Modern Brazilian Portuguese Grammar

*Modern Brazilian Portuguese Grammar: A Practical Guide* is an innovative reference guide to Brazilian Portuguese, combining traditional and function-based grammar in a single volume.

The *Grammar* is divided into two parts. Part A covers traditional grammatical categories such as agreement, nouns, verbs and adjectives. Part B is carefully organized around language functions covering all major communication situations such as:

- Establishing identity
- Making contact
- Expressing likes, dislikes and preferences.

With a strong emphasis on contemporary usage, all grammar points and functions are richly illustrated with examples. Main features of the *Grammar* include:

- Clear, jargon-free explanations
- Emphasis on the language as it is spoken and written today
- Extensive cross-referencing between the different sections.

A combination of reference grammar and practical usage manual, *Modern Brazilian Portuguese Grammar* is the ideal source for learners of Brazilian Portuguese at all levels, from beginner to advanced.

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Modern BRAZILIAN PORTUGUESE Grammar

A Practical Guide

John Whitlam
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Introduction

This book aims to provide a complete and practical guide to the Portuguese language as it is spoken and written in Brazil today. It is divided into two main parts: *Structures* and *Functions*.

*Part A – Structures* is a concise grammar of Brazilian Portuguese organized in the traditional way, describing the different grammatical features in turn. You can use this section both for systematic study of grammar and for quick reference when you want to know something about a particular form or structure (e.g. the subjunctive forms of a particular verb, how adjectives agree with nouns, when to use *ser* or *estar*, etc.).

*Part B – Functions*, which is the larger of the two parts, is organized according to the kinds of things you might want to say or write in particular situations in Portuguese, and here you can look up such things as how to apologize, how to say what you like and dislike, how to describe a person, etc. You will find that sometimes the same information is given in both parts of the book, although it is organized in a different way: in Part A by grammatical category and in Part B by linguistic function.

You will often want to refer back and forth between the two parts of the book; indeed, you are encouraged to do so, and to help you find what you are looking for, there are numerous cross-references indicated in the text or by arrows in the margin. There is also an index of words and topics at the back of the book so that you can find information again quickly and easily.

In Brazilian Portuguese there are considerable differences between informal and formal usage and between spoken and written language, and these are pointed out where appropriate. Note that these categories are not synonymous: as in any language, formal style may be used in speech in certain circumstances and informal style may be used in writing, for example, in an e-mail to a friend or in the dialogue of a novel. I have tried as far as possible to reflect the register of different forms and structures in the content and translation of the examples.

I have used traditional grammatical terms, especially in the *Structures* part, though I have explained such terms with reference to English in most cases. You can also find an explanation of any grammatical terms you may be unfamiliar with in the *Glossary*.

The following abbreviations have been used:

- *fem.* feminine
- *indic.* indicative
- *imperf.* imperfect
I would like to thank in particular Dr Beatriz Caldas for her perceptive and thought-provoking comments on the text, and Marcelo Affonso for his patience and moral support throughout. I am also grateful to all the friends, students and colleagues in Brazil who have, mostly unwittingly, served as informants for this book.

John Whitlam
Rio de Janeiro
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Glossary of grammatical terms

Small capitals indicate that the word is described elsewhere in the Glossary.

Active see Voice

Adjectives (see Chapters 2, 3 and 5)
Adjectives are words that describe NOUNS, and they agree in NUMBER (singular or plural) and GENDER (masculine or feminine) with the noun they describe:

O apartamento é pequeno.
The apartment is small.

As casas são espaçosas.
The houses are spacious.

Adjectives in Portuguese may also function as NOUNS (see 5.4) and as ADVERBS (see 5.5).

Adverbs
Adverbs are words that tell you something about a VERB, an ADJECTIVE or another adverb:

Ele sempre atrasa.
He’s always late.

A Júlia é extremamente inteligente.
Julia is extremely intelligent.

Falam muito rápido.
They talk very fast.

Agent
The performer of a verbal action: in an ACTIVE sentence, the agent is typically the SUBJECT of the sentence; in a PASSIVE sentence, the agent (the subject of the corresponding active sentence) is usually introduced by ‘by’ in English and by por in Portuguese.

Antecedent (see Chapter 10)
This is the noun to which a RELATIVE CLAUSE pertains, and which usually stands immediately before the relative PRONOUN:

O rapaz que está falando com a Cristina é meu primo.
The guy who is talking to Cristina is my cousin.

O carro que compramos é verde.
The car we bought is green.
There are two kinds of article in Portuguese: definite articles: o, a, os, as ‘the’; indefinite articles: um, uma ‘a(n)’:

A praia é longe daqui.
The beach is a long way from here.

Tem uma livraria por aqui?
Is there a bookshop around here?

Auxiliary verbs (see 17.3, 17.4, 24.1)
This is the name given to certain very common verbs that regularly combine with other verb forms. For example, in Portuguese ter is the perfect auxiliary and combines with the past participle to make the compound tenses (see 17.3).

Clause
A clause is a sentence within a sentence, recognizable because it contains a verb of its own. Clauses that can stand on their own are called main clauses, while those that cannot stand alone and must be combined with a main clause are called subordinate clauses:

Se chover, vou ficar em casa.
If it rains, I’m going to stay at home.

Eu acho que ele tem razão.
I think he’s right.

In the examples above, vou ficar em casa and eu acho are the main clauses, while se chover and que ele tem razão are subordinate clauses.

Conjunctions (see Chapter 26)
Conjunctions join words or groups of words. They are words like e ‘and’, ou ‘or’, mas ‘but’, porque ‘because’, etc.:

Ele chega amanhã ou depois de amanhã.
He arrives tomorrow or the day after tomorrow.

Ela trabalhou até tarde porque tinha muito o que fazer.
She worked late because she had a lot to do.

Demonstratives (see Chapter 8)
Demonstratives indicate proximity or remoteness, e.g. este ‘this’, aquele ‘that’.

Diphthong (see 1.3 and 1.4)
A diphthong is a sequence of two vowels in the same syllable.

Direct object see Object

Gender (see Chapter 2)
Portuguese has two genders, masculine and feminine. For example, a mesa ‘the table’ is feminine, while o carro ‘the car’ is masculine. ADJECTIVES, ARTICLES, DEMONSTRATIVES, POSSESSIVES and PRONOUNS must agree in gender with the noun they refer to.

Gerund (see 17.1)
Gerunds are forms like estudando ‘studying’, fazendo ‘doing’.
Imperative see Mood

Indicative see Mood

Indirect object see Object

Infinitive (see Chapter 19)
This is the base form of the Portuguese verb, as it normally appears in a dictionary, e.g. cantar ‘to sing’, beber ‘to drink’. In Portuguese, the infinitive can be impersonal or personal: an impersonal infinitive is one that has a general meaning or that has the same SUBJECT as an AUXILIARY or MODAL VERB used with it; a personal infinitive is one that has a SUBJECT of its own:

Eles querem voltar.
They want to come back.

Vamos esperar até eles voltarem.
Let’s wait until they get back.

In the first example above, voltar is an impersonal infinitive with the same subject as querem; in the second example, voltarem is a personal infinitive with its own subject, eles.

Intransitive verb
An intransitive verb is one that cannot take a direct OBJECT, e.g. ir ‘to go’, dormir ‘to sleep’.

Modal verb (see 24.2)
A modal verb, or modal AUXILIARY, is one that combines with another verb to express shades of meaning such as desire, possibility, obligation, ability, etc. Examples in Portuguese are: querer ‘want’, poder ‘can, may, might’, dever ‘should, must’, etc.

Mood
In Portuguese it is usual to refer to the indicative (see Chapter 18), the subjunctive (see Chapter 20) and the imperative (see Chapter 21) as different moods of the verb:

Ela mora em Sorocaba.
She lives in Sorocaba.

Tomara que não chova.
Let’s hope it doesn’t rain.

Fecha a porta.
Close the door.

As a rough guide, the indicative mood is associated with statements and assertions, the imperative with orders and commands, and the subjunctive with a wide range of subordinate CLAUSE usages.

Nouns
Nouns typically denote things, people, animals or abstract concepts, e.g. mesa, João, garota, camelo, beleza, razão.

Number
Portuguese, like English, distinguishes singular and plural number, e.g. a criança ‘the child’ (sing.), as crianças ‘the children’ (pl.).
Object
The object of a verb is a NOUN or PRONOUN that is affected by the action of the verb. It is usual to distinguish between direct objects and indirect objects: a direct object is directly affected by the action of the verb, while an indirect object is indirectly affected:

Ela me deu um presente.
She gave me a present.

In this sentence, um presente is the direct object of the verb deu while me is the indirect object.

Object pronoun
An object pronoun is a word that substitutes a noun, usually to avoid repetition, and that functions as the OBJECT of a verb. Like objects, object pronouns can be direct or indirect:

Ele me ama.
He loves me. (me is the direct object of amar)

Ele me mostrou as fotos.
He showed me the photos. (me is the indirect object of mostrar)

Passive see Voice

Past participle
A past participle is that part of the verb that is used to form the compound perfect and pluperfect tenses (see 17.3):

Ele tinha esquecido.
He had forgotten.

Não tem sido fácil.
It hasn’t been easy.

Past participles are also used to form the PASSIVE and can function as ADJECTIVES (see 17.4). In these two cases, they must agree in GENDER and NUMBER with the noun they refer to:

alimentos congelados
frozen foods

A casa foi destruída.
The house was destroyed.

Person
A category of personal pronouns (see Chapter 7), POSSESSIVES (see Chapter 9) and verb forms (see Chapter 15) indicating relationship to the speaker. There are three persons: the first person (‘I’, ‘we’), the second person (‘you’) and the third person (‘he’, ‘she’, ‘it’, ‘they’).

Possessives (see Chapter 9)
Adjectives or pronouns that indicate to whom or to what someone or something belongs:

os nossos amigos
our friends

Esses livros são meus.
These books are mine.
Glossary of Grammatical Terms

Preposition (see Chapter 25)
A preposition is a word such as em ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’, com ‘with’, entre ‘between’ ‘among’ that gives information about location, time, direction, etc:

Ela está em casa.
She’s at home. (place)

Eles mudaram para São Paulo.
They moved to São Paulo. (direction)

Trabalhei até meia-noite.
I worked until midnight. (time)

Pronoun
A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun or noun phrase, usually to avoid repetition:

Conhece o Felipe? Ele é meu primo.
Do you know Felipe? He’s my cousin.

O seu carro é maior do que o meu.
Your car is bigger than mine.

Reflexive (see Chapter 22)
A reflexive verb form involves the use of an object pronoun that refers back to the subject of the verb, e.g. eu me cortei ‘I cut myself’. However, reflexive verbs in Portuguese have other meanings that do not involve the subject doing something to him-, her- or itself. These are explained in Chapter 22.

Relative clause
A relative clause is a group of words within a sentence, containing a verb and introduced by a relative pronoun. The relative pronoun refers back to a preceding noun or pronoun (the antecedent) and the purpose of the relative clause is to further define that noun or pronoun or to provide additional information about it:

Você está vendo aquele homem de terno que está sentado ali?
Do you see that man in a suit who’s sitting over there?

A cidade onde eu moro fica a 100 km daqui.
The town where I live is 100 km from here.

Relative pronoun (see Chapter 10)
A relative pronoun is a word such as que, quem, onde, etc. that is used to introduce a relative clause:

Estou gostando muito do livro que estou lendo.
I’m really enjoying the book I’m reading.

A mulher com quem eu falava é a minha tia.
The woman I was talking to is my aunt.

Relative pronouns can often be omitted in English, as the translations above show, but they can never be omitted in Portuguese.
GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

Subject
The subject is the word or group of words in a sentence that designates the person or thing performing the action of the verb:

- **O português não é difícil.**
  Portuguese is not difficult.
- **Susana e Pedro vão casar.**
  Susana and Pedro are going to get married.

Tense (see Chapter 18)
Tenses are different forms of the verb that refer to different times. The present, the future, the imperfect, etc. are traditionally known as the tenses of the verb:

- **Ele mora em Paris.**
  He lives in Paris. *(verb in the present tense)*
- **Ele morou um ano em Londres.**
  He lived for a year in London. *(verb in the past tense)*

Transitive
A transitive verb is one that has a direct object, e.g. **tomar (cerveja)** 'to drink (beer)', **conhecer (a Ana)** 'to know (Ana)'.

Triphthong
A sequence of three vowel sounds in the same syllable.

Verb
Verbs usually denote actions or states, but they can also convey other ideas, such as transformations:

- **Ele trabalha numa fábrica.**
  He works in a factory.
- **Eles estão cansados.**
  They are tired.
- **Começou a chover.**
  It started to rain.

Voice
The voice of a verb is either active or passive. When a verb is in the active voice, the subject is doing the action of the verb; when a verb is in the passive voice, the subject is being affected by the action of the verb:

- **A cobra mordeu o cachorro.**
  The snake bit the dog. *(verb in the active voice)*
- **O cachorro foi mordido por uma cobra.**
  The dog was bitten by a snake. *(verb in the passive voice)*
Part A

Structures
## Pronunciation and spelling

### 1.1 The Portuguese alphabet

The Portuguese alphabet comprises the same letters as the English alphabet, but notice how the names of the letters are pronounced:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A, a</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>[a]</td>
<td>N, n</td>
<td>ene</td>
<td>[ˈeni]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B, b</td>
<td>bè</td>
<td>[be]</td>
<td>O, o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>[ɔ] or [o]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C, c</td>
<td>cê</td>
<td>[se]</td>
<td>P, p</td>
<td>pê</td>
<td>[pe]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D, d</td>
<td>dê</td>
<td>[de]</td>
<td>Q, q</td>
<td>quê</td>
<td>[ke]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E, e</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>[e] or [e]</td>
<td>R, r</td>
<td>erre</td>
<td>[ˈχi]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F, f</td>
<td>efê</td>
<td>[ˈefi]</td>
<td>S, s</td>
<td>esse</td>
<td>[ˈεsi]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G, g</td>
<td>gê</td>
<td>[ʒe]</td>
<td>T, t</td>
<td>tê</td>
<td>[te]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H, h</td>
<td>agá</td>
<td>[aˈga]</td>
<td>U, u</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>[u]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I, i</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>[i]</td>
<td>V, v</td>
<td>vê</td>
<td>[ve]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J, j</td>
<td>jota</td>
<td>[ˈʒɔta]</td>
<td>W, w</td>
<td>dábliu</td>
<td>[ˈdablju]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K, k</td>
<td>cá</td>
<td>[ka]</td>
<td>X, x</td>
<td>xis</td>
<td>[fis]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L, l</td>
<td>ele</td>
<td>[ˈeli]</td>
<td>Y, y</td>
<td>ipsilon</td>
<td>[ˈipsilõ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M, m</td>
<td>eme</td>
<td>[ˈeni]</td>
<td>Z, z</td>
<td>zê</td>
<td>[ze]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) Notice in particular the names of the letters h, j, x and y, and take care not to confuse e and i and k and q.

(ii) The ‘official’ pronunciation of the names of the letters e and o is [ɛ] and [ɔ] respectively, but many Brazilians, notably from São Paulo southwards, pronounce them [e] and [o] respectively.

(iii) The letters k, w and y are normally only used in foreign words and proper names.

(iv) H also forms part of the letter combinations ch, lh and nh (see 1.2).

