 'can', 'may', 'will', or 'shall' in the purpose clause.

Any holes should be fenced so that people can't fall down them.

I have drawn a diagram so that my explanation will be clearer.

When the main clause refers to the past, you usually use 'could', 'might', 'should', or 'would' in the purpose clause.

She said she wanted tea ready at six so she could be out by eight.

Someone lifted Philip onto his shoulder so that he might see the procession.

You use 'in order that', 'so', and 'so that', when the subject of the purpose clause is different from the subject of the main clause. For example, you say 'I've underlined it so that it will be easier.' You do not say 'I've underlined it to be easier'.

3 You can also talk about the purpose of an action by using a prepositional phrase introduced by 'for'.

She went out for a run.

They said they did it for fun.

I usually check, just for safety's sake.

4 You use a reason clause when you want to explain why someone does something or why it happens. When you are simply giving the reason for something, you use 'because', 'since', or 'as'.

I couldn't see Helen's expression, because her head was turned.

Since it was Saturday, he stayed in bed.

As he had been up since 4 am, he was very tired.

You can also use 'why' and a reported question to talk about the reason for an action. See Unit 75.

I asked him why he had come.

5 When you are talking about a possible situation which explains the reason why someone does something, you use 'in case' or 'just in case' .

I've got the key in case we want to go inside.

I am here just in case anything unusual happens.

WARNING: You do not use a future tense after 'in case'. You do not say 'I'll stay behind in case she'll arrive later'.

Unit 98: Result clauses

Main points

- You use result clauses to talk about the result of an action or situation.
- Result clauses are introduced by conjunctions such as 'so', 'so...(that)', or 'such...(that)'.
- A result clause needs a main clause to make a complete sentence. The result clause always comes after the main clause.

1 You use 'so' and 'so that' to say what the result of an action or situation is.

He speaks very little English, so I talked to him through an interpreter.

My suitcase had become damaged on the journey home, so that the lid would not stay closed.

2 You also use 'so...that' or 'such...that' to talk about the result of an action or situation.

He dressed so quickly that he put his boots on the wrong feet.

She got such a shock that she dropped the bag.

'That' is often omitted.

They were so surprised they didn't try to stop him.

They got such a fright they ran away again.

3 You only use 'such' before a noun, with or without an adjective.

They obeyed him with such willingness that the strike went on for over a year.

Sometimes they say such stupid things that I don't even bother to listen.

If the noun is a singular count noun, you put 'a' or 'an' in front of it.

I was in such a panic that I didn't know it was him.

Note that you only use 'so' before an adjective or an adverb.

It all sounded so crazy that I laughed out loud.

They worked so quickly that there was no time for talking.

4 When you want to say that a situation does not happen because someone or something has an excessive amount of a quality, you use 'too' with an adjective and a 'to'-infinitive. For example, if you say 'They were too tired to walk', you mean that they did not walk because they were too tired.

He was too proud to apologise.

She was too weak to lift me.

You also use 'too' with an adverb and a 'to'-infinitive.

They had been walking too silently to be heard.

She spoke too quickly for me to understand.

5 When you want to say that a situation happens or is possible because someone or something has a sufficient amount of a quality, you use 'enough' after adjectives and adverbs, followed by a 'to'-infinitive.

He was old enough to understand.

I could see well enough to know we were losing.

You normally put 'enough' in front of a noun, not after it.

I don't think I've got enough information to speak confidently.

6 You also use 'and as a result', 'and so', or 'and therefore' to talk about the result of an action or situation.

He had been ill for six months, and as a result had lost his job.

She was having great difficulty getting her car out, and so I had to move my car to let her out.

We have a growing population and therefore we need more and more food.

You can also put 'therefore' after the subject of the clause. For example, you can say 'We have a growing population and we therefore need more food'.

'As a result' and 'therefore' can also be used at the beginning of a separate sentence.

In a group, they are not so frightened. As a result, patients reveal their problems more easily.

He lacks money to invest in improving his tools. Therefore he is poor.

You can also put 'therefore' after the subject of the separate sentence. For example, you can say 'He left us. He therefore loses his share'.

Unit 99: Contrast clauses

Main points

- These are clauses introduced by 'although', 'in spite of' and 'though'.
- You use contrast clauses when you want to make two statements, and one statement makes the other seem surprising.
- Contrast clauses are introduced by conjunctions such as 'although', 'in spite of', or 'though'.
- A contrast clause needs a main clause to make a complete sentence. The contrast clause can come before or after the main clause.

