The first chapters of a book are probably the least read by most readers in general and surgeons in particular, and in our opinion it is precisely in the first chapters that the most important information of a book is displayed. It is in its first chapters that the foundations of a book are laid, and many readers do not optimize the reading of a manual because they skip its fundamentals.

This is a vital unit, because unless you have a sound knowledge of English grammar, you will be absolutely unable to speak English as is expected of a well-trained surgeon. It is definitely not enough just to be able to make yourself understood; you must speak fluently and your command of the English language must allow you to communicate with your colleagues regardless of their nationality.

As you will see immediately, this grammar section uses examples that are directly relevant to a surgeon’s everyday needs for English, so while you review, for example, the passive voice, you can also review the vocabulary and expressions you need to communicate in English, like “the CT scan had already been performed when the surgeon arrived at the CT unit.”

We could summarize this approach as replacing the classic sentence of English manuals “my tailor is rich” by expressions such as “the first-year surgery resident is on call today.” Just as a certain knowledge of anatomy is necessary to create a good operating field, a certain grammatical background is necessary to speak and write correctly. The tendency to skip both grammar and anatomy, considered by many as simple preliminary issues, has deleterious effects on English and surgery.

### Tenses

#### Talking About the Present

**Present Continuous**

We use the present continuous to talk about an action that is in progress at or around the moment of speaking.

This tense is formed by the present simple of the verb to be (am/are/is) + the gerund of the verb (infinitive (without to) + ing).
The negative is formed by adding *not* between the verb *to be* and the gerund:
Example: She is not working today = She’s not working today = She isn’t working today.
Study this example:

- It is 7:30 in the morning. Dr. Hudson is in his new car on his way to the Gynecology Department.
  
  *So*: He *is driving* to the gynecology department. He is driving to the gynecology department means that he is driving now, at the time of speaking.

### USES

To talk about:

- Something that is happening at the time of speaking (i.e., now):
  - Dr. Hudson *is walking* to the operating room.
  - Dr. Smith and his colleagues *are performing* an enteroclysis.

- Something that is happening around or close to the time of speaking, but not necessarily exactly at the time of speaking:
  - Jim and John, general surgery residents, are having a sandwich in the cafeteria. John says: “I *am writing* an interesting article on chordomas. I’ll let you have a look at it when I’m finished.” As you can see, John is not writing the article at the time of speaking. He means that he has begun to write the article but has not finished it yet. He is in the middle of writing it.

- Something that is happening for a limited time around the present (e.g., today, this week, this season, this year, …):
  - Our junior neurosurgery residents *are working* hard this term.

- Changing situations:
  - Clinically speaking, the patient’s condition *is getting* better.

- Temporary situations:
  - I *am living* with other residents until I can buy my own apartment.
  - I *am doing* a rotation in the cardiology division until the end of May.

**Special use**: Present continuous with a future meaning.

In the following examples, the speaker has already arranged to do these things.

- To talk about what you have arranged to do in the future (personal arrangements).
  - *We are stenting* a renal artery on Monday.
  - *I am having* dinner with a cardiothoracic surgeon from the United States tomorrow.

We can also use the form *going to* in these sentences, but it is less natural when you talk about arrangements.

We do not use the simple present or *will* for personal arrangements.
**Simple Present**

The simple present shows an action that happens again and again (repeated action) in the present time, but not necessarily at the time of speaking.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FORM</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The simple present has the following forms:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Affirmative: the same as the infinitive (without to) (remember to add -s or -es to the third person singular)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– I/we/you/they do not (don’t) + infinitive (without to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– He/she/it doesn’t + infinitive (without to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Interrogative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Do I/we/you/they + infinitive (without to)… ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Does he/she/it … ?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Study this example:

• Dr. Allan is the chairman of the Traumatology Department. He is at an international course in Greece at this moment.

So: He is *not running* the Traumatology Department now (because he is in Greece), but *he runs* the Traumatology Department.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>USES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• To talk about something that happens all the time or repeatedly or something that is true in general. Here it is not important whether the action is happening at the time of speaking:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– I <em>do</em> pediatric surgery.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Nurses <em>take care</em> of patients after the implantation of the pacemaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– For colon surgery, pre-intervention preparation <em>serves</em> to cleanse the bowel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• To say how often we do things:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– I <em>begin</em> to see patients at 8.30 every morning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Dr. Taylor <em>does</em> laparoscopic surgery two evenings a week.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– How often <em>do you go</em> to an international surgical course? Once a year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The simple present is often used with adverbs of frequency such as <em>always, often, sometimes, rarely, never, every week,</em> and <em>twice a year:</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– The heart surgery chairman <em>always</em> works very hard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– We <em>have</em> a pathology conference <em>every week.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• For a permanent situation (a situation that stays the same for a long time):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– I <em>work</em> as consultant in the breast cancer program of our hospital. I have been working there for 10 years.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some verbs are used only in simple tenses. These verbs are verbs of thinking or mental activity, feeling, possession, perception, and reporting verbs. We often use *can* instead of the present tense with verbs of perception:

- Now I *can understand* why the X-ray machine is in such a bad condition.
- Now I *can see* the solution to the diagnostic problem.

Simple present with a future meaning. We use it to talk about timetables, schedules …:

- What time *does* the laparoscopic knee surgery conference *start*? It *starts* at 9.30.

Talking About the Future

*Am/is/are + going to + infinitive*

- To say what we have already decided to do or what we intend to do in the future (do not use *will* in this situation):
  - I *am going to* attend the 20th International Congress of Angiology and Vascular Surgery next month.
  - There is a hands-on minimally invasive course in Boston next fall. *Are you going to attend it?*

- To say what someone has arranged to do (personal arrangements), but remember that we prefer to use the present continuous because it sounds more natural:
  - What time *are you going to meet* the vice chairman?
  - What time *are you going to begin* the oophorectomy?

- To say what we think will happen (making predictions), especially when there is strong evidence for the prediction:
  - The patient is agitated. I think we *are not going to* be able to do the operation under local anesthesia alone.
  - “Oh, the patient’s chest X-ray looks terrible. *I think he is going to die soon,*” the radiologist said.

- If we want to say what someone intended to do in the past but did not do, we use *was/were going to*:
  - He *was going to* do a radical resection of the tumor but finally changed his mind and did a more limited one.

- To talk about past predictions we use *was/were going to*:
  - The resident had the feeling that the patient *was going to* suffer a reaction to the antibiotic.
Simple Future (*Will*)

**Form**

Will + infinitive (without to), but *shall* can also be used with I or we (*will* is more common than *shall*, but only *shall* is used in questions to make offers and suggestions):

- *Shall* we go to the thoracoscopy symposium next week?

*You/he/she/it/they will* (*’ll*) + infinitive (without to).

Negative: *shall not* = *shan’t*, *will not* = *won’t*.

**Uses**

- We use *will* when we decide to do something at the time of speaking (remember that in this situation, you cannot use the simple present):
  - Have you finished the report?
  - No, I haven’t had time to do it.
  - OK, don’t worry, I *will* do it.

- When offering, agreeing, refusing, and promising to do something, or when asking someone to do something:
  - That case looks difficult for you. Do not worry, I *will* help you out.
  - Can I have the book about brain tumors that I lent you? Of course. I *will* give it back to you tomorrow.
  - Don’t ask to perform the appendectomy by yourself. The consultant won’t allow you to.
  - I promise I *will* send you a copy of the latest article on intraoperative ultrasound as soon as I get it.
  - *Will* you help me out with this amputation, please?

You do not use *will* to say what someone has already decided to do or arranged to do (remember that in this situation we use *going to* or the present continuous).

- To predict a future happening or a future situation:
  - The specialty of General Surgery *will* be very different in a hundred years’ time.
  - Twenty years from now, heart surgeons won’t need to perform thoracotomy.

Remember that if there is something in the present situation that shows us what will happen in the future (near future) we use *going to* instead of *will*.

- With expressions such as: probably, *I am sure*, *I bet*, *I think*, *I suppose*, *I guess*:
  - *I will probably* attend the European Congress.
  - You should listen to Dr. Helms’s conference. *I am sure* you *will* love it.
  - *I bet* the patient *will* recover satisfactorily after the bypass.
  - *I guess* *I will* see you at the next annual meeting.
### Future Continuous

**FORM**

| Will be + gerund of the verb. |

**USES**

- To say that we will be in the middle of something at a certain time in the future:
  - This time tomorrow morning I *will be performing* a CABG.
- To talk about things that are already planned or decided (similar to the present continuous with a future meaning):
  - We can't meet this evening. I *will be stenting the aneurysm* in the patient we talked about.
- To ask about people’s plans (interrogative form):
  - *Will you be attending* the congress this year?

### Future Perfect

**FORM**

| Will have + past participle of the verb. |

**USES**

- To say that something will already have happened before a certain time in the future:
  - I think the resident *will have arrived* by the time we begin the osteosynthesis.
  - Next spring I *will have been working* in the Oral and Maxillofacial Department of this institution for 25 years.