### 1.2 Consonant sounds

The following consonants are pronounced as in English: b, f, k, p, v, w, y.

Other consonant sounds:

- c [k] as in cap before a, o and u: cafê [kaˈfe] ‘coffee’;
- [s] as in cite before e and i: centro [ˈsɛtru] ‘centre’;
- ç [s] as in cite: raça [ˈhasa] ‘race’;
- ch [ʃ] as in shop: choque [ʃɔkij] ‘shock’;
- d [d] as in day before a, e, o, u: dado [daˈdu] ‘dice’;
- [dʒ] as in Jill before i and unstressed final e: dia [ˈdʒia] ‘day’, sede
THE PRONUNCIATION OF PORTUGUESE

PRONUNCIATION AND SPELLING

The pronunciation of d and t as [dʒ] and [tʃ] respectively before a phonetic [i] sound is a phenomenon called palatalization and is very characteristic of Brazilian Portuguese. While there are many Brazilian speakers who do not palatalize d and t before [i], the palatalized pronunciation may be regarded as the standard and should be imitated by foreign learners. Palatalization occurs before the letter [i] and before unstressed e when it is pronounced as [i], most notably at the end of a word or in the prefix des.

NOTES

(i) The pronunciation of d and t as [dʒ] and [tʃ] respectively before a phonetic [i] sound is a phenomenon called palatalization and is very characteristic of Brazilian Portuguese. While there are many Brazilian speakers who do not palatalize d and t before [i], the palatalized pronunciation may be regarded as the standard and should be imitated by foreign learners. Palatalization occurs before the letter [i] and before unstressed e when it is pronounced as [i], most notably at the end of a word or in the prefix des.
Oral vowel sounds

1.3

1.3.1 a, i, u

a [a] as in father: carro [‘kahu] ‘car’
i [i] as in machine: fino [‘finu] ‘fine’

1.3.2 e and o

When stressed, the letters e and o each have two possible pronunciations depending on the particular word:

e [ε] similar to ay in day: cedo [‘sedu] ‘early’, or
[ɛ] as in bed: cego [‘segwu] ‘blind’;
o [o] as in bone: cor [kor] ‘colour’, or
[ɔ] as in top: copo [‘kɔpu] ‘glass’.

When unstressed, the pronunciation varies according to the position in the word:
e [e] in most unstressed positions: exato [‘zatu] ‘exact’;
[i] as in movie in word-final position: mole [‘molι] ‘soft’;
o [o] in most unstressed positions: tomate [to’matι] ‘tomato’;
[u] as in into in word-final position: sapato [sa’patu] ‘shoe’.

1.3.3 Oral diphthongs

The following vowel combinations form diphthongs consisting of a vowel + semivowel sound. Notice that the combination of a vowel followed by syllable-final l also produces a diphthong:

ai [aj] as in Kaiser: cais [kajs] ‘quay’;
ei [ej] like ey in hey: rei [hej] ‘king’;
ed [e] in bed followed by y: papéis [pa’pejs] ‘papers’;
eu [ew] like ay in day followed by w: meu [mew] ‘my’;
éu, el [ɛw] like e in bed followed by w: céu [seuw] ‘sky’, mel [mew] ‘honey’;
iu, il [iuj] like i in machine followed by w: riu [hiw] ‘(he) laughed’, vinil [vi’niw] ‘vinyl’;
oi [oj] like oy in boy: noite [‘nojtjι] ‘night’;
ói [ɔi] like o in top followed by y: lençóis [lɛ’sojs] ‘sheets’;
ol [ɔw] like o in top followed by w: lençol [lɛ’sow] ‘sheet’;
PRONUNCIATION AND SPELLING

1.4

Oral triphthongs

There are four oral triphthongs that only occur after [g] and [k] (spelt g and q):

- **uai** [waj] like *why: quais?* [kwajs] ‘which ones?’;
- **ual** [waw] like the exclamation *wow: qual?* [kwaw] ‘which one?’;
- **uei** [wej] like *way: averiguei* [averi`gwej] ‘I ascertained’;
- **uou** [wow] like the exclamation *whoa: averiguou* [averi`gwow] ‘he ascertained’.

Nasal vowel sounds

The nasal vowel sounds are very characteristic of Portuguese and differ from the oral vowel sounds in that, when you pronounce them, you allow air to pass through your nose as well as your mouth. To get the feel of nasal vowels, try saying ‘aah!’ as you would for the doctor and then, without stopping, push some of the air up through your nose. It should sound something like ‘aang’, but not quite the same.

There are five nasal vowels in Portuguese, and nasalization is indicated in spelling by placing a tilde (~) above the vowel or by the presence of *m* or *n* following the vowel in the same syllable. It is important to note that, in such cases, *m* and *n* are not themselves pronounced as separate sounds, e.g. *campo* ‘field’ is pronounced [`kãpu], and not [`kãmpu] or [`kampu]:

- **ã**, **am**, **an** [ã]: *imã* [`imã] ‘magnet’, *cantar* [kâ`tar] ‘to sing’;
  - in word-final position, **am** is pronounced [ãw]: *falam* [`falãw] ‘they speak’;
- **em**, **en** [ã]: *membro* [´mêbru] ‘member’, *venda* [´vêda] ‘sale’;
  - when word-final, usually pronounced as a diphthong [ẽj] (see below);
- **im**, **in** [ı˜]: *sim* [sî] ‘yes’, *pintar* [pî`tar] ‘to paint’;
- **om**, **on** [õ]: *tom* [tõ] ‘tone’, *honra* [´õha] ‘honour’;
- **um**, **un** [u˜]: *um* [u˜] ‘a, one’, *uns* [ûs] ‘some’.

Nasal diphthongs

The following diphthongs consist of a nasal vowel + semi-vowel sound:

- **ãe**, **ãi** [ãj]: *mãe* [mãj] ‘mother’, *cãibra* [´kãjbra] ‘cramp’;
- **ão** [aw]: *mão* [mãw] ‘hand’;
  - as a verb ending, this diphthong is also spelt **am**: *íam* [iãw] ‘they went’;
- **em** [ẽj]: in word-final position: *trem* [trej] ‘train’;
- **õe** [õj]: *põe* [põj] ‘(he) puts’;
- **uí** [ûj]: this sound only occurs in the word *muito* [´mûjtu] ‘much, very’.

Nasal triphthongs

There are two nasal triphthongs that only occur after [g] and [k] (spelt g and q):

- **uão** [wãw]: *saguão* [sa`gwãw] ‘lobby’;
- **uõe** [wõj]: *saguões* [sa`gwõjs] ‘lobbies’.
Spelling and pronunciation

Portuguese spelling is largely phonetic in the sense that most letters only have one possible reading in any given combination. The exceptions to this are:

(i) stressed e and o when they do not have a written accent: in most cases, you just have to memorize whether the sound is closed ([e] or [o]) or open ([ε] or [ɔ]) in a particular word;

(ii) gue/gui and que/qui are usually pronounced [ge/gi] and [ke/ki], but, in some words, the u is pronounced, forming the sounds [gwe/gwi] and [kwe/kwi]. Before the 2009 spelling reform, the u was written with a trema (ü) in such cases, but this convention was abolished in the reform, making it necessary to check the dictionary when in doubt;

(iii) x is usually pronounced [ʃ] between vowels, but there are some words where it is pronounced [ks] and others where it is pronounced [s] (see 1.2).

As a matter of convention, the unstressed third person plural verb ending [ãw] is spelt -am; when stressed, as in the future tense of all verbs or the present tense of the verbs ser, estar, dar and ir, it is spelt -ão.

The phonology of Brazilian Portuguese is such that two consonant sounds cannot fall together unless the first is [s] or [z] (written as s or x) or the second is [l] or [r]. In words where the spelling would seem to contradict these principles, an extra [i] sound is usually inserted between the two consonants when the word is pronounced:

psicologia [pısicoloʒia] ‘psychology’
observar [obisvar] ‘to observe’
abstrato [abisˈtratu] ‘abstract’.

When this extra [i] sound is inserted after d or t, it causes palatalization:
advogado [adʒiˈɡado] ‘lawyer’
ritmo [ˈɾitmu] ‘rhythm’.

With foreign words and names that end in a consonant other than s, Brazilian speakers automatically add an [i] sound to the end of the word. This is also reflected in the Portuguese spelling of words of foreign origin:

pop [ˈpɔpi] ‘pop’
Ford [ˈfɔrdʒi] ‘Ford’ (with palatalization)
time [ˈtʃimi] ‘team’
clube [ˈklubi] ‘club’.

In everyday Brazilian speech, there are cases where the pronunciation of certain sounds departs from the spelling. Most notable among these are:

(i) Stressed final vowels followed by s or z are frequently diphthongized:
mas [majs] ‘but’ (this is the usual pronunciation of this word)
gás [gajs] ‘gas’.
The diphthongs \textit{ei} and \textit{ou} are simplified to [e] and [o] before $r$:

- \textit{primeiro} [priˈmero] ‘first’
- \textit{louro} [ˈloru] ‘blond’.

The diphthong \textit{ai} is simplified to [a] before [ʃ] (spelt $x$):

- \textit{caixa} [ˈkaʃa] ‘box, cash desk’.

The oral vowels, especially $a$, are partially nasalized before $m$ or $n$ in the following syllable:

- \textit{ano} [ˈânu] ‘year’
- \textit{sonho} [ˈsõnu] ‘dream’.

The infinitive \textit{vir} ‘to come’ is pronounced with a nasal $i$ [vɨ].

**Syllabification**

Before learning the rules for the use of the written accents, it is important to know how to divide up Portuguese words into their constituent syllables. A syllable may take the following forms: vowel, vowel plus consonant, consonant plus vowel, or consonant vowel consonant:

- ti-a
- ap-to
- sub-mun-do.

A syllable is only considered to end with a consonant if the next syllable begins with a consonant, i.e. consonants that fall together are assigned to separate syllables. The following consonant groups are exceptions to this rule: $\text{ch, lh, nh; bl, br, cl, cr, dr, fl, fr, gl, gr, pl, pr, tr; gu, qu}$ – they are not split and begin a new syllable:

- ta-char
- ca-mi-nho
- ne-gro
- dis-tin-guir.

The only two-consonant combination that can appear in syllable-final position is $\text{-ns}$. Remember that the $n$ is not pronounced as a separate letter, so, phonetically, the syllable ends in a single consonant, e.g. \textit{trans-por-te} [trâsˈpɔrtʃi].

Diphthongs and triphthongs are not split:

- lau-do
- sa-guão.
Stress and written accents

The default position for word stress is the penultimate syllable. Words ending in -o(s), -a(s), -e(s), -am or -em that are stressed on the penultimate syllable have no written accent. The only exception to this rule is that stressed i and u may be written with an accent to show that they are to be pronounced separately rather than as part of a diphthong:

bracelete [bra`se`letʃi] ‘bracelet’ (follows rule)
desaparecido [dʒi`zapa`re`sidu] ‘disappeared’ (follows rule)
amam [ˈamæw] ‘they love’ (follows rule)
decidem [de`side̞j] ‘they decide’ (follows rule)
saida [sa`ida] ‘exit’ (accent used to separate vowel sounds)
saúde [sa`udʒi] ‘health’ (accent used to separate vowel sounds).

Words ending in the following letters are stressed on the last syllable unless another syllable carries a written accent: i, is, im; u, us, um, uns; l, n, r, x, z; ei, eis; ā, ās, āo, āos, ōs, ōs:

cupins [ku´piš] ‘termites’
urubu [uru´bu] ‘vulture’
capital [kapi´taw] ‘capital’
comer [ko´mer] ‘to eat’
cartaz [kar´taz] ‘poster’
falei [fa´lej] ‘I spoke’
maçã [ma´sã] ‘apple’
organizações [organiza´sõjs] ‘organizations’.

The accented forms éi/éis are used to differentiate the open diphthongs [εj/εjs] from the closed ei/eis [ej/ejs]:

levei [le`vej] ‘I took’
papéis [pa´pεjs] ‘papers’.

Words ending in stressed a, e or o (with or without s), including monosyllables, are written with an accent on the vowel. The acute accent is used for a and for e and o when they have the open pronunciation [ε] and [ɔ]. Closed e and o, [e] and [o], are written with the circumflex accent:

pá [pa] ‘shovel’
café [ka´fe] ‘coffee’
vocês [vo´ses] ‘you’
cipó [si´pɔ] ‘vine’
robô [ho´bo] ‘robot’.
The same applies to words ending with the stressed nasal em, although the written accent is not used on monosyllabic words:

- refém [heˈfɛj] ‘hostage’, pl. reféns

Some words of this type lose the written accent when a flexional ending is added, as the stressed syllable then becomes the penultimate of the word and, as such, does not require a written accent:

- mês [mes] ‘month’, pl. meses

Words stressed on the antepenultimate (third from last) syllable are written with an accent on the stressed vowel. The acute is used for a (except before m and n), i and u, and for e and o when they represent the open sounds [ɛ] and [ɔ]; the circumflex is used for a before m or n, and for e and o when they represent the closed sounds [ɛ] and [o] (which is always the case before m or n):

- árabe [ˈarabj] ‘Arab, Arabic’
- dúvida [ˈduvida] ‘doubt’
- lógico [ˈlɔʒiku] ‘logical’
- âncora [ˈãkora] ‘anchor’
- polêmico [poˈlemiku] ‘controversial’.

The same rules apply when a written accent is required on the penultimate syllable of words ending with the letters listed in 1.7.2:

- âmbar [ˈãbar] ‘amber’
- tênis [ˈtenis] ‘tennis, tennis shoes’
- órgão [ˈɔɾgãw] ‘organ’.

As stated in 1.7.1, stressed i and u may be written with an accent to show that they are to be pronounced separately and not as part of a diphthong (e.g. saída, saúde). However, the written accent is not used before -nh and the letters l, m, n, r, z, i and u when the latter occur in the same syllable, even though i and u are pronounced separately in these cases:

- rainha [haˈĩja] ‘queen’
- cair [kaˈi(r)] ‘to fall’
- caiu [kaˈiu] ‘(he) fell’
- juiz [ʒuˈiz] ‘judge’ cf. juíza ‘(female) judge’ (which has a written accent because z is not in the same syllable).

The verb pôr ‘to put’ is written with an accent to differentiate it from the preposition por ‘for, by, through’ and the verb form pôde ‘(he) was able to’ is written with an accent to differentiate it from the present tense pode ‘(he) can, is able to’.
Hyphenation

The hyphen has three main functions in Portuguese:

1.8.1 To link a dependent object pronoun to a verb form when the pronoun is placed after the verb (see 7.5):

lavar-se ‘to wash (oneself)’
agradecendo-lhe ‘thanking him’.

1.8.2 In words composed of two lexical elements, which may be two nouns, two adjectives, a noun and an adjective, an adjective and a noun or a verb stem and a noun:

palavra-chave ‘key word’
azul-claro ‘light blue’
caixa-forte ‘vault, strongroom’
baixo-astral ‘gloomy’
guarda-roupa ‘wardrobe’.