1 When you simply want to contrast two statements, you use 'although', 'though' or 'even though'.

Although he was late, he stopped to buy a sandwich.

Though he has lived for years in London, he writes in German.

I used to love listening to her, even though I could only understand about half of what she said.

Sometimes you use words like 'still', 'nevertheless', or 'just the same' in the main clause to add emphasis to the contrast.

Although I was shocked, I still couldn't blame him.

Although his company is profitable, it nevertheless needs to face up to some serious problems.

Although she hated them, she agreed to help them just the same.

When the subject of the contrast clause and the main clause are the same, you can often omit the subject and the verb 'be' in the contrast clause.

Although poor, we still have our pride. (Although we are poor...)

Though dying of cancer, he painted every day. (Though he was dying of cancer...)

2 Another way of making a contrast is to use 'despite' or 'in spite of', followed by a noun group.

Despite the difference in their ages they were close friends.

In spite of poor health, my father was always cheerful.

WARNING: You say 'in spite of' but 'despite' without 'of'.

3 You can also use an '-ing' form after 'despite' or 'in spite of'.

Despite working hard, I failed my exams.

Conservative MPs are against tax rises, in spite of wanting lower inflation.

4 You can also use 'despite the fact that' or 'in spite of the fact that', followed by a clause.

Despite the fact that it sounds like science fiction, most of it is technically possible at this moment.

They ignored this order, in spite of the fact that they would probably get into trouble.

It is possible to omit 'that', especially in spoken English.

He insisted on playing, in spite of the fact he had a bad cold.

Unit 100: Manner clauses

Main points

- You use manner clauses to talk about how something is done.
- Manner clauses are introduced by conjunctions such as 'as', 'as if', 'as though', or 'like'.
- A manner clause needs a main clause to make a complete sentence. The manner clause always comes after the main clause.

1 When you want to say how someone does something, or how something is done, you use 'as'.

He behaves as he does, because his father was really cruel to him.

The bricks are still made as they were in Roman times.

You often use 'just', 'exactly', or 'precisely' in front of 'as' for emphasis.

It swims on the sea floor just as its ancestors did.

I like the freedom to plan my day exactly as I want.

Everything was going precisely as she had planned.

2 When you want to indicate that the information in the manner clause might not be true, or is definitely not true, you use 'as if' or 'as though'.

Almost as if she'd read his thought, she straightened her back and returned to her seat.

Just act as though everything's normal.

After 'as if' or 'as though', you often use a past tense even when you are talking about the present, to emphasize that the information in the manner clause is not true. In formal English, you use 'were' instead of 'was'.

You talk about him as if he were dead.

It is Malcolm's 37th birthday, but he and his mother both behave as if he were 7.

3 You also use 'the way (that)', 'in a way (that)', or 'in the way (that)' to talk about how someone does something, or how something is done.

I was never allowed to sing the way I wanted to.

They did it in a way that I had never seen before.

We make it move in the way that we want it to.

4 You can use 'how' in questions and reported questions to talk about the method used to do something, and sometimes to indicate your surprise that it was possible to do it.

'How did he get in?' - 'He broke a window.'

I wondered how he could afford a new car.

See also Unit 68 for more information on '..as if..' and '..as though..'

Sometimes, you can use 'how' to talk about the manner in which someone does something.

I watched how he did it, then tried to copy him.

Tell me how he reacted when he saw you.

Unit 101: Changing sentence focus

Main points

- You can sometimes change the focus of a sentence by moving part of the sentence to the front.
- You can also change the focus of a sentence by using an expression such as 'The fact is', 'The thing is', or 'The problem is'.
- You can also use impersonal 'it' to change the focus of a sentence.

1 In most affirmative clauses, the subject of the verb comes first.

They went to Australia in 1956.
I've no idea who it was.

However, when you want to emphasize another part of the sentence, you can put that part first instead.

In 1956 they went to Australia.
Who it was I've no idea.

2 One common way of giving emphasis is by placing an adverbial at the beginning of the sentence.

At eight o'clock I went down for my breakfast.
For years I'd had to hide what I was thinking.

Note that after adverbials of place and negative adverbials, you normally put the subject after the verb.