### Talking About the Past

#### Simple Past

**FORM**

- The simple past has the following forms:
  - **Affirmative:**
    - The past of regular verbs is formed by adding *-ed* or *-d* to the infinitive.
    - The past of each irregular verb has its own form.
  - **Negative:**
    - *Did not* = *Didn’t* + the infinitive (without to).
  - **Questions:**
    - *Did I/you/…* + the infinitive (without to).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Uses</th>
<th>FORM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past Continuous</td>
<td>To talk about actions or situations in the past (they have already finished):</td>
<td><strong>Was/were</strong> + gerund of the verb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– I really <em>enjoyed</em> the trauma residents’ party very much.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>– When I <em>worked</em> as a visiting resident in Madrid, I <em>performed</em> one hundred vasectomies.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>To say that one thing happened after another:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>– Yesterday we <em>had</em> a terrible duty. We <em>did</em> three embolectomies and then we <em>performed</em> an emergency mitral valve repair.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>To ask or say <em>when</em> or <em>what time</em> something happened:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>– When <em>were</em> you last on call?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– <em>I arrived</em> 5 min ago.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>To tell a story and to talk about happenings and actions that are not connected with the present (historical events):</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>– Christian Barnard <em>performed</em> the first human-to-human heart transplantation.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Perfect</th>
<th>Uses</th>
<th>FORM</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To say that someone was in the middle of doing something at a certain time. The action or situation had already started before this time but hadn’t finished:</td>
<td><strong>Have/has</strong> + past participle of the verb.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This time last year I <em>was writing</em> the case report that I plan to publish next year in the <em>World Journal of Surgery</em>.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To describe a scene:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– A lot of patients <em>were waiting</em> in the corridor to have their chest X-ray done.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
To talk about experience.
To talk about the present result of a past action.
To talk about a recent happening.

In the last situation you can use the present perfect with the following particles:

- **Just**: to say something has happened a short time ago:
  - Dr. Ho *has just arrived* at the hospital. He is our new pediatric surgeon.

- **Already**: to say something has happened sooner than expected:
  - The second-year resident *has already finished* her presentation.

Remember that we can also use the simple past to talk about a recent happening:

To talk about a period of time that continues up to the present (an unfinished period of time):
- We use the expressions: *today, this morning, this evening, this week, …*
- We often use *ever* and *never*.

To talk about something that we are expecting. In this situation we use *yet* to show that the speaker is expecting something to happen, but only in questions and negative sentences:
- Dr. Helms *has not arrived yet*.

To talk about something you have never done or something you have not done during a period of time that continues up to the present:
- I *have not performed* a mastectomy since I was a resident.

To talk about how much we have done, how many things we have done, or how many times we have done something:
- I *have reported* that intervention twice because the first report was lost.
- Dr. Yimou *has performed* twenty vertebroplasties this week.

To talk about situations that have existed for a long time, especially if we say *always*. In this case the situation still exists now:
- We *have always had* an excellent internal medicine department.
- Dr. Olmedo *has always been* a very talented urologist.

We also use the present perfect with these expressions:

- **Superlative**: *It is the most …*:
  - This is *the most* interesting otorhinolaryngology case that I *have ever seen*.

- **The first (second, third …) time …**:  
  - This is the *first time* that I *have seen* a CT of an inferior vena cava leiomyosarcoma.
**Present Perfect Continuous**

Shows an action that began in the past and has gone on up to the present time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FORM</th>
<th>Have/has been + gerund.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**USES**

- To talk about an action that began in the past and has recently stopped or just stopped:
  - You look tired. Have you been working all night?
  - No, I have been writing an article on breast implants.

- To ask or say how long something has been happening. In this case the action or situation began in the past and is still happening or has just stopped.
  - Dr. Sancho and Dr. Martos have been working together on the project from the beginning.

We use the following particles:

- **How long ...?** (to ask about the duration of an action):
  - How long have you been working as personal assistant to Dr. Miller?

- **For, since** (to say how long):
  - I have been working for 10 years.
  - I have been working very hard since I got this grant.

- **For** (to say how long as a period of time):
  - I have been doing flap corrections for 3 years.

Do not use for in expressions with all: “I have been working as a plastic surgeon all my career” (not “for all my career”).

- **Since** (to say the beginning of a period):
  - I have been teaching laparoscopy since 1991.

In the present perfect continuous, the emphasis is on the action itself and its duration. The action can be finished (just finished) or not (still happening).

In the present perfect, emphasis is on the result of the action rather than the action itself.

**Past Perfect**

Shows an action that happened in the past before another past action. It is the past of the present perfect.
Had + past participle of the verb.

- To say that something had already happened before something else happened:
  - When I arrived at the operating room, the traumatologist had already begun the external fixation of the shoulder.

**Past Perfect Continuous**

Shows an action that began in the past and went on up to a point in time in the past. It is the past of the present perfect continuous.

Had been + gerund of the verb.

- To say how long something had been happening before something else happened:
  - She had been working as a urologist for 40 years before she was awarded the Foley Prize.

**Subjunctive**

Imagine this situation:

- The surgeon says to the radiologist, “Why don’t you do a CT scan on the patient with acute abdominal pain?”
- The surgeon proposes (that) the radiologist do a CT scan on the patient with acute abdominal pain.

The subjunctive is always formed with the base form of the verb (the infinitive without to):

- I suggest (that) you work harder.
- She recommended (that) he give up smoking while dictating.
- He insisted (that) she perform an ultrasound examination on the patient as soon as possible.
- He demanded (that) the nurse treat him more politely.

Note that the subjunctive of the verb to be is usually passive:

- He insisted (that) the surgical report be dictated immediately.
You can use the subjunctive after the following verbs:

- Propose
- Suggest
- Recommend
- Insist
- Demand

You can use the subjunctive for the past, present, or future:

- He *suggested* (that) the resident *change* the dressings of the wound.
- He *recommends* (that) his patients *give up* smoking.

*Should* is sometimes used instead of the subjunctive, especially in British English:

- The doctor recommended that *I should have* an MRI examination; he sus-
  pecs that my meniscus is torn.

**Wish, If Only, Would**

**Wish**

- *Wish* + simple past. To say that we regret something (i.e., that something is
  not as we would like it to be) in the present:
  - *I wish I were* not on call (but I am on call).

- *Wish* + past perfect. To say that we regret something that happened or didn’t
  happen in the past:
  - *I wish he hadn’t treated* the patient’s family so badly (but he treated the
    patient’s family badly).

- *Wish* + *would* + infinitive without *to* when we want something to happen or
  change or somebody to do something (in this case, the subject of the verb
  *wish* must be different from the would clause):
  - *I wish you wouldn’t dictate* so slowly (note that the speaker is complaining
    about the present situation or the way people do things).

**If Only**

*If only* can be used in exactly the same way as *wish*. It has the same meaning as
*wish* but is more dramatic:

- *If only* + past simple (expresses regret in the present):
  - *If only I were* not on call.

- *If only* + past perfect (expresses regret in the past):
  - *If only he hadn’t treated* the patient’s family so badly.
After *wish* and *if only* we use *were* (with *I, he, she, it*) instead of *was*.

When referring to the present or future, *wish* and *if only* are followed by a past tense, and when referring to the past by a past perfect tense.

**Would**

*Would* is used:

- As a modal verb in offers, invitations, and requests (i.e., to ask someone to do something):
  - *Would* you help me to write an article on hepatic cholangiocarcinoma? (request).
  - *Would* you like to come to the residents’ party tonight? (offer and invitation).
- After *wish* (see *Wish*).
- In *if* sentences (see *Conditionals*).
- Sometimes as the past of *will* (in reported speech):
  - Dr. Smith: I will do your bladder resection next week.
  - Patient: The doctor said that he *would* do my bladder resection next week.
- When you remember things that often happened (similar to *used to*):
  - When we were residents, we used to prepare the clinical cases together.
  - When we were residents, we *would* prepare the clinical cases together.

### Modal Verbs

<table>
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<th>FORM</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- A modal verb always has the same form.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- There is no <em>-s</em> ending in the third person singular, no <em>-ing</em> form and no <em>-ed</em> form.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- After a modal verb we use the infinitive without <em>to</em> (i.e., the base form of the verb).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are the English modal verbs:

- *Can* (past form is *could*)
- *Could* (also a modal with its own meaning)
- *May* (past form is *might*)
- *Might* (also a modal with its own meaning)
- *Will*
- *Would*
- *Shall*
- *Should*
- *Ought to*
- *Must*
- *Need*
- *Dare*
Expressing Ability

To express ability we can use:

- *Can* (only in the present tense)
- *Could* (only in the past tense)
- *Be able to* (in all tenses)

### Ability in the Present

*Can* (more usual) or *am/is/are able to* (less usual):

- Dr. Williams *can* do a bypass on an extremely difficult mesenteric artery stenosis.
- Dr. Rihsnah *is able to* dilate esophageal stenoses in children.
- *Can* you speak medical English? Yes, *I can*.
- *Are you able to* speak medical English? Yes, I *am*.