1.8.3 In three-word compounds (usually with de as the second word) used as the names of plants and animals, as well as the following: água-de-côlônia ‘eau de cologne’, do arco-da-velha (idiom) ‘far-fetched’, cor-de-rosa ‘pink’, mais-que-perfeito ‘pluperfect’ and pé-de-mea ‘nest egg (savings)’. The 2009 spelling reform abolished the hyphen in all other three-word compounds:

bico-de-papagaio ‘poinsettia’ (plant)

In other cases, the two elements are written together, but note that if the second element begins with r or s, this is doubled:
sobrenatural ‘supernatural’
contrarrevolução ‘counter-revolution’
ultrassom ‘ultrasound’.

1.8.4 With prefixes:

ex-marido ‘ex-husband’
pró-China ‘pro-China’.

(ii) With prefixes ending in a vowel (aero, agro, alfa, ante, anti, arqui, auto, beta, bio, contra, eletro, entre, extra, foto, geo, giga, hetero, hidro, hipo, homo, infra, intra, iso, lipo, macro, maxi, mega, meso, micro, mini, mono, multi, neo, neuro, paleo, per, pleuro, poli, proto, pseudo, psico, retro, semi, sobre, supra, tele, tetra, tri, ultra), a hyphen is inserted if the second element begins with h or the same vowel as the last vowel of the prefix:

micro-ondas ‘microwave (oven)’
anti-horário ‘anticlockwise’.

In other cases, the two elements are written together, but note that if the second element begins with r or s, this is doubled:
sobrenatural ‘supernatural’
contrarrevolução ‘counter-revolution’
ultrassom ‘ultrasound’.
(iii) With prefixes ending in \( r \) (hiper, inter, nuper and super), a hyphen is inserted before \( h \) or \( r \):

- super-herói ‘superhero’
- inter-racial ‘interracial’.

(iv) With prefixes ending in \( b \) (ab, ob, sob and sub), a hyphen is inserted before \( b \), \( h \) or \( r \):

- sub-repticio ‘surreptitious’.

(v) With the prefix co, the hyphen is not used even if the second element begins with \( o \). The letter \( h \) is dropped after co:

- cooperar ‘to cooperate’
- coerdeiro ‘joint heir’ (= co + herdeiro).

(vi) With the prefix mal, a hyphen is inserted before a vowel or \( h \):

- mal-humorado ‘bad-tempered’.

### 1.9 Use of capital letters

The following are the chief differences between the uses of initial capitals in Portuguese and English:

1.9.1 Unlike English, Portuguese uses a small initial letter for:

(i) days of the week and months of the year:

- na sexta ‘on Friday’
- em maio ‘in May’;

(ii) nouns and adjectives of nationality, religion and political affiliation:

- dois brasileiros ‘two Brazilians’
- um budista ‘a Buddhist’
- o islamismo ‘Islam’
- os republicanos ‘the Republicans’;

(iii) the names of languages:

- em japonês ‘in Japanese’;

(iv) nouns and adjectives derived from proper names:

- a teoria marxista ‘Marxist theory’;

(v) titles when accompanied by a name, although usage varies:

- o presidente or Presidente Lula ‘President Lula’
- o rio or Rio Amazonas ‘the Amazon River, the River Amazon’
- a rua or Rua Normandia ‘Normandia Street’.
Unlike English, Portuguese uses an initial capital letter for:

(i) the names of academic disciplines:

  um curso de História ‘a history course’
  um bacharel em Direito ‘a law graduate’;

(ii) the word País ‘country’ when it refers to Brazil:

  governar o País ‘to govern the country’ (i.e. Brazil).

Punctuation

The rules for punctuation are largely the same as in English, except for the following:

(i) Single inverted commas are very rarely used.

(ii) The dash may be used without inverted commas to indicate a change of speaker in written dialogues:

  – Onde você vai?
  – Não é da sua conta.

  ‘Where are you going?’
  ‘None of your business.’

  The dash is repeated before a verb of saying:

  – Não é da sua conta – respondi.

  ‘Where are you going?’ he asked.
  ‘None of your business,’ I replied.

(iii) Commas are more frequently used in Portuguese than in English as there is a tendency to demarcate every clause within a sentence.

(iv) In numerical expressions, a comma is used in place of the decimal point and the thousands are separated by a full stop:

  15.742,35 ‘15,742.35’.
Gender and gender agreement

2.1 What is grammatical gender?

Every Portuguese noun falls into one of two grammatical categories, called masculine and feminine. The categories are so called because nearly all nouns denoting male beings are masculine, and nearly all nouns denoting female beings are feminine. But all other nouns – those denoting inanimate objects, abstract concepts, etc. – also belong to one of these categories, so, for example, carro ‘car’, calor ‘heat’ and restante ‘remainder’ are all masculine, while mesa ‘table’, idade ‘age’ and decisão ‘decision’ are all feminine.

Except in the case of nouns denoting living beings, there are no semantic clues to the gender of a particular noun. You simply have to memorize the gender of each new noun you learn, but this task is made considerably easier by the fact that certain endings are indicative of a particular gender (see 2.2).

Grammatical gender is crucial in Portuguese because articles, adjectives, possessives, demonstratives and pronouns have to agree in gender with the noun they are accompanying or replacing, which in most cases means their form or ending changes according to whether the noun is masculine or feminine.

2.2 Rules for determining gender

2.2.1 Nouns that are masculine by form

(i) The vast majority of nouns ending in -o are masculine.

Exceptions: nouns ending in -ção/-são that correspond to English nouns ending in -tion/-sion; the words mão ‘hand’ and tribo ‘tribe’, and words ending in -o that are abbreviations of longer feminine nouns such as foto ‘photo’ (from fotografia) and moto ‘motorcycle’ (from motocicleta).

(ii) In addition, nouns with the following endings are masculine: -ão (when referring to a male human being or an inanimate object), e.g. cidadão ‘citizen’, cartão ‘card’; -dor/-tor, e.g. cantor ‘singer’, traidor ‘traitor’; -ma when the English cognate ends in -m or -ma, e.g. dilema ‘dilemma’, sistema ‘system’.

2.2.2 Nouns that are feminine by form

(i) The vast majority of nouns ending in -a are feminine.

Exceptions: nouns ending in -a that denote human beings and can therefore be masculine or feminine depending on the sex of the person referred to (see
2.2.3; a group of nouns ending in -ma, e.g. problema ‘problem’, pijama ‘pyjamas’; the words alerta ‘alert, warning’, cometa ‘comet’, dia ‘day’, mapa ‘map’, planeta ‘planet’, samba ‘samba’, tapa ‘slap’, among others, which just have to be memorized. Note that nouns ending in stressed a (á) are usually masculine, e.g. maracujá ‘passion fruit’, sofá ‘sofa’, tamanduá ‘anteater’, as are those ending in -ã that denote an inanimate object, e.g. balangandã ‘bauble’, divã ‘couch’, o Irã ‘Iran’, although maçã ‘apple’ and lã ‘wool’ are feminine.

(ii) In addition, nouns with the following endings are feminine: -dade, e.g. lealdade ‘loyalty’, -ção (corresponding to English -tion), e.g. ação ‘action’, -dão (abstract nouns), e.g. solidão ‘loneliness’, -gem, e.g. viagem ‘journey’, -ise, e.g. crise ‘crisis’, -ite, e.g. bronquite ‘bronchitis’, -são (corresponding to English -sion), e.g. decisão ‘decision’, and -tude, e.g. juventude ‘youth’.

1 The word autoridade is used as a masculine noun when it means ‘a (male) government official’.
2 Except the word personagem ‘character’ (in a book, film, etc.), which can be masculine or feminine.

2.2.4

Nouns that can be both masculine and feminine

In general, words referring to human beings can be either masculine or feminine, depending on the sex of the person referred to. Note that the default gender is masculine when the sex of the person is unknown or irrelevant.

Nouns of this type end in -ante/-ente/-inte, e.g. estudante ‘student’, gerente ‘manager’, ouvinte ‘listener’, -cida, e.g. suicida ‘suicide (victim)’, -ense, e.g. canadense ‘Canadian’, -ista, e.g. dentista ‘dentist’, -ta, e.g. diplomata ‘diplomat’, idiota ‘idiot’, vietnamita ‘Vietnamese’ and some other nationalities, such as belga ‘Belgian’, etíope ‘Ethiopian’.


Note that many originally single-gender nouns become two-gender when used to refer to human beings: âncora ‘TV anchorperson’, mão de vaca (informal) ‘skinflint’, segurança ‘security guard, bodyguard’, etc.

Single-gender nouns that can refer to both males and females

The following nouns are grammatically masculine only, but can refer to females as well as males: cônjuge ‘spouse’, individuo ‘individual’, ser ‘being’.

The following nouns are grammatically feminine only, but can refer to males as well as females: criança ‘child’, pessoa ‘person’, testemunha ‘witness’, vítima ‘victim’.
Nouns that are masculine or feminine depending on meaning

Some words can be masculine or feminine depending on the meaning. Here are some common examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As masculine noun</th>
<th>As feminine noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capital</td>
<td>capital (= money)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cara</td>
<td>guy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grama</td>
<td>gram (= measure)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guia</td>
<td>guide (= man or book)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moral</td>
<td>morale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rádio</td>
<td>radio; radium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>capital (= city)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>face</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>grass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>guide (= woman); form, slip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>morality; moral (of a story)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Words that are masculine by implication

The following nouns are masculine by implication, i.e. there is an unexpressed noun (shown below in parentheses) which determines their gender:

(i) months of the year (mês): abril próximo ‘next April’;
(ii) rivers, seas, mountains (rio, mar/oceano, monte): o Amazonas ‘the Amazon’, o Pacífico ‘the Pacific’;
(iii) cardinal points (ponto cardenal): ao norte ‘to the north’;
(iv) cars, planes, ships (carro, avião, navio): um Fiat ‘a Fiat’, o Titanic ‘the Titanic’;
(v) bars, restaurants, hotels (bar, restaurante, hotel): o Hilton ‘the Hilton’;
(vii) sports teams (time): o Corinthians ‘Corinthians’;
(viii) letters of the alphabet: dois fs ‘two fs’.

Words that are feminine by implication

(i) cities (cidade): toda Paris ‘all of Paris’, except when the city name contains the masculine definite article, e.g. o Rio de Janeiro (masc.);
(ii) streets (rua): na esquina da Visconde ‘on the corner of Visconde’;
(iii) TV networks (rede): na CNN ‘on CNN’;
(iv) companies, shops, airlines (empresa, loja, companhia): a Microsoft ‘Microsoft’.

The gender of compound nouns

The gender of a hyphenated compound noun is usually determined by the gender of the first noun in the compound, e.g. posto-chave ‘key post’, which is masculine like posto, and meia-noite, which is feminine like noite. Compounds that begin with a verb stem are masculine, e.g. guarda-chuva ‘umbrella’, para-brisa ‘windscreen’.

However, compounds referring to people can be masculine or feminine, depending on the sex of the person referred to, regardless of the original gender of the component noun, e.g. sem-teto ‘homeless person’, cabeça-dura ‘pigheaded person’, porta-voz ‘spokesperson’, relações-públicas ‘PR manager’.

Nouns of either gender

A few nouns can be either masculine or feminine. Relatively common among these are: diabetes (also diabete) ‘diabetes’, suéter ‘sweater’ (more often encountered as masculine).
and hélice ‘propeller’ (which is more commonly feminine, though can be masculine when referring to the propeller of a ship or boat).

**Feminine forms of nouns and adjectives**

Nouns with characteristically masculine endings that denote male human beings usually have corresponding feminine forms that are used to refer to females. And many types of adjective also have distinct feminine forms that must be used when referring to a feminine noun. It makes sense to deal with the feminine forms of nouns and adjectives together because the principles for deriving them are the same and many Portuguese words can function as both nouns and adjectives.

**2.3**

With nouns and adjectives ending in -o (except those ending in -ão), -o becomes -a, e.g. médico > médica ‘doctor’, filho > filha ‘son/daughter’, barato > barata ‘cheap’, pequeno > pequena ‘small’.

**2.3.1**

With nouns and adjectives ending in -ão, -ão becomes -a, e.g. irmão > irmã ‘brother/sister’, alemão > alemã ‘German’, sáo > sã ‘sane, healthy’.

**Exceptions:**

(i) nouns and adjectives in -ão that describe a person with a particular character trait usually change -ão to -ona, e.g. brincalhão > brincalhona ‘playful (person)’, sabichão > sabichona ‘know-all’;

(ii) a few nouns change -ão to -oa: leão > leoa ‘lion/lioness’, leitão > leitoa ‘piglet’, patrão > patroa ‘boss’;

(iii) ladrão ‘thief’ becomes ladra or ladrona;

(iv) the feminine equivalent of the title São ‘Saint’ used before a name is Santa. Note that the masculine form is Santo before a name beginning with vowel, e.g. São Francisco, Santa Bárbara, Santo André.

**2.3.2**

With nouns and adjectives ending in -or, -or becomes -ora, e.g. escritor > escritora ‘writer’, professor > professora ‘teacher’. This also applies to adjectives ending in -dor: trabalhador > trabalhadora ‘worker, hard-working’.

**Exceptions:**

(i) ator > atriz ‘actor/actress’, imperador > imperatriz ‘emperor/empress’;

(ii) the noun embaixador ‘ambassador’, which has two feminine forms: embaixadora ‘(female) ambassador’ and embaixatriz ‘ambassador’s wife’;

(iii) the adjective motor has two feminine forms: motriz as in força motriz ‘driving force’, and motora as in coordenação motora ‘(physical) coordination’.

**2.3.3**

With nouns and adjectives ending in -eu, -eu becomes -eia, e.g. ateu > atea ‘atheist’, europeu > europeia ‘European’.

**Exceptions:**

(i) judeu > judia ‘Jew, Jewish’;

(ii) ilhéu ‘islander’, which ends in accented -éu, becomes ilhoa, while réu ‘defendant’ becomes ré.
GENDER AND GENDER AGREEMENT

With nouns and adjectives ending in -ês, -ês becomes -esa, losing the written accent, e.g. chinês > chinesa ‘Chinese’, burguês > burguesa ‘bourgeois’.

Exceptions: cortês ‘courteous’ and descortês ‘discourteous’, which are invariable.

Other feminine forms

(i) -a: deus > deusa ‘god/goddess’, espanhol > espanhola ‘Spaniard, Spanish’, nu > nua ‘naked’, cru > crua ‘raw, crude’;
(ii) mau ‘bad’ has the feminine form má;
(iii) -essa: abade > abadessa ‘abbot/abbess’, conde > condessa ‘count/countess’, visconde > viscondessa ‘viscount/viscountess’;
(v) -isa: diácono > diacônisa ‘deacon/deaconess’, poeta > poetisa ‘poet/poetess’;
(vi) -ina: maestro > maestrina ‘conductor’, herói > heroína ‘hero/heroine’;
(vii) the feminine forms presidenta ‘president’ and chefe ‘boss, chef’ exist alongside the more common presidente and chefe.

Adjectives with no distinct feminine form

Adjectives that end in -a (see 2.2.3), -e, -l, -s (except those in -dor, see 2.3.3), -s (except those in -ês, see 2.3.5) and -z do not have a distinct feminine form. However, two important exceptions to this rule are: bom > boa ‘good’ and espanhol > espanhola ‘Spanish’.