She rang the bell for Sylvia. In came a girl she had not seen before.
On no account must they be let in.

After adverbials of place, you can also put the subject before the verb. You must do so, if the subject is a pronoun.

The door opened and in she came.
He'd chosen Japan, so off we went to the Japanese Embassy.

3 When you want to say that you do not know something, you can put a reported question at the beginning of the sentence.

What I'm going to do next I don't quite know.
How he managed I can't imagine.

4 Another way of focusing on information is to use a structure which introduces what you want to say by using 'the' and a noun, followed by 'is'. The nouns most commonly used in this way are:

answer	conclusion	fact	point
problem	question	rule	solution
thing	trouble	truth	

The second part of the sentence is usually a 'that'-clause or a 'wh'-clause, although it can also be a 'to'-infinitive clause or a noun group.

The problem is that she can't cook.
The thing is, how are we going to get her out?
The solution is to adopt the policy which will produce the greatest benefits.
The answer is planning, timing, and, above all, practical experience.
It is also common to use a whole sentence to introduce information in following sentences. See Unit 102 for more information.

5 You can also focus on information by using impersonal 'it', followed by 'be', a noun group, and a relative clause.

The noun group can be the subject or object of the relative clause.

It was Ted who broke the news to me.
It is usually the other vehicle that suffers most.
It's money that they want.
It was me Dookie wanted.

There are many other ways of focusing on information:

Ted was the one who broke the news to me.
Money is what we want.
What we want is money.

6 You can also focus on the information given in the other parts of a clause, or a whole clause, using impersonal 'it'. In this case, the second part of the sentence is a 'that'-clause.

It was from Francis that she first heard the news.
It was meeting Peter that really started me off on this new line of work.
Perhaps it's because he's a misfit that I get along with him.

Unit 102: Cohesion

Main points

- You can use pronouns and determiners to refer back to something that has already been mentioned.
- You use coordinating conjunctions to link clauses.

1 When you speak or write, you usually need to make some connection with other things that you are saying or writing. The most common way of doing this is by referring back to something that has already been mentioned.

2 One way of referring back to something is to use a personal pronoun such as 'she', 'it', or 'them', or a possessive pronoun such as 'mine' or 'hers'.

My father is fat. He weighs over fifteen stone.

Mary came in. She was a good-looking woman.

'Have you been to London ?' - 'Yes, it was very crowded.'

'Have you heard of David Lodge ?' - 'Yes, I've just read a novel of his.'

'Would you mind moving your car , please?' - 'It's not mine.'

3 You can also use a specific determiner such as 'the' or 'his' in front of a noun to refer back to something.

A man and a woman were walking up the hill. The man wore shorts, a T-shirt, and basketball sneakers. The woman wore a print dress.

'Thanks,' said Brody. He put the telephone down, turned out the light in his office, and walked out to his car.

4 The demonstratives 'this', 'that', 'these' and 'those' are also used to refer back to a thing or fact that has just been mentioned.

In 1973 he went on a caravan holiday . At the beginning of this holiday he began to experience pain in his chest.

There's a lot of material there. You can use some of that.

5 The following general determiners can also be used to refer back to something:

another	each	every	other
both	either	neither	

Five officials were sacked. Another four were arrested.

There are more than two hundred and fifty species of shark, and every one is different.

6 Another common way of making connections in spoken or written English is by using one of the following coordinating conjunctions:

and	nor	so	yet
but	or	then	

Anna had to go into town and she wanted to go to Bride Street.

I asked if I could borrow her bicycle but she refused.

He was only a boy then, yet he was not afraid.

You can use a coordinating conjunction to link clauses that have the same subject. When you link clauses which have the same subject, you do not always need to repeat the subject in the second clause.

She was born in Budapest and raised in Manhattan.

He didn't yell or scream.

When she saw Morris she went pale, then blushed.

7 Most subordinating conjunctions can also be used to link sentences together, rather than to link a subordinate clause with a main clause in the same sentence.

'When will you do it?' - 'When I get time.'

'Can I borrow your car?' - 'So long as you drive carefully.'

We send that by airmail. Therefore , it's away on Thursday and our client gets it on Monday.

8 When people are speaking or writing, they often use words that refer back to similar words, or words that refer back to a whole sentence or paragraph.

Everything was quiet . Everywhere there was the silence of the winter night.

'What are you going to do?' - 'That's a good question.'

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