### Ability in the Past

*Could* (past form of *can*) or *was/were able to*.

We use *could* to say that someone had the *general* ability to do something:

- When I was a resident I *could* speak German.

We use *was/were able to* to say that someone managed to do something on one particular occasion (*specific* ability to do something), although we can use *could* with verbs of perception:

- When I was a resident I *was able to* publish seven articles.
- We *could see* that the LAD was completely blocked.

*Managed to* can replace *was able to* (especially when we’re talking about something difficult):

- When I was a resident I *managed to* publish seven articles.

We use *could have* + past participle to say that we had the ability to do something but we didn’t do it:
• He could have been a surgeon but he became a radiologist instead.

Sometimes we use could to talk about ability in a situation which we are imagining (here could = would be able to):

• I couldn’t do your job. I’m not clever enough.

We use will be able to to talk about ability with a future meaning:

• If you keep on studying surgical English you will be able to write articles for The Annals of Surgery very soon.

**Expressing Necessity**

Necessity means that you cannot avoid doing something. To say that it is necessary to do something we can use must or have to.

• Necessity in the present: must, have/has to, need to.
• Necessity in the past: had to.
• Necessity in the future: must, will have to, will need to.

Note that to express necessity in the past we do not use must.

There are some differences between must and have to:

• We use must when the speaker is expressing personal feelings or authority, saying what he or she thinks is necessary:
  – Your chest X-ray film shows severe emphysema. You must give up smoking.

• We use have to when the speaker is not expressing personal feelings or authority. The speaker is just giving facts or expressing the authority of another person (external authority), often a law or a rule:
  – All surgery residents have to learn how to dictate the different types of surgical reports in their first year of residency.

If we want to say that it is necessary to avoid doing something (something is prohibited or not allowed), we use mustn’t:

• You mustn’t eat anything before the operation.

**Expressing the Absence of Necessity**

To express the absence of necessity we can use the negative forms of need or have to:

• In the present: needn’t, don’t/doesn’t have to, don’t/doesn’t need to.
• In the past: didn’t need to, didn’t have to, needn’t have + past participle.
• In the future: won’t have to.

Note that “the absence of necessity” is completely different from “negative obligation or prohibition.”
In conclusion, we use *mustn’t* when we are not allowed to do something or when there is a necessity not to do it, and we use the negative form of *have to* or *need to* or *needn’t* when there is no necessity to do something but we can do it if we want to:

- The urologist says I *mustn’t* get overtired before the procedure but I *needn’t* stay in bed.
- The urologist says I *mustn’t* get overtired before the procedure but I *don’t have to* stay in bed.

**Expressing Possibility**

To express possibility we can use *can, could, may, or might.*

But also note that *can* is used to express the ability to do something and *may* is also used to talk about permission.

When talking about possibility, *can* is used in a general sense and *may* is used for a particular case:

- Patients with defective heart valves *can* develop endocarditis.
- This patient *may* develop endocarditis.

**Possibility in the Present**

To say that something is possible we use *can, may, could, or might.* All express similar degrees of possibility or probability, although the probability is usually slightly weaker with *might* or *could*:

- Patients undergoing Billroth II stomach resection *can* get postoperative pneumonia.
- They *may* develop anastomositis.
- The anastomosis suture *could* leak.
- They *might* develop thrombosis of the mesenteric vessels.

**Possibility in the Past**

To say that something was possible in the past we use *may have, might have, could have*:

- The lesion *might have* been detected on the screen if the field had been cleaner.

*Could have* is also used to say that something was a possibility or opportunity but it didn’t happen:

- You were lucky to be treated with an emergency operation, otherwise you *could have died.*
I *couldn’t have* done something (i.e., I wouldn’t have been able to do it if I had wanted or tried to do it):

- She *couldn’t have* selectively excised that lung metastasis anyway, because it was extremely small.

**Possibility in the Future**

To talk about possible future actions or happenings we use *may*, *might*, and *could* (especially in suggestions):

- I don’t know where to do my last 6 months of residency. I *may/might* go to the States.
- We *could* meet later in the hospital to practice mattress sutures, couldn’t we?

When we are talking about possible future plans we can also use the continuous form *may/might/could be* + -ing form:

- I *could be going* to the next AATS meeting.

**Expressing Certainty**

To say we are fairly sure that something is true we use *must*:

- You have been operating all night. You *must* be very tired (i.e., in all probability you are tired).

To say that we think something is impossible we use *can’t*:

- According to his clinical situation and imaging studies, this diagnosis *can’t be* right (i.e., it is impossible that this diagnosis be right or I am sure that this diagnosis is not right).

For past situations we use *must have* and *can’t have*. We can also use *couldn’t have* instead of *can’t have*:

- Considering the situation, the patient’s family *couldn’t have* asked for more.

Remember that to express certainty we can also use *will*:

- The minimally invasive mitral valve plasty protocol *will* vary from institution to institution.

**Expressing Permission**

To talk about permission we can use *can, may* (more formal than *can*), or *be allowed to* (usually used in the negative to express prohibition).
**Permission in the Present**

*Can, may, or am/is/are allowed to:*

- You *can* smoke if you like.
- You *are not allowed to* smoke.
- You *may* attend the Congress.

**Permission in the Past**

*Was/were allowed to:*

- Were you *allowed to* go into the OT without surgical scrubs?

**Permission in the Future**

*May, can, or will be allowed to:*

- *May* I leave the hospital when I finish this operation?
- You *can take* a break after you finish this operation, but you *can’t leave* the hospital.
- I *will be allowed to* leave the hospital when my duty is finished.

To ask for permission we use *can, could, may, or might* (from less to more formal) but not *be allowed to:*

- Hi Hannah, *can* I borrow your digital camera? (if you are asking for a friend’s digital camera).
- *Could* I use your digital camera, Dr. Coltrane? (if you are talking to an acquaintance).
- Dr. Ho, *may* I borrow your digital camera? (if you are talking to a colleague you do not know at all).
- *Might* I use your digital camera, Dr. Miller? (if you are asking for the chairman’s digital camera).

**Expressing Moral Obligation or Giving Advice**

Moral obligation means that something is the right thing to do.

When we want to say what we think is a good thing to do or the right thing to do we use *should* or *ought to.*

*Should* and *ought to* can be used for giving advice:

- You *ought to* sleep.
- You *should* work out.
- You *ought to* give up smoking.
- *Ought* he *to* see a doctor? Yes, I think he ought to.
- *Should* he see a doctor? Yes, I think he should.
**Conditionals**

Conditional sentences have two parts:
1. “If-clause”
2. Main clause

In the sentence “If I were you, I would go to the annual meeting of maxillofacial residents,” “If I were you” is the if-clause, and “I would go to the annual meeting of radiology residents” is the main clause.

The if-clause can come before or after the main clause. We often put a comma when the if-clause comes first.

**Main Types of Conditional Sentences**

**Type 0**

To talk about things that are always true (general truths).

*If* + simple present + simple present:

- *If* you perform a full laparotomy, the approach to the gallbladder is extremely easy.
- *If* you see free air in the abdomen, the patient is perforated.
- *If* you drink too much alcohol, you get a sore head.
- *If* you take drugs habitually, you become addicted.

Note that the examples above refer to things that are normally true. In fact, you could replace “if” with “when” without changing the meaning of the sentence. They make no reference to the future; they represent a present simple concept. This is the basic (or classic) form of the conditional type 0.

There are possible variations of this form. In the if-clause and in the main clause we can use the present continuous, present perfect simple, or present perfect continuous instead of the present simple. In the main clause we can also use the imperative instead of the present simple:

- Residents only get a certificate *if* they *have attended* the course regularly.

So the type 0 form can be reduced to:

*If* + present form + present form or imperative.

Present forms include the present simple, present continuous, present perfect simple, and present perfect continuous.

**Type 1**

To talk about future situations that the speaker thinks are likely to happen (the speaker is thinking about a real possibility in the future).
If + simple present + future simple (will):

- If I find something new about the laser treatment of varicose veins, I will tell you.
- If we analyze different incisions, we will be able to approach the same anatomic target from different perspectives.

These examples refer to future things that are possible and it is quite probable that they will happen. This is the basic (or classic) form of the type 1 conditional.

There are possible variations on the basic form. In the if-clause we can use the present continuous, the present perfect, or the present perfect continuous instead of the present simple. In the main clause we can use the future continuous, future perfect simple, or future perfect continuous instead of the future simple. Modals that refer to the future, such as can, may, or might, are also possible.

So the form of type 1 can be reduced to:

- If + present form + future form.

Future forms include the future simple, future continuous, future perfect simple, future perfect continuous, and models that refer to the future.

Type 2

To talk about future situations that the speaker thinks are impossible or highly improbable (the speaker is imagining a possible future situation) or to talk about unreal, hypothetical situations in the present.

If + simple past + conditional (would):

- Peter, if you studied harder, you would be better prepared for doing your PhD in thoracic surgery.

The above sentence tells us that Peter is not studying hard enough.