Adjectives with phonetic changes in the feminine

A few types of adjectives, most notably a large group ending in -oso, the past participle posto ‘placed’ and its derivatives (disposto, oposto, etc.) and the words grosso ‘thick, coarse, rude’ and novo ‘new’, have the closed [o] sound in the masculine form and the open [ɔ] sound in the feminine, e.g. gostoso [gos’tozu] > gostosa [gos’toza] ‘tasty’, grosso [’grosu] > grossa [’grɔsa] ‘thick’, oposto [o’postu] > oposta [o’posta] ‘opposite’.

Agreement of compound adjectives

In compound adjectives consisting of two adjectives linked by a hyphen, only the second takes the feminine form, e.g. vermelho-escuro > vermelho-escura ‘dark red’, luso-brasileiro > luso-brasileira ‘Portuguese-Brazilian’. One exception is surdo-mudo ‘deaf-mute’, fem. surda-muda.

If the second component is a noun, the adjective is uninflected for gender: uma blusa amarelo-laranja ‘an orange-yellow blouse’.

Gender with names of animals

Although there are some commonly used gender-specific words for animals, e.g. câo > cadela ‘dog/bitch’, cavalo > égua ‘horse/mare’, boi > vaca ‘ox/cow’, most animal names have only one gender but can refer to either sex, e.g. uma cobra ‘a snake’, um rinoceronte ‘a rhinoceros’. The sex can be specified by adding macho ‘male’ or fêmea ‘female’, e.g. um rinoceronte fêmea ‘a female rhinoceros’.
3

Number and number agreement

3.1 Singular vs. plural

Like their English counterparts, most Portuguese nouns have different forms for singular and plural. Unlike English, most Portuguese adjectives also have plural forms that have to be used when they refer to a plural noun and very many have distinct masculine and feminine plural forms. The rules for forming the plural of nouns and adjectives are the same, so they will be dealt with together.

3.2 Forming the plural of nouns and adjectives

The basic rule is that nouns and adjectives ending in a vowel add -s to form the plural, e.g. carro > carros ‘car(s)’, casa > casas ‘house(s)’, barato/barata > baratos/baratas ‘cheap’ (masc./fem.), verde > verdes ‘green’.

Nouns and adjectives with a distinct feminine form in the singular (see 2.3) also have a distinct feminine plural, formed by adding -s to the feminine singular, e.g. alemã > alemãs ‘German(s)’, brincalhona > brincalhonas ‘playful’, professora > professoras ‘teachers’. The only exception are feminine nouns ending in –iz, which form the plural by adding -es: atriz > atrizes ‘actresses’.

3.2.1 Plural of nouns and adjectives ending in -ão

The ending -ão becomes -ãos in most cases, e.g. decisão > decisões ‘decision(s)’, brincalhão > brincalhões ‘playful’, but there are exceptions:

(i) -ão > -ãos: ancião > anciãos ‘old, elder(s)’, cidadão > cidadãos ‘citizen(s)’, corrimão > corrimãos ‘handrail(s), banister(s)’, grão > grãos ‘grain(s), bean(s)’, irmão > irmãos ‘brother(s)’, mão > mãos ‘hand(s)’, pagão > pagãos ‘pagan(s)’, são > sãos ‘healthy, sane’, vão > vãos ‘gap(s); vain’ and all nouns in -ão that are accented on the last but one syllable, e.g. bênção > bênçãos ‘blessing(s)’, órfão > órfãos ‘orphan(s)’, órgão > órgãos ‘organ(s)’, sotão > sótãos ‘attic(s)’;

(ii) -ão > -ães: alemão > alemães ‘German(s)’, cão > cães ‘dog(s)’, capitão > capitães ‘captain(s)’, charlatão > charlatães ‘charlatan(s)’, escritor > escritoras ‘clerk(s), pão > pães ‘bread, loaves’, tabelião > tabeliães ‘notary(-ies)’.

NOTE 5 See 3.3.
Plural of nouns and adjectives ending in -l

The letter -l becomes -is, e.g. jornal > jornais ‘newspaper’, terrível > terríveis ‘terrible’, but note the following:

(i) -el and -ol become -éis and -óis respectively when the stress is on the last syllable, i.e. when there is no written accent elsewhere in the word, e.g. papel > papéis ‘paper(s)’, lençol > lençóis ‘sheet(s)’, sol > sóis ‘sun(s)’;
(ii) -il becomes -is if it is the stressed syllable, e.g. fuzil > fusis ‘rifle(s)’, sutil > súsis ‘subtle’; otherwise (i.e. if there is a written accent elsewhere in the word), -il becomes -eis, e.g. fóssil > fósseis ‘fossil(s)’, réptil > répteis ‘reptile(s)’.
(iii) Exceptions: cônsul > cônsules ‘consul(s)’, gol > gols ‘goal(s)’, mal > males ‘evil(s), harm’.

Plural of nouns and adjectives ending in -m

The letter -m becomes -ns, e.g. trem > trens ‘train(s)’, ruim > ruíns ‘bad’. Remember that m and n serve merely to indicate that the preceding vowel is nasalized and are not pronounced as separate letters.

Plural of nouns and adjectives ending in -r and -z

Nouns and adjectives ending in -r and -z are made plural by adding -es, e.g. colher > colheres ‘spoon(s)’, voz > vozes ‘voices’, melhor > melhores ‘better, best’, capaz > capazes ‘able’.

Plural of nouns and adjectives ending in -s

Nouns and adjectives ending in -s that consist of a single syllable, and those that are stressed on the last syllable, add the ending -es. Note that many nouns of this type have a written accent in the singular that they lose when the -es ending is added (see 1.7.3), e.g. mês > meses ‘month(s)’, revés > reveses ‘setback(s)’, inglês > ingleses ‘English’, país > países (retains accent separating vowel sounds a-i) ‘country(-ies)’.

Exceptions: cais ‘quay(s)’ and xis ‘(letter) x(s)’, which do not change in the plural.

All other nouns ending in -s (i.e. those stressed on any syllable but the last) are invariable, the plural being identical to the singular, e.g. ônibus > ônibus ‘bus(es)’, pires > pires ‘saucer(s)’.

Plural of hyphenated compound nouns

With compound nouns consisting of adjective + noun or noun + adjective, both elements are pluralized according to the rules given above, e.g. longa-metragem > longas-metragens ‘feature film(s)’, segunda-feira > segundas-feiras ‘Monday(s)’, cachorro-quente > cachorros-quentes ‘small plane(s)’.

With compound nouns consisting of verb stem + noun, invariable word + noun or two repeated elements, the second element only is pluralized, e.g. guarda-chuva > guarda-chuvas ‘umbrella(s)’, abaixo-assinado > abaixo-assinados ‘petition(s)’, teco-teto > tecotecos ‘small plane(s)’.

Exception: compounds beginning sem- are invariable: sem-teto > sem-teto ‘homeless’.
With compound nouns consisting of noun + noun, usage varies as the second element can be invariable when it limits or defines the first, e.g. **carro-bomba** > **carros-bombas** or **carros-bomba** ‘car bomb(s)’, but the tendency is to make both elements plural. If in doubt, check in a dictionary.

Of course, if neither element can be pluralized, the plural is identical to the singular, e.g. **bota-fora** > **bota-fora** ‘send-off(s)’ (verb stem + adverb), **guarda-costas** > **guarda-costas** ‘bodyguard(s)’ (verb stem + already plural noun).

### Plural of hyphenated compound adjectives

With compound adjectives consisting of two adjectives, only the second element is pluralized, e.g. **verde-escuro** > **verde-escuros** ‘dark green’.

**Exceptions:**

(i) **surdo-mudo/surda-muda** > **surdos-mudos/surdas-mudas** ‘deaf-mute’ (masc./fem);
(ii) **azul-marinho** ‘navy blue’ and **azul-celeste** ‘sky blue’ are invariable.

Compound adjectives consisting of adjective + noun are invariable, e.g. **verde-garrafa** ‘bottle green’, **vermelho-cereja** ‘cherry red’.

With compound adjectives consisting of adverb or prefix + adjective, only the adjective part is pluralized: **bem-comportado** > **bem-comportados** ‘well-behaved’.

### Nouns with phonetic changes in the plural

There is a category of masculine nouns that have the closed [o] sound in the singular and the open [ɔ] sound in the plural. The most common of these are:

- **corpo** [ˈkɔʁpu] > **corpos** [ˈkɔɾpɔs] ‘body(-ies)’, **esforço** [esˈfɔɾsu] > **esforços** [esˈfɔɾsuʃ] ‘effort(s)’, **fogo** [ˈfɔgu] > **fogos** [ˈfɔgus] ‘fire(works)’, **imposto** [iˈpɔstu] > **impostos** [iˈpɔstɔs] ‘tax(es)’, **jogo** [ˈʒɔgu] > **jogos** [ˈʒɔgus] ‘game(s)’, **miolo** [miˈolu] ‘flesh, crumb, marrow’ > **miolos** [miˈɔlus] ‘brains’, **olho** [ˈɔlu] > **olhos** [ˈɔlus] ‘eye(s)’, **osso** [ˈɔsu] > **ossos** [ˈɔsus] ‘bone(s)’, **ovo** [ˈɔvu] > **ovos** [ˈɔvus] ‘egg(s), **povo** [ˈpovu] > **povos** [ˈpɔvus] ‘well(s), shaft(s)’, **porco** [ˈpɔrku] > **porcos** [ˈpɔrkus] ‘pig(s), **porto** [ˈpɔrtu] > **portos** [ˈpɔrтуs] ‘port(s)’, **posto** [ˈpɔstu] > **postos** [ˈpɔstus] ‘post(s)’, **povo** [ˈpovu] > **povos** [ˈpɔvus] ‘people(s), **reforço** [heˈfɔrsu] > **reforços** [heˈfɔrʃus] ‘reinforcement(s)’, **sorcorro** [soˈkɔhu] > **socorros** [soˈkɔrus] ‘aid(s), **tijolo** [tʃiˈʒɔlu] > **tijolos** [tʃiˈʒɔlus] ‘brick(s)’.

### Adjectives with phonetic changes in the plural

The same adjectives that have the closed [o] sound in the masculine singular and the open [ɔ] sound in the feminine singular (see 2.3.8), also have the open [ɔ] sound in the masculine and feminine plural, e.g. **gostoso** [ɡoʃˈtɔzu] > **gostosa** [ɡoʃˈtɔza] > **gostosos/gostosas** [ɡoʃˈtɔsus/goʃˈtɔsas] ‘tasty’, **oposto** [oˈpɔstu] > **oposta** [oˈpɔsta] > **opostos/opostas** [oˈpɔstus/oˈpɔstas] ‘opposite’.

### Plurals referring collectively to males and females

It is an important principle in Portuguese grammar that the masculine plural is used to refer to males and females collectively, as well as to males only. The feminine plural is
used only to refer exclusively to females. There is a group of nouns denoting family relationships where the default meaning of the masculine plural includes males and females:

filhos ‘children’ (= sons and daughters) or ‘sons’, irmãos ‘brothers and sisters’ or ‘brothers’, netos ‘grandchildren’ or ‘grandsons’, pais ‘parents’ or ‘fathers’, primos ‘cousins’ (of both sexes or just male), sogros ‘in-laws’ or ‘fathers-in-law’, tios ‘uncle and aunt’ or ‘uncles’.

This should be borne in mind to avoid misunderstandings:

Você tem irmãos?  Do you have any brothers and sisters? (not just ‘brothers’)
Ela tem dois filhos. She has two children. (not necessarily both male)

If it is not clear from the context, the word homens ‘men’ can be added to specify ‘males only’:

Você tem irmãos homens?  Do you have any brothers?
Ela tem dois filhos homens. She has two sons.

With avô/avó ‘grandfather/grandmother’, two masculine plural forms are possible: avôs meaning ‘grandfathers’ and avós meaning ‘grandparents’. As a feminine plural, avós means ‘grandmothers’.

### 3.4 Use of singular and plural

There are some differences between the use of singular and plural in Portuguese and English.

#### 3.4.1 In the spoken language in particular, the singular is commonly used with a generic plural meaning:

Nunca como maçã.  I never eat apples.

O Rafael entende de computador.  Rafael knows all about computers.

Hoje em dia tem muito carro na cidade.  There are a lot of cars in the city nowadays.

#### 3.4.2 In such general statements, the singular noun is used without a definite article even when it is the subject or direct object of the sentence:

Brasileiro gosta de futebol.  Brazilians like football.

A Rita adora cachorro.  Rita loves dogs.

#### 3.4.3 In the written language, a singular subject accompanied by the definite article is often preferred in general statements where English would use the plural without an article:

O açaí faz bem à saúde.  Acai berries are good for you.
Utensils and items of clothing that consist of two parts (e.g. scissors, trousers, etc.) are plural in English, whereas, in Portuguese, they are singular, e.g. uma tesoura ‘a pair of scissors, some scissors’, duas calças ‘two pairs of trousers’:

Essa cueca é pequena para mim.
These underpants are too small for me.

Brazilian Portuguese extends this to items of clothing that come in pairs, especially shoes and gloves, so um sapato can mean ‘a shoe’, but is more commonly used to mean ‘a pair of shoes’:

Ela estava usando uma bota branca.
She was wearing (a pair of) white boots.

NOTES
6 This tendency is so strong in the spoken language that you even hear um óculos meaning ‘a pair of glasses’ used as a singular noun: Gostou do meu óculos novo? ‘Do you like my new glasses?’
7 When referring to one shoe of a pair, pé ‘foot’ is used: Não acho o outro pé do meu sapato. ‘I can’t find my other shoe.’

Portuguese uses the singular rather than the plural when each member of a plural subject has only one of a particular noun:

Os monges rasparam a cabeça.
The monks shave their heads.

Todos os homens tiraram o chapéu.
All the men took their hats off.

Countability

There are some nouns where the plural in Portuguese corresponds to an uncountable singular in English, e.g. dados ‘data’, imóveis ‘real estate’, informações ‘information’, móveis ‘furniture’, notícias ‘news’. The singular of such nouns has to be translated ‘a piece of . . .’, ‘a bit of . . .’:

um móvel antigo
a piece of antique furniture

As informações são armazenadas em CD-ROM.
The information is stored on CD-ROM.

Many nouns that are normally uncountable in English can be used with the indefinite article in Portuguese to mean ‘some, a portion of’, e.g. um dinheiro ‘a sum of money, some money’:

Comi uma carne com um arroz branco.
I had a piece of meat with some plain rice.

Similarly, many abstract nouns can be used countably to mean ‘an instance of . . .’, ‘an act of . . .’, ‘a . . . thing’:

O assassinato do menino foi uma barbaridade.
The murder of the boy was a barbaric act.

Ele falou várias idiotices.
He said a number of stupid things.
Articles

The definite article

In English, the definite article has only one form for all nouns: ‘the’. In Portuguese, the form of the definite article depends on the gender and number of the noun it accompanies.

Forms of the definite article

The forms of the definite article are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>as</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

- o jornal ‘the newspaper’
- a casa ‘the house’
- os homens ‘the men’
- as mulheres ‘the women’.

Pronunciation of the definite articles

The masculine singular and plural forms are usually unstressed and pronounced [u] and [us]. If stress is required for some reason, they are pronounced with the closed o sound: [o] and [os]. The feminine articles are pronounced [a] and [as], as you would expect.

Note that, when the word following the plural articles begins with a vowel, h or a voiced consonant (b, d, g, l, m, n, r, v), the s is pronounced [z] as the article and the word it accompanies are run together, e.g. os homens [uˈzomẽjs], as mulheres [azmuˈʎeɾis].

Contractions of the definite articles with prepositions

The prepositions a ‘to’, de ‘of, from’, em ‘at, in, on’ and por ‘by, for, through’ combine with the definite articles to form single-word contractions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Reduced form</th>
<th>o</th>
<th>os</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>ao</td>
<td>aos</td>
<td>à</td>
<td>às</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de</td>
<td>d-</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>dos</td>
<td>da</td>
<td>das</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>em</td>
<td>n-</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>nos</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>nas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>por</td>
<td>pel-</td>
<td>pelo</td>
<td>pelos</td>
<td>pela</td>
<td>pelas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note also that the preposition *para*, which in the spoken language is usually pronounced [pra], forms the following phonetic contractions with the definite articles: [pru], [prus], [pra], [pras], so *Ele vai para o Rio* ‘He’s going to Rio’ is pronounced [’eli vai pru ’hiu].

**Principal differences between the uses of the definite article in Portuguese and English**

The use of the definite article in Portuguese largely corresponds to the use of ‘the’ in English, although there are a number of important differences.

The definite article is used in Portuguese in the following cases where English does not use ‘the’:

(i) With nouns used in a general sense:

   *um país caracterizado pela diversidade*
   
   a country characterized by diversity

   *Os políticos nem sempre falam a verdade.*
   
   Politicians don’t always tell the truth.

(ii) With the names of languages, except after verbs closely associated with languages, such as *falar* ‘speak’, *entender* ‘understand’, *aprender* ‘learn’, *estudar* ‘study’, etc.:

   *O russo é uma língua difícil.*
   
   Russian is a difficult language.

(iii) With the names of most countries⁸ (e.g. *o Brasil, a China*), some cities (e.g. *o Rio de Janeiro, o Recife, o Cairo, o Porto* ‘Oporto’), most Brazilian and American states⁹ (e.g. *o Maranhão, a Bahia, o Texas, a Califórnia*) and some neighbourhoods (e.g. *o Leme, a Lapa*).

(iv) With titles when accompanied by a proper name, e.g. *o senhor Ricardo Neves* ‘Mr Ricardo Neves’, *o presidente Bush* ‘President Bush’, *a doutora Sandra* ‘Dr Sandra’, except when addressing the person in question, e.g. *Bom dia, doutora Sandra* ‘Good morning, Dr Sandra’.

(v) With proper names, e.g. *a Susana, o João, o Pelé, a Gisele Bundchen*. In this case, the article lends a tone of familiarity and is not therefore used with the names of historical figures, nor in more formal written language, such as news reporting. However, it is the norm in the spoken language except when addressing the person directly:

   *O Bob entende português. Não é mesmo, Bob?*
   
   Bob understands Portuguese. Isn’t that right, Bob?

(vi) With the names of companies, shops, bars, restaurants, streets, TV networks and channels, computer programs, sports teams, etc.:

   *Ela trabalha na Petrobrás.*
   
   She works for Petrobrás.

---

⁸ Among the exceptions are: *Portugal, Moçambique* and *Cuba*.

⁹ Brazilian states not preceded by the article: *Alagoas, Goiás, Mato Grosso, Mato Grosso do Sul, Minas Gerais, Pernambuco, Rondônia, Roraima, Santa Catarina, São Paulo, Sergipe*.
Comemos no Macdonald’s.
We ate at Macdonald’s.

É melhor pegar a Frei Caneca.
It’s better to take Frei Caneca (street).

O jogo vai passar na Globo.
The game’s going to be on Globo TV.

Não consigo abrir o Word.
I can’t open Word.

Ele jogou pelo Palmeiras.
He played for Palmeiras.

(vii) Before the possessive adjectives (meu, teu, seu, nosso, etc. – see 9.3.5 for full explanation of this usage):

Carimbaram o seu passaporte?
Did they stamp your passport?

(viii) The definite article is used in Portuguese where English would use a possessive adjective before a part of the body, item of clothing or family member that or who belongs to the subject of the sentence:

Ele tirou os óculos.
He took his glasses off.

Coloque a mão na cabeça.
Put your hand on your head.

Ela parece com o pai.
She looks like her father.

The appropriate form of the definite article may be used alone before de ‘of’, que ‘which, that’, an adjective or a possessive referring back to a noun that has been mentioned before, to avoid repetition. This usage is equivalent to the English ‘the (. . .) one(s)’:

Vi a foto do Davi e a do Pedro.
I saw the photo of Davi and the one of Pedro.

Meu carro é azul. O do meu pai é preto.
My car’s blue. My dad’s is black.

Tenho que olhar as minhas roupas e separar as que quero levar.
I have to look over my clothes and sort out the ones I want to take.

Os novos modelos são menos volumosos do que os antigos.
The new models are less bulky than the old ones.

Desculpe, confundi a sua mala com a minha.
Sorry, I mistook your suitcase for mine.
The indefinite article

The indefinite article (English ‘a(n)’) also has distinct forms for masculine and feminine in Portuguese. Unlike English, the indefinite article also has plural forms corresponding to English ‘some’.

Forms of the indefinite article

The forms of the indefinite article are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>uma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

- um livro ‘a book’
- uma maçã ‘an apple’
- uns garfos ‘some forks’
- umas xícaras ‘some cups’.

Contractions of the indefinite article with prepositions

The preposition em ‘at, in, on’ can combine with the indefinite article to form a single-word contraction, but this is not obligatory. The contraction is normally made in speech, but not always in the written language:

- Reduced form: um uns uma umas
- em n- num nuns numa numas

Similar contractions with de ‘of, from’ (dum, duns, duma, dumas) are nowadays rare and should not be imitated. De and um, uns, uma, umas are run together in speech as [dʒiˈu, dʒiˈu̯ma, dʒiˈu̯s, dʒiˈu̯mas] or even [dʒu, ˈdʒuma, dʒu̯s, ˈdʒumas], but are written separately.

Principal differences between the uses of the indefinite article in Portuguese and English

The use of the indefinite article in Portuguese largely corresponds to the use of ‘a(n)’ in English, although there are a number of important differences.

The indefinite article is not normally used in Portuguese in the following cases:

(i) After the verb ser ‘to be’ when describing a person’s nationality, profession or religion:

- Ela é médica.
  She’s a doctor.
- Ele é neozelandês.
  He’s a New Zealander.
- Sou budista.
  I’m a Buddhist.
(ii) After the verbs tornar-se and virar ‘to become’:

   um músico que se tornou escritor
   a musician who became a writer

   A casa virou museu.
   The house became a museum.

(iii) After the word como when it means ‘as’:

   Ele trabalha como garçom num restaurante.
   He works as a waiter in a restaurant.

   Como advogado, não posso comentar.
   As a lawyer, I can’t comment.

(iv) Before a noun used as a direct object in a generic sense:

   Você já comprou passagem?
   Have you bought a ticket yet?

   O hotel tem piscina.
   The hotel has a pool.

   Não tenho carro.
   I don’t have a car.

(v) After the prepositions de ‘with, in’ and sem ‘without’ when they are used to specify someone’s characteristics:

   um homem de bengala
   a man with a walking stick

   Saí sem guarda-chuva.
   I came out without an umbrella.

(vi) When an indefinite noun is used in apposition, usually to a name:

   Bebeto, antigo jogador da seleção.
   Bebeto, a former player in the national squad.

   Ele nasceu em Porto Feliz, cidade próxima a Sorocaba.
   He was born in Porto Feliz, a town near Sorocaba.

The indefinite article occurs in Portuguese in the following cases where it is not used in English:

(i) With abstract nouns when qualified by an adjective:

   O filme é de uma beleza arrebatadora.
   The film is breathtakingly beautiful.

   Ela é dotada de uma inteligência penetrante.
   She is endowed with incisive intelligence.

(ii) With many abstract nouns to mean one instance:

   Acabei dizendo uma besteira.
   I ended up saying something stupid.

   O que eles fizeram foi uma crueldade.
   What they did was cruel/an act of cruelty.
(iii) Especially in the colloquial spoken language, with normally uncountable nouns to mean ‘some’, ‘a piece of’:

   Meu pai me deu um dinheiro.
   My dad gave me some money.

   Comi uma carne e um arroz branco.
   I had a piece of meat and some plain rice.

### Use of uns/umas

The plurals of the indefinite article correspond to the English ‘some’ in the sense of ‘a few’, ‘a number of’:

    Passei uns dias em São Paulo.
    I spent a few days in São Paulo.

    Preciso comprar umas canetas.
    I need to buy some pens.

They have a special usage preceding a number in the sense of ‘about, around’:

    Recebi uns dez telefonemas.
    I got about ten phone calls.

    Deve custar uns cem reais.
    It must cost about a hundred reais.

    daqui a umas duas semanas
    in about two weeks

    A festa vai começar a umas oito horas.
    The party’ll start around eight.
Adjectives and adverbs

Portuguese adjectives agree in gender and number with the nouns they refer to – see 2.3 and 3.2 on the formation of the feminine and plural forms of adjectives.

### Position of adjectives

Another important difference between Portuguese and English is that the default position for attributive adjectives is after the noun in Portuguese:

- um livro interessante
  - an interesting book
- as forças armadas brasileiras
  - the Brazilian armed forces.

This is such an instinctive rule that other types of words, names, etc. are placed after the noun when used adjectivally:

- tamanho família
  - ‘family size’
- promoção relâmpago
  - ‘flash sale’
- uma picape Toyota
  - ‘a Toyota pick-up’.

However, the rule can be broken when an adjective is used not to differentiate or specify, but rather to mention an inherent quality of the noun. This kind of stylistic device is mainly confined to the written language, especially journalistic style:

- na longínqua China
  - in far-away China (i.e. there is no ‘nearby China’)
- O restaurante serve uma deliciosa comida italiana.
  - The restaurant serves delicious Italian food. (i.e. all the food is delicious)

### Adjectives that always precede the noun

Certain types of adjectives always precede the noun:

1. ordinal numbers and último ‘last’;
2. indefinite adjectives and those of quantity, e.g. cada ‘each every’, qualquer ‘any’, outro ‘other’, muito ‘much, a lot of’, etc. (see Chapter 13);

---

10 futuro is used after the noun in a specialized economic sense, e.g. o mercado futuro do dólar ‘the dollar futures market’. 

NOTE
# Adjectives with different meanings according to their position

A number of common adjectives have slightly different meanings according to whether they are placed before or after the noun:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Before noun</th>
<th>After noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>antigo</td>
<td>old, former</td>
<td>old-fashioned, antique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>meu antigo professor</td>
<td>um rádio antigo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>my former teacher</td>
<td>an old-fashioned radio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bastante</td>
<td>quite a lot</td>
<td>sufficient, enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bastante dinheiro</td>
<td>dinheiro bastante</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quite a lot of money</td>
<td>sufficient money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bom</td>
<td>good (= general sense)</td>
<td>good (= moral sense)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>um bom livro</td>
<td>um homem bom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a good book</td>
<td>a good man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>certo</td>
<td>a certain, one</td>
<td>right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a certa altura</td>
<td>a resposta certa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>at a certain point</td>
<td>the right answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determinado</td>
<td>certain, particular</td>
<td>fixed, determined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>um determinado assunto</td>
<td>um prazo determinado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a certain subject</td>
<td>a fixed period of time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diferentes (pl.)</td>
<td>different (= various)</td>
<td>different (= not the same)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>diferentes tipos de vírus</td>
<td>três tipos diferentes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>various types of virus</td>
<td>three different types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diversos (pl.)</td>
<td>various</td>
<td>diverse, differing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>diversos países</td>
<td>opiniões diversas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>various countries</td>
<td>differing opinions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grande</td>
<td>great</td>
<td>big, large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>uma grande atriz</td>
<td>um carro grande</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a great actress</td>
<td>a big car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>uma grande decepção</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mau</td>
<td>bad (= general sense)</td>
<td>bad, evil (= moral sense)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mau tempo</td>
<td>uma pessoa má</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bad weather</td>
<td>an evil person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mesmo</td>
<td>same</td>
<td>actual, very</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no mesmo dia</td>
<td>no dia mesmo do casamento</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>on the same day</td>
<td>on the very day of the wedding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>novo</td>
<td>new (= another)</td>
<td>new (= brand new)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>uma nova folha</td>
<td>uma bicicleta nova</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a new sheet of paper</td>
<td>a new bike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pequeno</td>
<td>small, little (inherently)</td>
<td>small (= as opposed to big)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>see note (i) below</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pobre</td>
<td>poor (= pitiful)</td>
<td>poor (= without money)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>um pobre órfão</td>
<td>uma família pobre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a poor orphan</td>
<td>a poor family</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pródigo</th>
<th>own; himself/herself</th>
<th>of one’s own</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>minha própria casa</td>
<td>uma casa própria</td>
<td>my own house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a house of one’s own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o próprio rei</td>
<td>the king himself</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>próximo</td>
<td>next</td>
<td>nearby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a próxima edição</td>
<td>um hospital próximo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the next edition</td>
<td>a nearby hospital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puro</td>
<td>pure (= nothing but)</td>
<td>pure (= clean, purified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pura maldade</td>
<td>pure evil</td>
<td>água pura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semelhante</td>
<td>such</td>
<td>similar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>com semelhante empenho</td>
<td>uma situação semelhante</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>with such commitment</td>
<td>a similar situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>único</td>
<td>only, single</td>
<td>unique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>uma única chance</td>
<td>uma chance única</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a single chance</td>
<td>a unique chance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>velho</td>
<td>old (= of long standing)</td>
<td>old (= aged)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>um velho amigo</td>
<td>um carro velho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>an old friend</td>
<td>an old car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verdadeiro</td>
<td>real, veritable</td>
<td>true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>o verdadeiro assassino</td>
<td>uma história verdadeira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the real murderer</td>
<td>a true story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>um verdadeiro pesadelo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) **pequeno** is usually placed before the noun when it is used descriptively or when it refers to inherent smallness:

- pequenas empresas
  small businesses

  Eles moram num pequeno apartamento em Copacabana.
  They live in a small apartment in Copacabana.

It is placed after the noun when the smallness is emphasized and there is an idea of contrast with ‘big’:

  Estou procurando um apartamento pequeno.
  I’m looking for a small apartment (as opposed to a big one).

(ii) **bom** (= of good quality) can be placed after the noun for emphatic contrast:

  Faz tempo que não vejo um filme bom.
  It’s a while since I saw a good movie.

(iii) **bom** and **pequeno** are always placed after the noun when they are further qualified:

  - um livro muito bom
    a very good book
  - uma casa tão pequena
    such a small house.

(iv) The adjective ‘bad’ in the sense of ‘of low quality, of a low standard’ is usually translated with the word **ruim**, which is always placed after the noun. The difference between pre-nominal **mau** and post-nominal **ruim** is that **mau** is a more objective measure of badness, while **ruim** implies a subjective value judgement:
Adjectives used as nouns

mau tempo
bad weather (adverse weather conditions)

tempo ruim
bad weather (unpleasant weather)

It follows that only ruim can be further qualified:

tempo muito ruim
very bad weather.

After the verb ‘to be’, mau/má means ‘morally bad, evil, mean, nasty’. Other senses of ‘bad’ are conveyed with ruim:

Ele foi tão mau comigo.
He was so mean to me.

Sou ruim em geografia.
I’m bad at geography.