- If I were you, I would go to the Annual Meeting of the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons.
- If I were a resident again, I would go to Harvard Medical School for a whole year to complete my training period (but I am not a resident and do not plan on being one again).

There are possible variations on the basic form. In the if-clause we can use the past continuous instead of the past simple. In the main clause we can use would be + gerund, could, or might instead of would.

So the form of type 2 can be reduced to:

- If + past simple or continuous + would, could, or might.
Type 3

To talk about past situations that didn’t happen (impossible actions in the past).

If + past perfect + perfect conditional (would have + past participle):

- If I had known the patient’s symptoms, I probably would not have missed the small pancreatic lesion on the CT scan.

As you can see, we are talking about the past. The real situation is that I didn’t know the patient’s symptoms, so I didn’t notice the small pancreatic lesion.

This is the basic (or classic) form of the third type of conditional. There are possible variations. In the if-clause we can use the past perfect continuous instead of the past perfect simple. In the main clause we can use the continuous form of the perfect conditional instead of the perfect conditional simple. Would probably, could, or might instead of would are also possible (when we are not sure about something).

Mixed conditionals:

Sometimes we mix type 2 and type 3 conditionals to talk about the present results of hypothetical past actions or about the hypothetical past results of hypothetical present conditions.

If we had operated, the patient would be alive.
If I were you, I would have referred her to Dr. Zehr.

In Case

“The heart surgeon wears two pairs of latex gloves during an intervention in case one of them tears.” In case one of them tears, because one of them might tear during the intervention (in the future).

Note that we don’t use will after in case. We use a present tense after in case when we are talking about the future.

In case is not the same as if. Compare these sentences:

- We’ll buy some more food and drink if the new residents come to our department’s party. (Perhaps the new residents will come to our party. If they come, we will buy some more food and drink; if they don’t come, we won’t.)

- We will buy some food and drink in case the new residents come to our department’s party. (Perhaps the new residents will come to our department’s party. We will buy some more food and drink whether they come or not.)

We can also use in case to say why someone did something in the past:

- He rang the bell again in case the nurse hadn’t heard it the first time. (Because it was possible that the nurse hadn’t heard it the first time.)

In case of (=if there is):

- In case of fire, leave the building immediately.
**Unless**

“Don’t take these pills unless you are extremely anxious.” (Don’t take these pills except if you are extremely anxious.) This sentence means that you can take the pills only if you are extremely anxious.

We use *unless* to make an exception to something. In the example above, the exception is *you are extremely anxious*.

We often use *unless* in warnings:

- *Unless* you send the application form today, you won’t be able to attend the next National Congress of Gynecology.

It is also possible to use *if* in a negative sentence instead of *unless*:

- Don’t take those pills *if you aren’t* extremely anxious.
- *If you don’t send* the application form today, you won’t be able to attend the next Congress of Gynecology.

**As Long As, Provided (That), Providing (That)**

These expressions mean *but only if*:

- You can use my new pen to sign your report *as long as* you write carefully (i.e., *but only if* you write carefully).
- Going to the hospital by car is convenient *provided (that)* you have somewhere to park (i.e., *but only if* you have somewhere to park).
- *Providing (that)* she studies the clinical cases, she will deliver a brilliant presentation.

**Passive Voice**

Study these examples:

- The first sentinel node biopsy was performed at our hospital in 1980 (passive sentence).
- Someone performed the first sentinel node biopsy at our hospital in 1980 (active sentence).

Both sentences are correct and mean the same. They are two different ways of saying the same thing, but in the passive sentence we try to make the object of the active sentence (“the first sentinel node biopsy”) more important by putting it at the beginning. So, we prefer to use the passive when “who” or “what” causes the action is not that important. In the example above, it is not so important (or not known) who performed the first sentinel node biopsy.
Active sentence:
• Fleming (subject) discovered (active verb) penicillin (object) in 1950.

Passive sentence:
• Penicillin (subject) was discovered (passive verb) by Fleming (agent) in 1950.

The passive verb is formed by putting the verb to be into the same tense as the active verb and adding the past participle of the active verb:
• Discovered (active verb)—was discovered (be + past participle of the active verb).

The object of an active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb (“penicillin”). The subject of an active verb becomes the agent of the passive verb (“Fleming”). We can leave out the agent if it is not important to mention it or it is unknown. If we want to mention the agent, we put it at the end of the sentence preceded by the particle by (“… by Fleming”). Normally, we prefer the active voice in sentences where the agent is important. We never use impersonal agents (by someone, by them) in passive sentences.

Some sentences have two objects, an indirect and a direct object. In these sentences, the passive subject can be either the direct object or the indirect object of the active sentence, although, as a general rule, we prefer to use the indirect object as the subject of the passive sentence:
• The doctor gave the patient a new treatment.

There are two possibilities:
• A new treatment was given to the patient.
• The patient was given a new treatment.

**Passive Forms of Present and Past Tenses**

**Simple Present**

Active:
• The surgeons review the most interesting cases in the clinical session every day.

Passive:
• The most interesting cases are reviewed in the clinical session every day.

**Simple Past**

Active:
• The nurse checked the renal function of the patient before the CT examination.

Passive:
• The renal function of the patient was checked before the CT examination.
**Present Continuous**

Active:
- Dr. Golightly is resecting a tumor right now.

Passive:
- A tumor is being resected right now.

"Please note that resect (to remove) and excise are not synonymous. Excise implies total removal, whereas resect need not involve total removal. A surgeon may resect part or all of a tumor, but if the surgeon excises the tumor, the entire tumor is removed.

**Past Continuous**

Active:
- They were carrying the injured person to the operating room.

Passive:
- The injured person was being carried to the operating room.

**Present Perfect**

Active:
- The plastic surgeon has performed ten blepharoplasties this morning.

Passive:
- Ten blepharoplasties have been performed this morning.

**Past Perfect**

Active:
- They had sent the CT films before the operation started.

Passive:
- The CT films had been sent before the operation started.

In sentences of the type “people say/consider/know/think/believe(expect/understand … that …,” such as “Doctors consider that AIDS is a fatal disease,” we have two possible passive forms:
- AIDS is considered to be a fatal disease.
- It is considered that AIDS is a fatal disease.

However, the first of these two forms is much more common and sounds more natural.
Have/Get Something Done

**FORM**

\[\text{Have}/\text{get} + \text{object} + \text{past participle.}\]

*Get* is more informal than *have*, and it is often used in spoken English:

- You should *get* your laser machine tested.
- You should *have* your laser machine tested.

When we want to say that we don’t want to or can’t do something ourselves and we arrange for someone to do it for us, we use the expression *have something done*:

- Dr. Flick has his Porsche washed every Friday.
- The patient had all his body hair removed in order to prevent infections after the operation.
- I’m going to have my eyes tested next week.

Sometimes the expression *have something done* has a different meaning:

- John had his knee injured playing football. MRI showed a meniscal tear.

It is obvious that this doesn’t mean that he arranged for somebody to injure his knee. With this meaning, we use *have something done* to say that something (often something not nice) happened to someone.

**Supposed To**

*Supposed to* can be used in the following ways:

It can be used like *said to*:

- The chairman is supposed to be the one who runs the department.

To say what is planned or arranged (and this is often different from what really happens):

- The fourth-year resident is supposed to perform this intervention.

To say what is not allowed or not advisable:

- She was not supposed to be on call yesterday.

**Reported Speech**

Imagine that you want to tell someone else what the patient said. You can either repeat the patient’s words or use reported speech.
The reporting verb (*to say* in the examples below) can come before or after the reported clause, but it usually comes before the reported clause. When the reporting verb comes before, we can use *that* to introduce the reported clause or we can leave it out. When the reporting verb comes after, we cannot use *that* to introduce the reported clause.

The reporting verb can report statements, thoughts, questions, orders, and requests.

**Reporting in the Present**

When the reporting verb is in the present tense, it isn’t necessary to change the tense of the verb in the reported clause:

- “I’ll help you guys with this cataract,” he says.
- He says (that) he will help us with this cataract.
- “The vertebroplasty will take place this morning,” he says.
- He says (that) the vertebroplasty will take place this morning.

**Reporting in the Past**

When the reporting verb is in the past tense, the verb in direct speech usually changes in the following ways:

- Simple present changes to simple past.
- Present continuous changes to past continuous.
- Simple past changes to past perfect.
- Past continuous changes to past perfect continuous.
- Present perfect changes to past perfect.
- Present perfect continuous changes to past perfect continuous.
- Past perfect stays the same.
- Future changes to conditional.
- Future continuous changes to conditional continuous.
- Future perfect changes to conditional perfect.
- Conditional stays the same.
- Present forms of modal verbs change to past forms (if they exist).
- Past forms of modal verbs stay the same.

Pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs also change. Here are some examples:

- Pronouns change to accommodate the changes in perspective.
- *Now* changes to *then*.
- *Today* changes to *that day*.
- *Tomorrow* changes to *the day after*.
- *Yesterday* changes to *the day before*.
- *This* changes to *that*. 
Here changes to there.
Ago changes to before.