O tempo estava ruim naquele dia.
The weather was bad that day.

▶ 36.1.2 (p. 267)

5.4 Adjectives used as nouns

All adjectives that describe people can be used as nouns in Portuguese, e.g. um cego ‘a blind man’, uma velha ‘an old woman’, os desempregados ‘the unemployed’, as grávidas ‘(the) pregnant women’. In English, you have to add a noun such as ‘man, boy; woman, girl; person, people’ if there is no distinct word for the noun meaning. However, the masculine plural can have a generic meaning (see os desempregados above) corresponding to the English ‘the’ + adjective:

os sem-teto
the homeless

os ricos
the rich.

A few adjectives can be used with the masculine singular definite article o to mean ‘the . . .’ as in English:

O imensável aconteceu.
The unthinkable happened.

Vou fazer o possível.
I’ll do what I can. / I’ll do my best.

Note also the expressions o dificil é . . . ‘the difficult thing/part is . . .’, o importante é . . . ‘the important thing is . . .’:

Conhecer pessoas é fácil, o dificil é achar a pessoa certa.
Meeting people is easy; the difficult part is finding the right person.
Adjectives used as adverbs

A number of adjectives are used in the masculine singular (base) form as adverbs:

*Adverb meaning(s)*

**adoidado** (*colloquial*) like crazy

Dançavam adoidado.
They were dancing like crazy.

**alto**
high; loud(ly)

Você consegue alcançar mais alto do que eu.
You can reach higher than I can.

Ele fala muito alto.
He talks very loud(ly).

**baixo**
low; quietly

O avião voava baixo demais.
The plane was flying too low.

É melhor falar baixo para não acordar as crianças.
You’d best keep your voice down so as not to wake the kids.

**barato**
cheap(ly)

Compramos a casa barato.
We bought the house cheap.

**caro**
a lot (of money); dearly

O anel custou caro.
The ring cost a lot.

Ele vai pagar caro pelo que fez.
He’ll pay dearly for what he’s done.

**direito**
properly

Você não limpou a pia direito.
You didn’t clean the sink properly.

**direto**
direct(ly), straight; all the time (*colloquial*)

Ele foi direto ao assunto.
He went straight to the point.

Ela mata aula direto.
She’s always cutting class.

**duro**
hard

Trabalhamos duro para chegar até aqui.
We’ve worked hard to get this far.

**firme**
firmly, steadily

Eles namoram firme há três anos.
They’ve been going steady (= *dating firmly*) for three years.
Formation of adverbs of manner

Just as English derives adverbs of manner from adjectives by adding the suffix -ly, so Portuguese does the same by adding the ending -mente to the feminine form of the adjective, e.g. lento ‘slow’ \(\rightarrow\) lentamente ‘slowly’, frio ‘cold’ \(\rightarrow\) friamente ‘coldly’, infeliz ‘unfortunate’ \(\rightarrow\) infelizmente ‘unfortunately’.

Note that any written accent the adjective may carry is lost when the -mente suffix is added, e.g. fácil ‘easy’ \(\rightarrow\) facilmente ‘easily’, ingênuo ‘naive’ \(\rightarrow\) ingenuamente ‘naively’, and that the adverb derived from comum ‘common’ is spelt comumente ‘commonly’.

When one adverb of manner follows another, only the second has the -mente suffix, e.g. lenta e cuidadosamente ‘slowly and carefully’.

Position of adverbs and adverbials

Adverbs of time, such as sempre ‘always’, geralmente ‘usually, generally’, logo ‘soon’, and some others, such as só ‘only’, apenas ‘just’, talvez ‘perhaps’, provavelmente ‘probably’, are usually placed between subject and verb, except with the verbs ser and estar ‘to be’. In fact, this is just as in English:

- Ela provavelmente volta amanhã.
  She’s probably coming back tomorrow.
- Ele às vezes esquece coisas.
  He sometimes forgets things.

BUT Ele está sempre bem-vestido.
He’s always well dressed.

Adverbs of manner and multiword adverbial expressions of manner are usually placed immediately after the verb and before any direct object. This is different from English, which usually places the adverb of manner before the verb or after the direct object:

- Chovia forte na hora do acidente.
  It was raining hard at the time of the accident.
- Ele bateu forte com a cabeça no chão.
  He hit his head hard on the ground.
- Meu pai tem que ir a Nova York e minha mãe vai junto.
  My dad has to go to New York and my mum’s going along.
- Não consigo andar tão rápido.
  I can’t walk that fast.
- Você segue reto toda a vida.
  You keep going straight as far as you can go.
Planejamos cuidadosamente os nossos gastos mensais.
We carefully plan our monthly expenditure. / We plan our monthly expenditure carefully.

This rule can be broken to give special emphasis to the adverb or adverbial, i.e. in response to the question: ‘How does X do Y?’:

Você tem que planejar os gastos mensais cuidadosamente.
You have to plan your monthly expenditure carefully.

Eu segui as instruções à risca.
I followed the instructions to the letter.

Comparison of adjectives and adverbs

There is no equivalent to the English -er/-est endings in Portuguese; all adjectives and adverbs (except those listed in 5.9) are made comparative by preceding them with the word mais ‘more’:

Aquele outro modelo é mais caro.
That other model is more expensive.

Você pode falar um pouco mais devagar?
Can you speak a little more slowly?

The only difference between the comparative and superlative in Portuguese is that the superlative is normally preceded by the definite article ‘the’ or a possessive (as in English). In other cases, especially with adverbs, only the context makes it clear whether the sense is comparative or superlative:

Ela é a aluna mais inteligente da sala.
She’s the brightest student in the class.

meu amigo mais querido
my dearest friend

Aqui o rio é mais largo.
Here, the river is wider. or Here, the river is at its widest.

O Renato trabalha mais rápido.
Renato works faster or the fastest.

Irregular comparative forms

The following adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparative forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective/Adverb</th>
<th>Comparative/Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bom ‘good’</td>
<td>melhor ‘better/best’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bem ‘well’</td>
<td>mais ‘more/most’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mau, ruim ‘bad’; mal ‘badly’</td>
<td>pior ‘worse/worst’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grande ‘big’, ‘great’</td>
<td>maior ‘bigger/biggest, greater/greatest’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pequeno ‘small’</td>
<td>menor ‘smaller/smallest’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muito ‘much, many; a lot’</td>
<td>mais ‘more/most’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pouco ‘little, few’</td>
<td>menos ‘less/least, fewer/fewest’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The syntax of comparative sentences

5.9.2 Note that *melhor*, *pior*, *maior* and *menor* are the same for masculine and feminine singular, the plural forms being *melhores*, *piores*, *maiores* and *menores*. The words *mais* and *menos* are invariable:

- Dizem que os vinhos franceses são os melhores do mundo.
  They say that French wines are the best in the world.
- Parece que a situação está pior do que imaginávamos.
  It seems that the situation is worse than we imagined.
- Vocês precisam de mais toalhas?
  Do you need more towels?

When used attributively, *melhor*, *pior*, *maior* and *menor* are placed *after* the noun with comparative meaning and *before* the noun with superlative meaning:

- o maior jogador de todos os tempos
  the greatest player of all time
- Você tem um número maior?
  Do you have a bigger size?

5.10 The syntax of comparative sentences

➤ Chapter 37 (p. 275)

5.10.1 ‘Than’ is usually translated *do que*, or less frequently, *que*:

- Ele já está mais alto do que o pai.
  He’s already taller than his father.
- Ela gana menos que eu.
  She earns less than me.
- Fui melhor do que esperava na prova.
  I did better than expected on the test.

Note that, before a numerical expression, ‘than’ is translated *de* after *mais* ‘more’ or *menos* ‘less’:

- mais de cem mil pessoas
  more than a hundred thousand people
- Terminei em menos de uma hora.
  I finished in less than an hour.

5.10.3 ‘As ... as’ is translated *tão ... quanto* or *tão ... como*:

- A irmã é tão talentosa quanto ela.
  Her sister is as talented as she is.
- Não estou tão otimista como você.
  I’m not as optimistic as you are.

5.10.4 ‘In’ after a superlative is translated with the preposition *de*:

- o prédio mais alto do mundo
  the tallest building in the world.
The absolute superlative

There is a second type of superlative in Portuguese that is used for emphasis to mean ‘really . . .’, ‘extremely . . .’. It is formed as follows:

(i) Adjectives ending in -o or -e replace the final vowel with -íssimo:

   belo > belíssimo  
   um dia belíssimo  
   a really beautiful day

   interessante > interessantíssimo  
   uma palestra interessantíssima  
   an extremely interesting lecture.

(ii) Adjectives ending in -z change this to -c- before -íssimo:

   feliz > felicíssimo  
   Fiquei felicíssimo.  
   I was overjoyed.

(iii) Adjectives ending in -vel change this to -bil- before -íssimo:

   agradável > agradabilíssimo  
   uma tarde agradabilíssima  
   a most pleasant afternoon.

(iv) Irregular forms:

   bom ‘good’ > ótimo ‘great, really good’
   mau, ruim ‘bad’ > pessíssimo ‘terrible, really bad’
   fácil ‘easy’ > facílimo ‘really easy’
   difícil ‘difficult’ > dificílimo ‘really difficult’
   pequeno ‘small’ > mínimo ‘tiny, really small’
   antigo ‘old’ > antiquíssimo ‘ancient, really old’
   cruel ‘cruel’ > crudelíssimo ‘extremely cruel’
   pobre ‘poor’ > paupérrimo ‘extremely poor’
   simpático ‘nice, friendly’ > simpaticíssimo ‘extremely nice/friendly’.

The superlatives máximo ‘maximum’ and mínimo ‘minimum, least, slightest’ are used in a slightly different way:

   uma velocidade máxima de 200 km/h  
   a maximum speed of 200 km/h

   O governo aumentou o salário mínimo.  
   The government increased the minimum wage.

   Não tenho a mínima ideia.  
   I don’t have the slightest idea.

The absolute superlative of amigo ‘friend, friendly’ is used as a noun:

   Ele é amicíssimo do governador.  
   He’s really good friends with the governor.
5.11.4 In colloquial speech, ‘irregular’ absolute superlatives are often created for humorous or emphatic effect. Examples include: **chiquérrimo** ‘really posh’ (< *chique* ‘posh, chic’); **magérrimo** ‘really thin, incredibly slim’ (< *magro* ‘thin’); **chatérrimo** ‘incredibly boring’ (< *chato* ‘boring’); **carésimo** ‘mega-expensive’ (< *caro* ‘expensive’).  

11 The form **magérrimo** is also used in the written language even though grammarians list the correct form as **macérrimo**. Non-standard forms, such as **chatérrimo** and **carésimo**, may be used in speech for humorous effect, but the standard forms are the regular **chatíssimo** and **caríssimo**.

5.12 Colloquial intensifiers

In addition to the standard intensifiers, such as **muito** ‘very’, **tão** ‘so’, **extremamente** ‘extremely’, etc., there are a number of ways of intensifying adjectives and adverbs in the colloquial spoken language:

(i) By adding the prefix **super**, or, less commonly, **hiper** or **ultra**:

_Aquele hotel é supercaro._
That hotel is really expensive.

_Ele canta superbem._
He sings really well.

(ii) By following the adjective or adverb with the expression **à beça** (now somewhat dated) or one of the many expressions beginning **pra** (< *para*), which range from the mild **pra burro**, **pra caramba** and others, through the stronger **pra cacete**, to the very vulgar **pra caralho**. These expressions can also be used to intensify verbs:

_Está frio pra cacete._
It’s damn cold.

_Ela fala à beça._
She talks a blue streak or nineteen to the dozen.

(iii) By using an exclamatory phrase introduced by **que** or **como**:

_Que desculpa mais esfarrapada!_  
What a lame excuse! / That’s such a lame excuse!  

_Que bom que você gostou!_  
I’m so glad you liked it!

_Como você está linda!_  
You look so beautiful!

(iv) The expression **o/a maior** (literally, ‘the biggest’) is frequently used before a noun in the sense of ‘a real . . .’, ‘a major . . .’, ‘one hell of a . . .’:

_Tivemos a maior briga._
We had a major fight.

_Era meia-noite, mas tinha o maior trânsito._
It was midnight, but there was loads of traffic.

12 This kind of exclamatory sentence is more common, and sounds less affected, in spoken Brazilian Portuguese than English sentences beginning ‘What . . .!’, ‘How . . .!’. For this reason, it is usually more natural to translate them with exclamations containing the words ‘such’ or ‘so’.
# Numbers and numerical expressions

## Cardinal numbers

### 1–100

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>um, uma</th>
<th>one</th>
<th>onze</th>
<th>eleven</th>
<th>vinte e um</th>
<th>twenty-one</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dois, duas</td>
<td>two</td>
<td>doze</td>
<td>twelve</td>
<td>vinte e dois</td>
<td>twenty-two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>três</td>
<td>three</td>
<td>treze</td>
<td>thirteen</td>
<td>trinta</td>
<td>thirty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quatro</td>
<td>four</td>
<td>catorze</td>
<td>fourteen</td>
<td>quarenta</td>
<td>forty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cinco</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>quinze</td>
<td>fifteen</td>
<td>cinquenta</td>
<td>fifty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seis</td>
<td>six</td>
<td>dezesseis</td>
<td>sixteen</td>
<td>sessenta</td>
<td>sixty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sete</td>
<td>seven</td>
<td>dezessete</td>
<td>seventeen</td>
<td>setenta</td>
<td>seventy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oito</td>
<td>eight</td>
<td>dezoito</td>
<td>eighteen</td>
<td>oitenta</td>
<td>eighty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nove</td>
<td>nine</td>
<td>dezenove</td>
<td>nineteen</td>
<td>noventa</td>
<td>ninety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dez</td>
<td>ten</td>
<td>vinte</td>
<td>twenty</td>
<td>cem</td>
<td>a hundred</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) **um** and **dois** are the forms used when counting, in mathematics, phone numbers, etc., or before a masculine noun. Before a feminine noun, the forms are **uma** and **duas**, e.g. **duas casas** ‘two houses’. The same applies to compound numbers, e.g. **vinte e uma mulheres** ‘twenty-one women’.

(ii) When quoting phone numbers or other series of numbers, the word **meia** (short for **meia-dúzia** ‘half a dozen’) is normally used instead of **seis** to avoid confusion with **três** ‘three’:

| o voo 467 (read: quatro meia sete) |
| flight 467 |

(iii) There is a less common variant of **catorze** ‘fourteen’ spelt **quatorze** and pronounced [kwa’torzi].

(iv) The **u** in **cinquenta** ‘fifty’ is pronounced: [si’kwêta].

(v) Note that, in compound numbers, twenty-one, twenty-two, etc., the word **e** ‘and’ is inserted between the ten and the unit.

(vi) **cem** alone translates as ‘a hundred’ or ‘one hundred’. Before a smaller number, **cem** becomes **cento e . . .**, e.g. **cento e trinta e cinco** ‘a hundred and thirty-five’.
### 6.1.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>duzentos</td>
<td>setecentos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>trezentos</td>
<td>oitocentos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>quatrocentos</td>
<td>novecentos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>quinhentos</td>
<td>mil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>seiscentos</td>
<td>dois (duas) mil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) The hundreds from 200 to 900 agree in gender with a following noun, e.g. *duzentas e quarenta páginas* ‘two hundred and forty pages’. The masculine form is used in counting and mathematics.