It is not always necessary to change the verb in the reported clause when you use reported speech. If you are reporting something and you feel that it is still true, you do not need to change the tense of the verb, but if you want to you can:

- The treatment of choice for severe bleeding after the operation is the administration of fresh frozen plasma.
- He said (that) the treatment of choice for severe bleeding after the operation is the administration of fresh frozen plasma.

or

- He said (that) the treatment of choice for severe bleeding after the operation was fresh frozen plasma.

**Reporting Questions**

**Yes and No Questions**

We use whether or if:
- Do you smoke or drink any alcohol?
  - The doctor asked if I smoked or drank any alcohol.
- Have you ever had hives after intravenous contrast injections?
  - The doctor asked me whether I had ever had hives after intravenous contrast injections.
- Are you taking any pills or medicines?
  - The doctor asked me if I was taking any pills or medicines.

**Wh… Questions**

We use the same question word as in the wh… question:
- What do you think about doing the operation laparoscopically?
  - The patient asked me what I thought about doing the operation laparoscopically.
- Why do you think you need to operate?
  - The patient asked me why I thought we needed to operate.
- When will I be able to be discharged?
  - The patient asked when she would be able to be discharged.
- How often do you have headaches?
  - The doctor asked how often I had headaches.
Reported Questions

Reported questions have the following characteristics:

- The word order is different from that of the original question. There is no inversion of the subject and verb; the verb follows the subject as in an ordinary statement.
- The auxiliary verbs do, does, and did are not used.
- There is no question mark.
- The verb changes in the same way as in the reported speech of statements.

Study the following examples:

- How old are you?
- The doctor asked me how old I was.

- Do you smoke?
- The doctor asked me if I smoked.

Reporting Orders and Requests

Tell or ask (pronoun) + object (indirect) + infinitive:

- Take the pills before meals.
- The doctor told me to take the pills before meals.
- You mustn’t smoke.
- The doctor told me not to smoke.
- Could you please have a look at this brain scan and let me know what you think?
- The neurosurgeon asked the radiologist to look at the brain scan and let her know what he thought.
- Will you help me with this?
- He asked her to help him.

Reporting Suggestions and Advice

Suggestions and advice are reported in the following forms:

- Suggestions
  - Why don’t we operate on that patient this evening?
  - The surgeon suggested operating on that patient that evening.

- Advice
  - You had better stay in bed.
  - The doctor advised me to stay in bed.
Questions

In sentences with *to be, to have* (in its auxiliary form), and modal verbs, we usually make questions by changing the word order:

- **Affirmative**
  - You are an eye surgeon.
  - Interrogative: Are you an eye surgeon?

- **Negative**
  - You are not an eye surgeon.
  - Interrogative: Aren’t you an eye surgeon?

In simple present questions we use *do* or *does*:

- His stomach hurts after having a nasogastric probe for 3 days in a row.
- Does his stomach hurt after having a nasogastric probe for 3 days in a row?

In simple past questions we use *did*:

- The nurse arrived on time.
- Did the nurse arrive on time?

If *who/what/which* is the subject of the sentence we do not use *do*:

- Someone paged Dr. Heijmen.
- Who paged Dr. Heijmen? If *who/what/which* is the object of the sentence we use *did*:

- Dr. Heijmen paged someone.
- Who did Dr. Heijmen page?

When we ask indirect questions beginning with *Do you know… or Could you tell me…*, the rest of the question maintains the word order of an affirmative sentence:

- Where is the reading room?
- but
- Do you know where the reading room is?
- Where is the library?
- but
- Could you tell me where the library is?

Reported questions also maintain the word order of an affirmative sentence:

- Dr. Wilson asked: How are you?
- but
- Dr. Wilson asked me how I was.
Short answers are possible in questions with auxiliary verbs:

- Do you smoke? Yes, I do.
- Did you smoke? No, I didn’t.
- Can you walk? Yes, I can.

We also use auxiliary verbs with so (affirmative) and neither or nor (negative) to agree with positive and negative statements, respectively. In these cases, we also change the word order:

- I am feeling tired. So am I.
- I can’t remember the name of the disease. Neither can I.

To disagree with positive and negatives statements, we can use the auxiliary verb:

- I think we should wait to do the operation. I don’t.
- I won’t be going to the congress. I will.

We often use so or not to provide short answers to simple questions:

- Is he going to pass the boards? I think so.
- Will you be on call tomorrow? I guess not.
- Will you be off call the day after tomorrow? I hope so.
- Has the chairman been invited to the party? I’m afraid so.

**Tag Questions**

We use a positive tag question with a negative sentence and vice versa:

- The first-year resident isn’t feeling very well today, is she?
- You are working late at the lab, aren’t you?

After let’s the tag question is shall we?

- Let’s read a couple of articles, shall we?

After the imperative, the tag question is will you?

- Turn down the cautery, will you?

**Verb Patterns**

**The Gerund (Verb + -ing)**

Certain verbs are always followed by a gerund when followed by another verb. Others can be followed by a gerund or infinitive with little or no change in meaning, and still others can be followed by a gerund or infinitive but with an important change in meaning.
Verbs that are always followed by gerunds:

- **Finish**: I’ve finished translating the article into English.
- **Enjoy**: I enjoy talking to patients while I’m doing operations under local anesthesia.
- **Mind**: I don’t mind being told what to do.
- **Suggest**: Dr. Knight suggested going to the OT and trying to operate on the aneurysm that we couldn’t stent.
- **Dislike**: She dislikes going out late after a night on-call.
- **Imagine**: I can’t imagine you operating. You told me you hate blood.
- **Admit**: The resident admitted forgetting to report Mrs. Smith’s mammogram.
- **Consider**: Have you considered finishing your residency in the USA?

Other verbs that follow this structure are: *avoid, deny, involve, practice, miss, postpone, and risk*.

The following expressions also take *-ing*:

- **Give up**: Are you going to give up smoking?
- **Keep on**: She kept on interrupting me while I was speaking.

When we are talking about finished actions, we can also use the verb *to have*:

- The resident admitted forgetting to visit Dr. Smith’s patient that day.
- or
- The resident admitted having forgotten to visit Dr. Smith’s patient that day.

And, with some of these verbs (*admit, deny, regret, and suggest*), you also can use a “that…” structure:

- The resident admitted forgetting to visit Dr. Smith’s patient.
- or
- The resident admitted that he had forgotten to visit Dr. Smith’s patient.

**Verb + Infinitive**

When followed by another verb, these verbs are used with verb + infinitive structure:

- **Agree**: The patient agreed to give up smoking.
- **Refuse**: The patient refused to give up smoking.
- **Promise**: I promised to give up smoking.
- **Threaten**: Dr. Sommerset threatened to close the Vascular Department.
- **Offer**: The unions offered to negotiate.
- **Decide**: Dr. Knight’s patients decided to leave the waiting room.

Other verbs that follow this structure are: *attempt, manage, fail, plan, arrange, afford, learn, dare, tend, appear, seem, pretend, and intend*. 
There are two possible structures after the following verbs: *want, ask, expect, help, would like*, and *would prefer*:

- **Verb + infinitive**: I asked to see Dr. Knight, the surgeon who operated on my patient.
- **Verb + object + infinitive**: I asked Dr. Knight to inform me about my patient.

*Would like* is a polite way of saying *want*:

- **Would you like to be** the chairman of the hepatic transplantation division?

Only the second structure (verb + object + infinitive) is possible after the following verbs: *tell, order, remind, warn, force, invite, enable, teach, persuade, and get*:

- **Remind me to send** that grant application before 10 a.m. tomorrow.

There are two possible structures after the following verbs:

- **Advise**:
  - I wouldn’t advise doing an internship in that urology department.
  - I wouldn’t advise you to do an internship in that urology department.

- **Allow**:
  - They don’t allow smoking in the lunchroom.
  - They don’t allow you to smoke in the lunchroom.

- **Permit**:
  - They don’t permit eating in the surgery reading room.
  - They don’t permit you to eat in the surgery reading room.

When you use *make* and *let*, you should use the structure: verb + base form (infinitive without *to*) instead of verb + infinitive:

- Blood makes me feel dizzy (you can’t say: blood makes me to feel …).
- Dr. Knight wouldn’t let me practice on his patient.

But in the passive voice, you need to include *to*:

- When I was a resident, I was made to learn all kinds of sutures that I will never use.

After the following expressions and verbs you can use either -*ing* or the infinitive, with no change in meaning: *like, hate, love, can’t stand, can’t bear, begin, start*, and *continue*:

- She can’t stand being alone while she is performing a hip replacement.
- She can’t stand to be alone while she is performing a hip replacement.
- The patient began to improve after the percutaneous drainage of his collection.
- The patient began improving after the percutaneous drainage of his collection.

The use of -*ing* and infinitive after some verbs, such as *remember* and *try*, has different meanings:

- **Remember** (you remember to do something before you do it; you remember doing something after you do it):
  - I did not remember to place the tip of the cannula in the IVC before starting the cardiopulmonary bypass. (I forgot to place the cannula properly.)
– I distinctly remember placing the tip of the cannula in the IVC before starting cardiopulmonary bypass.