(ii) The word *e* ‘and’ is inserted between the hundreds and a smaller number, as in English, e.g. *quinhentos e onze* ‘five hundred and eleven’.

(iii) *Mil* ‘thousand’ is invariable: *dois mil, três mil, quatro mil*, etc. Note that ‘two thousand’ is *duas mil* before a feminine noun, e.g. *duas mil e quinhentas libras* ‘two thousand five hundred pounds’.

(iv) *Mil* is followed by *e* ‘and’ before a round multiple of a hundred or a smaller number, e.g. *mil e trezentos* ‘one thousand three hundred’, *três mil e setenta e cinco* ‘three thousand and seventy-five’. In other cases (i.e. when followed by hundreds and smaller units), *e* is not included after *mil*, e.g. *mil oitocentos e cinquenta* ‘one thousand eight hundred and fifty’, *duzentos e novecentos* ‘250, 995’.

### 6.1.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>um milhão</td>
<td>um bilhão</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>dois milhões</td>
<td>dois bilhões</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,000,000</td>
<td>três milhões</td>
<td>um trilhão</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) Unlike *cem* and *mil, milhão, bilhão* and *trilhão* are preceded by *um* and have plural forms ending in -ões.

(ii) *Milhão, milhões*, etc. may be followed by the conjunction *e* before a round number of thousands or a smaller number, but never before thousands and smaller units.

(iii) When used directly before a noun (i.e. when not part of a more complex number), *milhão, bilhão* and *trilhão* must be followed by the preposition *de*, e.g. *dois milhões de pessoas* ‘two million people’, *um bilhão de dólares* ‘a billion dollars’ (cf. *um milhão e quinhentos mil dólares*).

### 6.2

#### Ordinal numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Ordinal Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>primeiro</td>
<td>first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>segundo</td>
<td>second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terceiro</td>
<td>third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quarto</td>
<td>fourth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quinto</td>
<td>fifth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sexto</td>
<td>sixth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>décimo primeiro</td>
<td>eleventh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>décimo segundo</td>
<td>twelfth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>décimo terceiro</td>
<td>thirteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>décimo quarto</td>
<td>fourteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>décimo quinto</td>
<td>fifteenth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>décimo sexto</td>
<td>sixteenth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
sétimo  seventh  décimo sétimo  seventeenth
oitavo  eighth  décimo oitavo  eighteenth
nono  ninth  décimo nono  nineteenth
décimo  tenth  vigésimo  twentieth
vigésimo primeiro  twenty-first  ducentésimo  two-hundredth
trigésimo  thirtieth  trecentésimo  three-hundredth
quadragésimo  fortieth  quadringentésimo  four-hundredth
quinquagésimo  fiftieth  quingentésimo  five-hundredth
sexagésimo  sixtieth  sexcentésimo  six-hundredth
septuagésimo  seventieth  septingentésimo  seven-hundredth
octogésimo  eightieth  octingentésimo  eight-hundredth
nonagésimo  ninetieth  nongentésimo  nine-hundredth
centésimo  hundredth  milésimo  thousandth
milionésimo  millionth  bilionésimo  billionth

(i) The ordinal numbers are adjectives that agree with the noun they refer to in gender and number. The feminine and plural are formed according to the usual rules, e.g. a sétima casa ‘the seventh house’.

(ii) With the two-word ordinals, eleventh to nineteenth, twenty-first, twenty-second, etc., both elements inflect for gender and number, e.g. a vigésima quinta colocação ‘twenty-fifth place’.

(iii) Ordinal numbers always precede the noun they qualify.

(iv) Ordinal numbers are used as in English, except that they are not used in dates (see 6.4).

(v) The ordinals 200th–500th are hardly ever used in the spoken language and most native speakers are unfamiliar with them. Their use is avoided by paraphrasing, e.g. os 500 anos do Brasil ‘Brazil’s 500th anniversary’.

Collective numbers

Portuguese has some commonly used collective numbers: dezena ‘(group of) ten’, centena ‘(group of a) hundred’ and milhar ‘(group of a) thousand’. These are nouns and may be used in the singular to express an approximate number, e.g. uma dezena de pessoas ‘about ten people’, but are more commonly found in the plural:

centenas de e-mails
hundreds of e-mails

milhares de quilômetros
thousands of kilometers

dezenas de visitantes
dozens\textsuperscript{13} of visitors.

\textsuperscript{13} Strictly speaking, the meaning is ‘tens’ not ‘dozens’, but ‘tens’ is not used in this way in English and the number is approximate anyway.
These collective numbers are also used in the expressions às dezenas ‘in their dozens’, às centenas ‘in their hundreds’ and aos milhares ‘in their thousands’:

Os refugiados continuam chegando aos milhares.
The refugees continue to arrive in their thousands.

Similar to the above are the words quadra, quina and sena, which are used to refer to a series of four, five or six correct lottery numbers respectively:

O prêmio da quina foi de 10 milhões.
The prize for five correct numbers was 10 million.

**Dates**

Unlike English, dates are expressed in Portuguese using cardinal numbers except for the first of the month. The date is usually preceded by the word dia ‘day’ and the preposition de is inserted between date and month and between month and year:

no dia 5 de maio de 2008
on May 5th 2008

a partir do dia primeiro de junho
from June 1st onwards

Hoje é dia 16.
Today is the 16th.

In more formal written language, the word dia and the definite article are omitted:

sua carta de 11 de abril
your letter of April 11th.

Note also that, in letterheads and official documents, the date is always preceded by the name of the place:

Rio de Janeiro, 18 de setembro de 2009

Years are read as if they were numbers, e.g. 1976 = mil novecentos setenta e seis, 2016 = dois mil e dezesseis.

Centuries are expressed with cardinal numbers in Portuguese:

o século 21 or XXI (read: vinte e um)  ‘the 21st century’

no século IV (read: quatro) a.C.  ‘in the 4th century BC’.

Clock time

The equivalent of ‘o’clock’ is horas, except in the case of one o’clock, which is uma hora:

Que horas são?
What time is it?

São duas horas.
It’s two o’clock. (NB: ‘two’ meaning ‘two o’clock’ is always duas.)
É uma hora.
It’s one o’clock. (NB: ‘one’ meaning ‘one o’clock’ is always uma.)

After prepositions, clock times are preceded by the definite article as (or a before uma). Accordingly, ‘at’ with clock times is às (preposition a + as) or à before uma:

Começo a trabalhar às oito.
I start work at eight.

O banco abre das 10.00 às 4.00 (= dez às quatro).
The bank opens from 10.00 to 4.00.

Minutes past the hour are expressed using the conjunction e ‘and’:

à 1.20 (= uma e vinte)
at 1.20.

‘Half past’ is expressed ‘. . . e meia’. Note that there is no equivalent of ‘(a) quarter’ when talking about clock time; use quinze ‘fifteen’:

às 9.30 (= nove e meia)
at nine thirty / half past nine

até às 10.15 (= dez e quinze)
until ten fifteen / quarter past ten.

Minutes to the hour are expressed using the preposition para ‘to’:

às 10.55 (= cinco para às onze / dez e cinquenta e cinco)
at five to eleven

das 3.45 (= quinze para às quatro / três e quarenta e cinco)
from quarter to four.

‘Twelve’ is translated meio-dia ‘midday, noon’ or meia-noite ‘midnight’ as appropriate. The word doze ‘twelve’ is only used when expressing time by the 24-hour clock (see 6.5.8):

ao meio-dia e meia
at 12.30 midday

11.50 (= dez para a meia-noite / onze e cinquenta)
at 11.50 at night.

In everyday conversation, the 12-hour clock is used. The part of the day can be specified if necessary, i.e. da manhã ‘in the morning’, da tarde ‘in the afternoon’, da noite ‘in the evening, at night’, da madrugada ‘in the (early hours of the) morning’:

O voo dele chega às sete da noite.
His flight arrives at seven in the evening.

O telefone tocou às três horas da madrugada.
The phone rang at three o’clock in the morning.

The 24-hour clock is used in the spoken language for giving the exact times of flights, appointments, etc. and is frequently used in the written language. Note that 24-hour clock times are still preceded by the article as:

52
Fractions

The words for fractions down to a tenth and from a hundredth onwards are the same as the ordinal numbers, except for um terço ‘a third’:

- um décimo do PIB
  - a tenth of GDP

- dois terços da população
  - two thirds of the population.

Fractions between a tenth and a hundredth are expressed using the word avos with a cardinal number:

- um doze avos do orçamento
  - a twelfth of the budget

- três dezesseis avos
  - three sixteenths.

‘Half a . . .’ and ‘. . . and a half’ are translated using the adjective meio:

- três litros e meio de leite (NB: position of e meio)
  - three and a half litres of milk

- Comi meia maçã.
  - I ate half an apple.

‘Half’ as a noun and ‘half the . . .’ are translated using the noun metade:

- a outra metade do grupo
  - the other half of the group

- Ele comeu metade do bolo sozinho.
  - He ate half (of) the cake himself.

Decimal fractions

Decimal fractions are written in Portuguese with a comma in place of the decimal point. This is read vírgula ‘comma’:

- 0,05 (pronounced: zero vírgula zero cinco)
- 8,75 (pronounced: oito vírgula sete cinco).

Percentages

Percentages are expressed using por cento ‘per cent’:

- 60% (= sessenta por cento) dos eleitores
  - 60 per cent of voters.
Note that an adjective accompanying a percentage must be masculine plural:

- os outros 40% dos alunos
  the other 40 per cent of the students

- O preço aumentou em espantosos 500%.
  The price has gone up by an amazing 500 per cent.

The article os is sometimes used before a percentage:

- O índice anual de inflação ultrapassou os 10%.
  The annual rate of inflation went above 10 per cent.

### Monetary amounts

The currency unit and fractions thereof are separated in speech by e ‘and’, and in writing by a comma:

- Custou 8,50 (= oito e cinquenta).
  It cost 8.50.

When the unit of currency is specified, the fractions are usually specified too:

- Custou R$8,50 (= oito reais e cinquenta centavos).
  It cost 8 reais 50.

Note that monetary amounts are grammatically plural, the gender depending on that of the currency unit:

- Você te dar outros cem reais.
  I’ll give you another 100 reais.

- Esses cinquenta dólares são suficientes?
  Is this 50 dollars enough?

### Monarchs, popes, etc.

With the names of monarchs, popes, etc. ordinal numbers are used up to ten and then cardinals. In both cases, the number is usually written in Roman numerals. Notice that there is no definite article (‘the’) in these expressions in Portuguese:

- Dom Pedro II (Segundo)
- Papa Bento XVI (Dezesseis) ‘Pope Benedict XVI’
Personal pronouns can be further categorized into subject pronouns (e.g. English I, he, she, we, they) and object pronouns (e.g. English me, him, her, us, them). An object pronoun can function either as the direct object (like English me in ‘He hit me’) or as the indirect object (like English me in ‘He gave me a present’). Personal pronouns may also occur after prepositions (e.g. ‘behind me’).

### First person pronouns

The forms of the first person pronouns are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>As subject</th>
<th>As object</th>
<th>After preposition</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>mim</td>
<td>I, me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós</td>
<td>nos</td>
<td>nós</td>
<td>we, us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) The object forms me and nos are unstressed so are pronounced [mi] and [nus] respectively.

(ii) The subject and post-preposition forms of the first person plural pronoun are identical, differing from the object form only in the written stress accent and corresponding stressed pronunciation [nɔs].

(iii) The object forms me and nos can function as either direct or indirect objects:

- **A Júlia me beijou.**
  Julia kissed me.
- **O professor nos ensinou umas palavras novas.**
  The teacher taught us some new words.

For the placement of object pronouns, see 7.5.

### a gente

In everyday spoken language, it is extremely common to use the noun phrase a gente (literally ‘the people’¹⁴) instead of nós/nos to mean ‘we, us’. Being a singular noun, it is followed by a third person singular verb:

- **A gente mora na próxima rua.**
  We live in the next street.

---

¹⁴ The meaning ‘we, us’ is so established that a gente is never used to mean ‘the people’. ‘The people’ is translated as pessoas in the sense of ‘persons’, or o povo in the sense of ‘populace, nation’.
O Paulo vai encontrar a gente aqui.
Paulo’s going to meet us here.

Quer ir com a gente?
Do you want to go with us?

Note that adjectives referring to a gente are used in the masculine singular, unless the adjective refers to women only, in which case it is feminine singular:

A gente está cansado.
We’re tired.

You

The general word for ‘you’ is você when addressing one person and vocês when addressing more than one person. The word você derives historically from the noun phrase and form of address vossa mercê ‘your mercy’ (and vocês from the plural vossas mercês ‘your mercies’), which has two important implications:

(i) você and vocês are followed by verbs in the third person, singular and plural respectively:

Você é americano?
Are you American?

Vocês estão com fome?
Are you hungry?

(ii) They are not subject to the rules on object pronoun placement (see 7.5) but instead occupy the noun-object position:

Considero você meu melhor amigo.
I consider you to be my best friend.

Pretendo visitar vocês ano que vem.
I intend to visit you next year.

However, when talking to an older stranger or a superior, you should use the respectful o senhor (literally, ‘the gentleman’) for a man and a senhora (literally, ‘the lady’) for a woman. These are also the forms of address used by employees in service industries to address customers. Grammatically, they are obviously nouns so must be followed by a third person verb:

A senhora está na fila?
Are you in the queue? (to an older woman you don’t know)

Posso falar com o senhor?
Can I talk to you? (to a man to whom you show respect, e.g. a boss)

Qual o nome do senhor?
What’s your name, sir? (to a customer)

A senhora aceita um café?
Would you like a coffee, madam? (to a customer)

As a rule of thumb, it is appropriate to use o senhor/a senhora in cases where in English you might address the person as ‘sir’ or ‘madam, ma’am’.15 If you are not sure, you can
often avoid the problem by not using a subject pronoun at all – as long as you are addressing someone with a question intonation, it is clear that you mean ‘you’:

**Quer sentar?**
Would you like to sit down?

Although now considered rather old-fashioned, it is not uncommon to hear people address their parents as *o senhor/a senhora*, especially in more conservative areas of Brazil. This usage parallels that of some American English speakers who address their parents as ‘sir’ and ‘ma’am’.

The titles *o senhor/a senhora* can also occur in the plural: *os senhores* (for males or males and females) and *as senhoras* (for females only), but their use is restricted to only the most formal circumstances. The tendency is to use *vocês* or to omit the subject pronoun altogether:

**Querem me acompanhar, por favor?**
Would you follow me, please?

In the spoken language, the second person object pronoun *te* may be used as an alternative to *você*. But, as a true object pronoun, it must be placed immediately before the verb it is associated with, functioning as either a direct or indirect object:

**Eu te amo.** or **Eu amo você.**
I love you.

**Te empresto o dinheiro.** or **Emprego o dinheiro para você.**
I’ll lend you the money.

In the written language, and occasionally in the spoken language, the third person direct object pronouns *o* (for a male), *a* (for a female), *os* (for males or males and females) and *as* (for females only) and the indirect object pronouns *lhe* (for one person) and *lhes* (for more than one person) are used to mean ‘you’ with an equivalent degree of formality to *o senhor/a senhora*, etc. The equivalences are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Direct object</th>
<th>Indirect object</th>
<th>Addressee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>o senhor</em></td>
<td><em>o</em></td>
<td><em>lhe</em></td>
<td>male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>a senhora</em></td>
<td><em>a</em></td>
<td><em>lhe</em></td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>os senhores</em></td>
<td><em>os</em></td>
<td><em>lhes</em></td>
<td>males or males and females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>as senhoras</em></td>
<td><em>as</em></td>
<td><em>lhes</em></td>
<td>females only</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

**Posso ajudá-la?**
Can I help you?

**Em que lhe posso ser útil?**
How can I be of service (to you)?

**É com enorme prazer que os convidamos ao lançamento do novo livro.**
We are delighted to invite you to the launch of the new book.