*Please note that the plural of cannula is cannulae.

– Try (try to do=make an effort to do; try doing=apply a technique):
  – The interventional radiologist tried to occlude the bleeding vessel.
  – He tried using coils; when that didn’t work, he tried adding gelfoam pledgets.

**Verb + Preposition + -ing**

The gerund is the noun form of the verb in English, so when a verb is the object of a preposition, it needs to be in the gerund form (*base form* + *-ing*):

– Are you interested in working for our hospital?
– What are the advantages of developing new surgical techniques?
– She’s not very good at learning languages.

You can use -ing with before and after:

– Discharge Mr. Brown before operating on the aneurysm.
– What did you do after finishing your residency?

You can use by + -ing to explain how something happened:

– You can improve your medical English by reading scientific articles.

You can use -ing after without:

– Jim left the hospital without realizing he had left his keys in his locker.

Be careful with *to* because it can be a part of either the infinitive or a preposition:

– I’m looking forward to see you again (this is NOT correct).
– I’m looking forward to seeing you again.
– I’m looking forward to the next European Congress.

Review the following verb + preposition expressions:

– succeed in finding a job
– feel like going out tonight
– think about operating on that patient
– dream of being a radiologist
– disapprove of smoking
– look forward to hearing from you
– insist on inviting me to chair the session
– apologize for keeping Dr. Ho waiting
– accuse (someone) of telling lies
– suspected of having AIDS
• stop from leaving the ward
• thank (someone) for being helpful
• forgive (someone) for not writing to me
• warn (someone) against carrying on smoking

The following are some examples of expressions + -ing:

• I don’t feel like going out tonight.
• It’s no use trying to persuade her.
• There’s no point in waiting for him.
• It’s not worth taking a taxi. The hospital is only a short walk from here.
• It’s worth looking at that radiograph again.
• I am having difficulty performing this anastomosis
• I am having trouble performing that anastomosis.

**Countable and Uncountable Nouns**

**Countable Nouns**

Countable nouns are things we can count. We can make them plural.

Before singular countable nouns you may use a/an:

- We will put a cast on your foot.
- Dr. Calleja is looking for an anesthetist.

Remember to use a/an for jobs:

- I’m a cardiovascular surgeon.

Before plural countable nouns you use some as a general rule:

- I’ve read some good articles on spiral chest CT lately.

Don’t use some when you are talking about general things:

- Generally speaking, I like plastic surgery books.

You have to use some when you mean some but not all:

- Some doctors carry a stethoscope but otorhinolaryngologists don’t.

**Uncountable Nouns**

Uncountable nouns are things we cannot count. They have no plural, so when they are used as the subject of a clause, they always take a singular verb.

You cannot use a/an before an uncountable noun; in this case you have to use the, some, any, much, this, his, etc. … or leave the uncountable noun alone, without the article:
The chairman gave me advice (NOT correct).
The chairman gave me some advice.

Many nouns can be used as countable or uncountable nouns. Usually there is a
difference in their meaning:

- I had many experiences on my rotation at the Children’s Hospital (countable).
- I need experience to become a good surgeon (uncountable).

Some nouns are uncountable in English but often countable in other languages: advice, baggage, behavior, bread, chaos, furniture, information, luggage, news, permission, progress, scenery, traffic, travel, trouble, and weather.

### Articles: *A / An* and *The*

We use *a/an* the first time we mention something, but once our audience knows what we are talking about, we say *the*:

- This morning I did *an* osteosynthesis and *a* closed reduction of the radius. *The* closed reduction did not take long.

We use *the* when it is clear which thing or person we mean:

- Can you turn off the light?
- Where is *the* Skin Cancer Division, please?

As a general rule, we say:

- The police
- The bank
- The post office
- The fire department
- The doctor
- The hospital
- The dentist

We say: *the* sea, *the* sky, *the* ground, *the* city, and *the* country.

We don’t use *the* with the names of meals:

- What did you have for lunch/breakfast/dinner?

But we use *a* when there is an adjective before a noun:

- Thank you. It was *a* delicious dinner.

And we use *the* to talk about a specific meal:

The chief had a bit too much to drink at *the* dinner after the congress.

We use *the* for musical instruments:

- Can you play *the* piano?
We use *the* with absolute adjectives (adjectives used as nouns). The meaning is always plural. For example:

- The rich
- The old
- The blind
- The sick
- The disabled
- The injured
- The poor
- The young
- The deaf
- The dead
- The unemployed
- The homeless

We use *the* with nationality words to make collective nouns (note that nationality words always begin with a capital letter):

- *The* British, *the* Dutch, *the* Spanish.

We don’t use *the* before a noun when we mean something in general:

- I love doctors (not the doctors).

With the words *school*, *college*, *prison*, *jail*, *church* we use *the* when we mean the buildings and leave the substantives alone otherwise. *We say: go to bed, go to work, and go home.* We don’t use *the* in these cases.

We use *the* with geographical names according to the following rules:

- We don’t use *the* with continents:
  - Our new resident comes from Asia.

- We don’t use *the* with countries/states:
  - The patient that underwent a liver quadrangular resection came from Sweden.

(Except for country names that include words such as Republic, Kingdom, States…; e.g., the United States of America, the United Kingdom, and The Netherlands).

As a general rule, we don’t use *the* with cities:

- The next Gynecology Congress will be held in Málaga.

We don’t use *the* with individual islands but we do use it with groups:

- Dr. Holmes comes from Sicily and her husband from the Canary Islands.

We don’t use *the* with lakes; with oceans, seas, rivers, and canals we do use it.

- Lake Windermere is beautiful.
- *The* Panama canal links *the* Atlantic ocean to *the* Pacific ocean.
We use the with streets, buildings, airports, universities, etc., according to the following rules:

- We don’t use the with streets, roads, avenues, boulevards, and squares:
  - The hospital is located at the corner of 3rd Street and 15th Avenue.

- We don’t use the with airports:
  - The plane arrived at JFK airport

- We use the before publicly recognized buildings: the White House, the Empire State Building, the Louvre museum, the Prado museum.

- We use the before names with of: the Tower of London, the Great Wall of China.

- We don’t use the with universities: I studied at Harvard. But with compound names like the Autonomous University of Barcelona we do.

**Word Order**

The order of adjectives is discussed in the section “Adjectives” under the heading “Adjective Order.”

The verb and the object of the verb normally go together and are not separated by adverbs:

- I studied surgery because I like saving lives very much (not I like very much saving lives).

We usually mention the place before the time:

- She has been practicing colorectal surgery in London since April.

We put some adverbs in the middle of the sentence:

If the verb is one word, we put the adverb before the verb:

- I performed his carotid endarterectomy and also spoke to his family.

We put the adverb after to be:

- You are always on time.

We put the adverb after the first part of a compound verb:

- Are you definitely attending the musculoskeletal surgery course?

In negative sentences we put probably before the negative:

- I probably won’t see you at the congress.
We also use *all* and *both* in these positions:

- Jack and Tom are both able to run a transplant program. (Or: Both Jack and Tom are able to run a transplant program.)
- We all felt sick after the meal. (*Or: All of us felt sick after the meal.*)

**Relative Clauses**

A clause is a part of a sentence. A relative clause tells us which person or thing (or what kind of person or thing) the speaker is referring to.

- A relative clause (e.g., *who is on call*) begins with a relative pronoun (e.g., *who, that, which, whose*).
- A relative clause comes after a noun phrase (e.g., the doctor, the nurse).
- Most relative clauses are defining clauses and some of them are non-defining clauses.

**Defining Clauses**

- *The book on vascular access (that) you lent me is very interesting.*

The relative clause is essential to the meaning of the sentence.

- Commas are not used to separate the relative clause from the rest of the sentence. 
  *That* is often used instead of *who* or *which*, especially in speech.
- If the relative pronoun is the object (direct object) of the clause, it can be omitted.
- If the relative pronoun is the subject of the clause, it cannot be omitted.

**Non-defining Clauses**

- *The first vertebroplasty in Australia, which took place at our hospital, was a complete success.*

The relative clause is not essential to the meaning of the sentence; it gives us additional information.

- Commas are used to separate the relative clause from the rest of the sentence. 
  *That* cannot be used instead of *who* or *which*.
- The relative pronoun cannot be omitted.

**Relative Pronouns**

Relative pronouns are used for people and for things.

- For people:
  - Subject: *who, that*
  - Object: *who, that, whom*
  - Possessive: *whose*
• For things:
  – Subject: which, that
  – Object: which, that
  – Possessive: whose

*Who* is used only for people. It can be the subject or the object of a relative clause:

• The patient *who* was admitted in a shock situation is getting better. Can we perform the cranial MRI now?

*Which* is used only for things. Like *who*, it can be the subject or object of a relative clause:

• The materials *which* are used for laparoscopic surgery are very expensive.

*That* is often used instead of *who* or *which*, especially in speech.

*Whom* is used only for people. It is grammatically correct as the object of a relative clause, but it is very formal and is not often used in spoken English. We can use *whom* instead of *who* when *who* is the object of the relative clause, and we always use *whom* after a preposition:

• The resident *who* I am going to the congress with is very nice.
• The resident with *whom* I am going to the congress is a very nice and intelligent person.
• The patient *who* I saw in the Cardiovascular Surgery Department yesterday has been diagnosed with Leriche’s syndrome.
• The patient *whom* I saw in the Cardiovascular Surgery Department yesterday has been diagnosed with Leriche’s syndrome.

*Whose* is the possessive relative adjective (it is always followed by a noun). It can be used for people and things. We cannot omit *whose*:

• Nurses *whose* wages are low should be paid more.

We can leave out *who, which, or that*:

• When it is the object of a relative clause.
  – The article on the spleen that you wrote is great.
  – The article on splenic laceration you wrote is great.

• When it is the object of a preposition. Remember that, in a relative clause, we usually put a preposition in the same place as in the main clause (after the verb):
  – The congress that we are going to next week is very expensive.
  – The congress we are going to next week is very expensive.

**Prepositions in Relative Clauses**

We can use a preposition in a relative clause with *who, which, or that*, or without a pronoun.
In relative clauses we put a preposition in the same place as in a main clause (after the verb). We don’t usually put it before the relative pronoun. This is the normal order in informal spoken English:

- This is a problem *that* we can do very little about.
- The nurse (*who*) I spoke to earlier isn’t here now.

In more formal or written English we can put a preposition at the beginning of a relative clause. But if we put a preposition at the beginning, we can only use *which* or *whom*. We cannot use the pronouns *that* or *who* after a preposition:

- This is a problem *about which* we can do very little.
- The nurse *to whom* I spoke earlier isn’t here now.

**Relative Clauses Without a Pronoun (Special Cases)**

**Infinitive Introducing a Clause**

We can use the infinitive instead of a relative pronoun and a verb after:

- The first, the second … and the next
- The only
- Superlatives

For example:

- Roentgen was the first man to use X-rays.
- Joe was the only surgeon willing *to operate* on that patient.

**-ing and -ed Forms Introducing a Clause**

We can use an *-ing* form instead of a relative pronoun and an active verb:

- Residents *wanting* to train abroad should have a good level of English.

We can use an *-ed* form instead of a relative pronoun and a passive verb:

- The man *injured* in the accident was taken to the CT room.

The *-ing* form or the *-ed* form can replace a verb in the present or past tense.

**Why, When, and Where**

We can use *why*, *when*, and *where* in a defining relative clause.

- This is the hospital where I did my residency.

We can leave out *why* or *when*. We can also leave out *where=* *in which*, but then we must use a preposition.

- This is the hospital I did my residency in.
We can also form non-defining relative clauses with *when* and *where*:

- The clinical history, *where* everything about a patient is written, is a very important document.

We cannot leave out *when* and *where* from a non-defining clause.

**Adjectives**

An adjective describes (tells us something about) a noun.

In English, adjectives come before nouns (old hospital) and have the same form in both the singular and the plural (new hospital, new hospitals) and in the masculine and in the feminine (with very few exceptions).

An adjective can be used alone after certain verbs such as *be*, *get*, *seem*, *appear*, *look* (meaning *seem*), *feel*, *sound*, *taste* …:

- He has been ill since Friday, so he couldn’t report that bone age scan.
- The patient was getting worse.
- The trans-urethral-resection (TUR) seemed easy, but it wasn’t.
- The kidney appeared normal.
- You look rather tired. Have you had your RBC checked?
- She felt sick, so she was unable to operate.
- Food in hospitals tastes horrible.

As you can see, in these examples there is no noun after the adjective.

**Adjective Order**

We have *fact adjectives* and *opinion adjectives*. Fact adjectives (*large, new, white, …*) give us objective information about something (*size, age, color, …*). Opinion adjectives (*nice, beautiful, intelligent, …*) tell us what someone thinks of something.

In a sentence, opinion adjectives usually go before fact adjectives:

- An *intelligent* (opinion) *young* (fact) surgeon visited me this morning.
- Dr. Spencer has a *nice* (opinion) *red* (fact) Porsche.

Sometimes there are two or more fact adjectives describing a noun, and generally we put them in the following order:

1. Size/length
2. Shape/width
3. Age
4. Color
5. Nationality
6. Material
Adjectives

For example:

- A tall young nurse
- A small round lesion
- A pair of black latex leaded gloves
- A pair of large new white latex leaded gloves
- An old American patient
- A tall young Italian resident
- A small square old blue iron monitor

Regular Comparison of Adjectives

The form used for a comparison depends on the number of syllables in the adjective.

Adjectives with One Syllable

The following forms are used for comparisons with one-syllable adjectives (for example fat, thin, tall):

- less ... than (inferiority)
- as ... as (equality)
- -er ... than (superiority)

For example:

- Calls are less hard than a few years ago.
- Eating in the hospital is as cheap as eating at the Medical School.
- Ultrasound examinations are difficult nowadays because people tend to be fatter than in the past.

Adjectives with Two Syllables

The following forms are used for comparisons with two-syllable adjectives (for example easy, dirty, clever):

- less ... than (inferiority)
- as ... as (equality)
- -er/more ... than (superiority)

We prefer -er for adjectives ending in y (easy, funny, pretty ...) and some other adjectives (such as quiet, simple, narrow, clever ...). For other two-syllable adjectives, we use more.

For example:

- The surgical problem is less simple than you think.
- My arm is as swollen as it was yesterday.
- The board exam was easier than we expected.
- His illness was more serious than we first suspected.
**Adjectives with Three or More Syllables**

The following forms are used for comparisons with adjectives with three or more syllables (for example: difficult, expensive, comfortable):

- *less … than* (inferiority)
- *as … as* (equality)
- *more … than* (superiority)

For example:

- Studying medicine in Spain is *less expensive than* in the States.
- The small hospital was *as comfortable as* a hotel.
- Studying the case was *more interesting than* I had thought.

Before the comparative of adjectives you can use:

- *a (little) bit*
- *a little*
- *much*
- *a lot*
- *far*

For example:

- I am going to try something *much simpler* to solve the problem.
- The patient is *a little better* today.
- The little boy is *a bit worse* today.

Sometimes it is possible to use two comparatives together (when we want to say that something is changing continuously):

- It is becoming *more and more* (i.e., increasingly) difficult to find a job in an academic hospital.

We also say *twice as … as, three times as … as*:

- Going to the European Congress of Plastic Surgery *is twice as expensive as* going to the French one.

**The Superlative**

The form used for a superlative depends on the number of syllables in the adjective:

*Adjectives with One Syllable*

One-syllable superlative adjectives use the form:

- *the …-est*
- *the least*
For example:

- The number of radiologists in your country is the highest in the world.

**Adjectives with Two Syllables**

Two-syllable superlative adjectives use the form:

- *the* […]-est/the most …
- *the least*

For example:

- Barium enema is one of the commonest tests in clinical practice.
- Barium enema is one of the most common tests in clinical practice.

**Adjectives with Three or More Syllables**

Adjectives of three or more syllables use the form:

- *the* most
- *the least*

For example:

- Common sense and patience are the most important qualities for a surgeon.
- This is the least difficult brain tumor resection I have performed in years.

**Irregular Forms of Adjectives**

- Good——better——the best
- Bad——worse——the worst
- Far——farther/further——the farthest/furthest

For example:

- Although I have attended several microsurgery refresher courses, my anastomotic skills are worse now than during my first year of residence.

**Comparatives with the**

We use *the* + comparative to talk about a change in one thing which causes a change in something else:

- The cleaner the field, the better image we have.
- The more you practice with knots, the easier it gets.
- The greater the surgeon’s skill, the lower the risk of complications.
As

Two things happening at the same time or over the same period of time:
- The resident listened carefully as (i.e., while) Dr. Fraser explained the different diagnostic possibilities to the patient.
- I began to enjoy my residency more as I got used to being on call.

One thing happening during another:
- The patient died as (i.e., while) the CT scan was being performed.
- I had to leave just as (i.e., when) the differential diagnosis discussion was getting interesting.

Note that we use as only if two actions happen together. If one action follows another we don’t use as, we use the particle when:
- When the injured person came to the emergency room, I decided to call the surgeon.

Meaning because:
- As I was feeling sick, I decided to go to the doctor.

Sometimes this usage generates ambiguity. In the following examples, it is difficult to know whether as means because or while:
- As they were bringing the patient in, I left the operating room.
- As the patient was screaming, the nurse’s aide was trying to summon help.

Like and As

Like

Like is a preposition, so it can be followed by a noun, pronoun, or -ing form.
It means similar to or the same as. We use it when we compare things:
- This comfortable head coil is like a velvet hat.
- What does he do? He is an ophthalmologist, like me.

As

As (=the way that) + subject + verb:
- Don’t change the dose of antibiotics. Leave everything as it is.
- He should have been treated as I showed you.

Meaning what:
- The resident did as he was told.
Meaning *in the manner* (*directed, agreed, promised, etc.*):

- He made the diagnosis just with the clinical examination, *as* I expected.
- *As* you know, we are sending an article to the *European Journal of Vascular Surgery* next week.
- *As* I thought, the patient was under the influence of alcohol.

*As* can also be a preposition, so it can be used with a noun, but it has a different meaning from *like.*

*As* + noun is used to say what something really is or was (especially when we talk about someone’s job or how we use something):

- Before becoming a plastic surgeon I worked *as* a general practitioner in a small village.

*As if, as though* are used to say how someone or something looks, sounds, feels, …, or to say how someone does something:

- The doctor treated me *as if* I were his son.
- John sounds *as though* he has got a cold.

Expressions with *as*:

- *Such as* = *for example*
- *As usual* (Dr. González was late *as usual.*)

**So and Such**

*So* and *such* make the meaning of the adjective stronger.

We use *so* with an adjective without a noun or with an adverb:

- The first-year resident is *so clever.*
- The weather has been *so beautiful* lately.
- The traumatologist injected lidocaine *so carefully* that the patient did not notice it.

We use *such* with an adjective with a noun:

- She is *such a clever resident.*
- We’ve been having *such beautiful weather* lately. (Note that weather is uncountable, so there is no indefinite article).

*So* and *such* are often used with *that* to show a causal relationship.

- The resident was *so tired* *that* she could hardly keep her eyes open during the session.
- It was *such* a complex case *that* we had to bring in an outside consultant.
Prepositions

At/On/In Time

We use *at* with a point in time:

- *At* 7 o’clock
- *At* midnight
- *At* breakfast time

We usually leave out *at* when we ask (*at*) *what time*:

- *What time* are you operating this evening?

We also use *at* in these expressions:

- *At* night
- *At* the moment
- *At* the same time
- *At* the beginning of
- *At* the end of

For example:

- I don’t like to be on call *at night*.
- Dr. Knight is operating *at the moment*.

We use *in* for longer periods of time:

- *In* June
- *In* summer
- *In* 1977

We also say *in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening*:

- I’ll visit all the patients *in the morning*.

We use *on* with days and dates:

- *On* October 9th
- *On* Monday
- *On* Saturday mornings
- *On* the weekend (*At* the weekend in British English)

We do not use *at/in/on* before *last* and *next*:

- I’ll be on call *next* Saturday.
- They bought a new scanner *last* year.

We use *in* before a period of time (i.e., a time in the future):

- Our resident went to Boston to do a rotation on minimally invasive surgery. He’ll be back *in* a year (i.e., a year from now).
- I predict she’ll need another bypass *in 5* years (i.e., 5 years from now).
**For, During, and While**

We use *for* to say to how long something takes:
- I’ve worked as a surgeon at this hospital *for* 10 years.

You cannot use *during* in this way:
- It rained *for* 5 days (not *during* 5 days).

We use *during* + noun to say when something happens (not how long):
- The resident fell asleep *during* the morning conference.

We use *while* + subject + verb:
- The resident fell asleep *while* he was attending the morning conference.

**By and Until**

*By* + a time (i.e., not later than=at or before; you cannot use *until* with this meaning):
- I mailed the article on carotid dissection today, so they should receive it *by* Tuesday.

*Until* can be used to say how long a situation continues:
- Let’s wait *until* the patient gets better.

When you are talking about the past, you can use *by the time*:
- *By the time* they got to the hotel, the congress had already started.

**In/At/On for Places**

We use *in* as in the following examples:
- *In* a room
- *In* a building
- *In* a town/*in* a country (Dr. Gutierrez works *in* Málaga.)
- *In* the water/ocean/river
- *In* a row
- *In* the hospital

We use *at* as in the following examples:
- *At* the bus stop
- *At* the door/window
- *At* the top/bottom
• At the airport
• At work
• At sea
• At an event (I saw Dr. Jules at the residents’ party.)

We use on as in the following examples:

• On the ceiling
• On the floor
• On the wall
• On a page
• On your nose
• On a farm

**In or At?**

• We say in the corner of a room, but at the corner of a street.
• We say in or at college/school. Use at when you are thinking of the college/school as a place or when you give the name of the college/school:
  – Thomas will be in college for 3 more years.
  – He studied medicine at Harvard Medical School.
• With buildings, you can use in or at.
• Arrive. We say:
  – Arrive in a country or town (Dr. Jimenez arrived in Boston yesterday.)
  – Arrive at other places (Dr. Jimenez arrived at the airport a few minutes ago.)
  – But: arrive home (Dr. Jimenez arrived home late after sending the article to ATS.)

Prophylaxis against infection, not prophylaxis on infection!

**American English vs. British English**

The differences between these two varieties of English are much broader than just “a different accent.” In fact, differences can be found in spelling, vocabulary, and grammar. In Unit XII, there is a text written in British English that nicely shows some of the particularities of this variety of English.

Most journals will accept either style, as long as it is used consistently throughout the article. It is probably wise to use “British English” for articles sent to British journals and “American English” for articles sent to American journals, although today reviewers for journals written in English may be from any place in the world.

There are many differences in the way words are spelled in British and American English, and these are especially common in medical words derived from Latin.
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**Miscellaneous**

Analogue  
Programme (for congresses, concerts, etc., but computer program)  
Practise (verb—the noun is spelled practice)  

**Analogue**  
Programme (all types)  
Practice (verb and noun)  

**PHÆ**  
Sulphur  
Sulphonamide  
Compound medical words tend to be hyphenated  

**F**  
Sulfur  
Sulfonamide  
Compound medical words tend to be written without hyphens  

Hepatico-duodenostomy  
Sterno-pericardial  

Hepaticoduodenostomy  
Stemopericardial  

There are many differences in vocabulary. These tend to be found in colloquial, everyday language more than in medical vocabulary. Many words are recognized on both sides of the Atlantic, but some are more common on one side than the other. Here are just a few examples:

### Clothing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mackintosh (mac)</td>
<td>Raincoat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tights</td>
<td>Leotards/panty hose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trousers</td>
<td>Pants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nightdress</td>
<td>Nightgown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinner jacket</td>
<td>Tuxedo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polo neck</td>
<td>Turtleneck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vest</td>
<td>Undershirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knickers</td>
<td>Panties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handbag</td>
<td>Purse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Hair and nails

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sideboards</td>
<td>Sideburns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nail varnish</td>
<td>Nail polish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fringe</td>
<td>Bangs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Be aware of some street words you should not say but you might hear, they have a double meaning…:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Slut</td>
<td>Tramp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tramp</td>
<td>Homeless person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arse</td>
<td>Ass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ass</td>
<td>Donkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Holidays and home living

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rucksack</td>
<td>Backpack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortnight</td>
<td>Two weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father Christmas</td>
<td>Santa Claus or Santa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queue (to queue up)</td>
<td>Line (to stand in line)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flat</td>
<td>Apartment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground floor</td>
<td>First floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garden</td>
<td>Yard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To let</td>
<td>To rent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post code</td>
<td>Zip code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lift</td>
<td>Elevator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tap</td>
<td>Faucet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The box, the telly (TV)</td>
<td>The tube (TV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To hoover</td>
<td>To vacuum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilet, loo</td>
<td>Bathroom, restroom, lavatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bin</td>
<td>Garbage bag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duvet</td>
<td>Comforter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blind</td>
<td>Shade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothes peg</td>
<td>Clothes pin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wardrobe</td>
<td>Closet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couch</td>
<td>Sofa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fridge</td>
<td>Refrigerator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand basin</td>
<td>Sink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Family stuff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nappy</td>
<td>Diaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dummy</td>
<td>Pacifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cot</td>
<td>Crib</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pushchair</td>
<td>Stroller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mum</td>
<td>Mom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Health and work terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public limited company (plc)</td>
<td>Incorporated company (inc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reception</td>
<td>Lobby, front desk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To sack</td>
<td>To fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A rise</td>
<td>A raise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemist</td>
<td>Drug store, pharmacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surgery</td>
<td>Examination room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anesthetist (technician who administers anesthesia)</td>
<td>Anesthetist (physician specialized in anesthesiology)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anesthesiologist (physician specialized in anesthesiology)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating theater</td>
<td>Operating room</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## City life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trolley</td>
<td>Cart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car boot sale</td>
<td>Garage sale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping centre</td>
<td>(Shopping) mall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironmonger’s</td>
<td>Hardware store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current account</td>
<td>Checking account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishmonger’s</td>
<td>Fish store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAT (value added tax)</td>
<td>Sales tax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town centre</td>
<td>Downtown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Other words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tippex</td>
<td>White out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber</td>
<td>Eraser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parcel</td>
<td>Package</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full stop</td>
<td>Period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form, year</td>
<td>Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brackets</td>
<td>Parentheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autumn</td>
<td>Fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisps</td>
<td>Chips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chips</td>
<td>French fries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The list goes on and on, you can find entire books on the topic. Grammatical differences are few and relatively unimportant. Pronunciation is also greatly different, but that issue is beyond the scope of this book.