**Vimos apresentar-lhes proposta de reforma do estatuto social.**
We hereby submit (to you) a proposal for reform of the company statutes.
PERSONAL PRONOUNS

See 7.5 on the placement of these object pronouns.

Note that, especially in speech, o senhor/a senhora can also be used as the direct or indirect object:

Já vou atender o senhor.
I’ll be with you in a moment, sir.

Estaremos enviando à senhora o contrato em duas vias.
We will be sending you two copies of the contract.

**Third person pronouns**

Third person pronouns have a stressed form and unstressed direct and indirect object forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stressed form</th>
<th>Unstressed forms</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct object</td>
<td>Indirect object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ele masc. sing.</td>
<td>o lhe</td>
<td>he, him, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ela fem. sing.</td>
<td>a lhe</td>
<td>she, her, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eles masc. pl.</td>
<td>os lhes</td>
<td>they, them, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elas fem. pl.</td>
<td>as lhes</td>
<td>they, them, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) The masculine forms ele and eles are pronounced with the close e sound, [\`el], [\`elis], while the feminine forms ela and elas have the open e sound, [\`ela], [\`elas].

(ii) The unstressed object pronouns o(s), a(s) and lhe(s) are pronounced [u(s)], [a(s)] and [\`\~\`i(s)] respectively.

(iii) The masculine singular pronouns can refer to a male person (‘he, him’) or any masculine singular noun (‘it’), the female singular pronouns to a female person (‘she, her’) or any feminine noun (‘it’).

(iv) The masculine plural pronouns can refer to two or more males, two or more people of whom at least one is male, any masculine plural noun or a combination of masculine and feminine nouns (‘they, them’). The feminine plural pronouns can refer to two or more females, any feminine plural noun or a combination of exclusively feminine nouns (‘they, them’).

(v) Notice that the indirect object pronouns lhe/lhes are not differentiated for gender, so lhe can mean ‘(to) him, her, it’ while lhes means ‘(to) them’ regardless of gender.

**Using third person pronouns in the written language**

The stressed forms of the third person pronouns (ele, ela, eles, elas) are used as subject pronouns and after prepositions in both the spoken and written languages:

Ela gosta de chocolate.
She likes chocolate.

Vous com eles.
I’m going with them.
The unstressed object pronouns are mainly used in the written language and are placed immediately before or after the verb they are associated with (see 7.5).

Examples with direct object pronoun:

A vendedora o acusou de ter roubado uma calça jeans. (written)
The sales assistant accused him of stealing a pair of jeans.

Dei as chaves ao gerente e ele as colocou na gaveta. (written)
I gave the keys to the manager and he put them in the drawer.

Examples with indirect object pronoun:

A mulher alega que a agência lhe ofereceu um trabalho. (written)
The woman claims that the agency offered her a job.

Os pais do menino pediram ao médico que lhes contasse a verdade. (written)
The boy’s parents asked the doctor to tell them the truth.

Using third person pronouns in the spoken language

In the spoken language, the stressed forms of the third person pronouns (ele, ela, eles, elas) are not only used as subject pronouns and after prepositions as in the written language, they are also used as object pronouns, being placed after the verb in the noun-object position (like você(s) see 7.2.1 (ii)):

Eu vejo ela todo dia. (spoken)
I see her every day.

A gente vai buscar eles no aeroporto. (spoken)
We’re going to pick them up at the airport.

But note that ‘it’ or ‘them’ referring to a thing or things previously mentioned is not usually translated at all, being understood from the context:

Achei o livro interessante e acabei comprando. (spoken)
I found the book interesting and ended up buying it.

O que é que você fez com as cartas? – Rasguei e joguei fora. (spoken)
‘What did you do with the letters?’ – ‘I tore them up and threw them out.’

The indirect object is expressed using the preposition para:

Mandei um e-mail para ele. (spoken)
I sent him an e-mail.

Falei para as meninas que eu ia escrever para elas. (spoken)
I told the girls I’d write to them.

As the direct objects ‘it, them’ are not usually translated in spoken Portuguese, it is common in the spoken language to form sentences that contain only an indirect object:

Ele trouxe as fotos e mostrou para mim. (spoken)
He brought the photos and showed them to me.

Estou com minha bicicleta aqui. Te empresto. (spoken)
I have my bike here. I’ll lend it to you.
7.3.4 Translation of impersonal ‘it’

‘It’ is never translated when it stands for an impersonal subject or object:

- **Está chovendo.**
  It’s raining.
- **É impossível prever o resultado.**
  It’s impossible to predict the result.
- **Considero errado não ajudá-los.**
  I feel it’s wrong not to help them.

7.3.5 The reflexive pronoun se

The reflexive pronoun *se* is an unstressed object pronoun that refers back to a third person subject, including *você(s).* Among other functions (see Chapter 22), it is used when the third person subject and object are the same, i.e. it translates ‘himself, herself, itself, themselves’ and, in the cases of *você(s)*, ‘yourself, yourselves’:

- **O menino se enxugou com uma toalha.**
  The boy dried himself with a towel.
- **Você se machucou?**
  Did you hurt yourself?

7.4 Use of subject pronouns

Subject pronouns occur in various types of verbless sentences and comparative expressions. This does not always correspond to English usage:

- **Quem quer sorvete? – Eu!**
  ‘Who wants ice cream?’ – ‘Me!’ / ‘I do!’
- **Nós vamos de carro. – Nós também.**
  ‘We’re going by car.’ – ‘So are we.’ / ‘Us too.’
- **pessoas como eu**
  people like me
- **Ele é mais alto do que eu.**
  He’s taller than me.

17 The subject pronoun is used after *como* even when, grammatically, it is the object of the sentence, e.g. **Quem diria que escolheriam uma pessoa como eu?** ‘Who would have thought they’d choose a person like me?’ This also happens in lists, e.g. **Escolheram Paulo, Sérgio e eu.** ‘They chose Paulo, Sérgio and me’.

With verbs, subject pronouns are never obligatory in Portuguese and can always be left out if the subject of the verb is clear from the wider context or from the form of the verb itself. For instance, **falo** can only mean ‘I speak’ and **falamos** can only mean ‘we speak/spoke’ so, in these cases, a subject pronoun is not necessary; however, **falava** can mean ‘I spoke’, ‘he spoke’, ‘she spoke’ or even ‘you spoke’, so it may well be necessary to specify with a subject pronoun unless the wider context makes it unambiguous who the subject is. In many cases, the inclusion or omission of a subject pronoun is purely a matter of personal preference, but there are a number of factors to take into consideration:
(i) A subject pronoun is always included when the subject is emphasized for some reason or when there is an idea of contrast:

Eu vou decidir quem faz o quê.
I will decide who does what.

Nós falamos português, eles não.
We speak Portuguese, they don’t.

(ii) Third person verb forms in particular can be ambiguous, so third person subject pronouns are normally included, at least the first time the subject is mentioned:

Ele joga tênis. Você joga também?
He plays tennis. Do you play too?

(iii) ‘It’ as an impersonal subject is never translated into Portuguese (see 7.3.4):

Está quente hoje.
It’s hot today.

(iv) Although not actually wrong, it sounds stilted to keep repeating the subject pronoun once the subject has been established. Such repetition would certainly be avoided in writing:

Meu nome é Ricardo. Sou brasileiro e moro em São Paulo.
My name is Ricardo. I’m Brazilian and I live in São Paulo.

Você me liga quando chegar em casa?
Will you call me when you get home?

Placement of unstressed object pronouns

7.5

7.5.1

Unstressed object pronouns (me, te, se, nos, o, a, os, as, lhe, lhes) have to be placed immediately before or immediately after the verbs they are associated with. When placed after, they are appended to the verb in writing with a hyphen. When there is a straight choice between the two positions, it is generally true that placing the pronoun after the verb sounds more formal than placing it before, although euphony may also be a deciding factor.

18 There is another possible position, which is sandwiched between the future stem and the ending in future and conditional verb forms, e.g. ver-me-iam ‘they would see me’, but such forms are perceived as extremely formal/literary and are rarely used nowadays except in the most formal contexts.

7.5.2

The crucial difference between the spoken language and the written language as regards object pronoun placement is that, in speech, there are no restrictions on placing an object pronoun at the beginning of a sentence or clause, so we can say that me, te and nos are always placed before the verb in the spoken language:

Te vejo amanhã. (spoken)
I’ll see you tomorrow.

O Pedro vai nos levar até lá. (spoken or written)
Pedro’s going to take us there.

7.5.3

But in written Portuguese, there is a cardinal rule that you must not begin a sentence or clause with an unstressed object pronoun. This means that, if there is no explicit subject,
and none of the conditions in 7.5.4 apply, the unstressed object pronoun has to be placed after the verb with a hyphen:

Vi-o. (written) cf. (Eu) vi ele. (spoken)
I saw him.

Beijou-a. (written) cf. Ele/ela beijou ela. (spoken)
He/she kissed her.

However, there are also a number of circumstances in which the unstressed object pronoun has to be placed before the finite verb:

(i) After a negative (não ‘not’, nunca ‘never’, nem ‘nor’, etc.):

Não o vi. (written) cf. Não vi ele. (spoken)
I didn’t see him.

(ii) In a relative clause:

a pessoa que o viu (written) cf. . . . que viu ele (spoken)
the person who saw him

(iii) In any kind of subordinate clause:

A vizinha disse que o viu. (written) cf. . . . que viu ele. (spoken)
The neighbour said she saw him.

Não lembro quando o vi. (written) cf. . . . quando vi ele. (spoken)
I don’t remember when I saw him.

(iv) After certain adverbs (sempre ‘always’, já ‘already’, bem ‘well’, aqui ‘here’, também ‘also’, etc.):

Já o vi. (written) cf. Já vi ele. (spoken)
I’ve already seen him.


Ninguém o viu. (written) cf. Ninguém viu ele. (spoken)
Nobody saw him.

(vi) In sentences starting with an interrogative or exclamatory word:

Quando o viu? (written) cf. Quando você viu ele? (spoken)
When did you see him?

Como o odeio! (written) cf. Como odeio ele! (spoken)
How I hate him!

When the subject of the verb is a noun or personal pronoun, you have the choice of placing the pronoun immediately before or immediately after the verb. Broadly speaking, placement before the verb is preferred in less formal written style (e.g. journalism), whereas in more formal and literary style the pronoun tends to be placed after the verb:

A polícia o prendeu. (neutral written style)
A polícia prendeu-o. (formal/literary written style)

cf. A polícia prendeu ele. (spoken)
The police arrested him.
Brazilians will often include a subject pronoun in writing just so that the object pronoun can be placed in the less formal-sounding pre-verbal position without breaking the rule about not starting a sentence with an object pronoun:

\[
\textit{Eu me vesti e saí. (Vesti-me would sound formal/literary)}
\]

I got dressed (\textit{dressed myself}) and went out.

### Special forms of the object pronouns -\textit{o}, -\textit{a}, -\textit{os}, -\textit{as}

(i) When appended to an infinitive, the third person object pronouns take the form -\textit{lo}, -\textit{la}, -\textit{los}, -\textit{las}, the final -\textit{r} of the infinitive is dropped and a written accent is added to -\textit{a}- and -\textit{e}-(but not -\textit{i}):-19

- \textit{amar} + \textit{o} > \textit{amá-lo} ‘to love him/it’
- \textit{escrever} + \textit{a} > \textit{escrevê-la} ‘to write it’
- \textit{dividir} + \textit{os} > \textit{dividi-los} \textit{(no written accent on i)} ‘to divide them’.

(ii) When appended to a first person plural verb form ending in -\textit{mos}, the third person object pronouns take the form -\textit{lo}, -\textit{la}, -\textit{los}, -\textit{las} and the final -\textit{s} of the verb form is dropped:20

- \textit{ajudamos} + \textit{o} > \textit{ajudamo-lo} ‘we helped him’
- \textit{vimos} + \textit{as} > \textit{vimo-las} ‘we saw them’.

(iii) When appended to a verb form ending in a nasal sound (-\textit{am}, -\textit{em}, -\textit{ão}, -\textit{õe}), the third person object pronouns take the forms -\textit{no}, -\textit{na}, -\textit{nos}, -\textit{nas}:

- \textit{comem} + \textit{o} > \textit{comem-no} ‘they eat it’
- \textit{põe} + \textit{as} > \textit{põe-nas} ‘he/she puts them’.

---

### Position of object pronouns with the infinitive

The pronouns \textit{me}, \textit{te}, \textit{se}, \textit{nos} and \textit{lhe(s)} can be placed before an infinitive or appended to it with a hyphen. They are placed before it in speech and neutral written style, and after it in more formal and literary style:

\[
\text{Ela pode nos ajudar. (speech or neutral written style)}
\]

She can help us.

\[
\text{O filme pode ajudar-nos a entender o que aconteceu. (more formal writing)}
\]

The film may help us to understand what happened.

The pronouns \textit{o}, \textit{a}, \textit{os}, \textit{as} are appended to an infinitive as -\textit{lo}, -\textit{la}, -\textit{los}, -\textit{las} in all styles, in accordance with the rule explained in 7.5.7 (i):

\[
\text{Decidi comprá-lo.}
\]

I decided to buy it.

\[
\text{É impossível vê-las a olho nu.}
\]

It’s impossible to see them with the naked eye.
The above construction is often used in the spoken language too, and is obligatory when these pronouns are used to mean ‘you’:

*Temos que ajudá-lo.* (written or spoken)
*Temos que ajudar ele.* (spoken only)
We have to help him.

*Muito prazer em conhecê-la.*
Delighted to meet you. *(to a woman in a fairly formal situation)*

### Position of object pronouns in the perfect tenses

In the spoken language and neutral written language, *me, te, se, lhe(s)* and *nos* are placed between the auxiliary and the past participle:

*Ele tem se queixado de dores abdominais.*
He’s been complaining of abdominal pains.

The third person pronouns *o, a, os, as* are positioned before or after the auxiliary according to the rules given in 7.5.3–7.5.6:

*O presidente o tinha convidado.* *(neutral written style)*
The president had invited him.

*Haviam-na ajudado.* *(formal/literary written style)*
They had helped her.

---

**NOTE**

21 The rules given in 7.5.4 are sometimes applied to these pronouns too in more formal writing, which means that they are sometimes placed before the auxiliary, especially in combination with the auxiliary *haver*, which is a more formal alternative to *ter* in the formation of the pluperfect, e.g. *o luxo a que se havia acostumado* ‘the luxury to which he had grown accustomed’, but nowadays it is no longer usual to append them to the auxiliary with a hyphen when they are placed after it.

### Position of object pronouns in the continuous tenses

In the spoken language and neutral written language, *me, te, se, nos* and *lhe(s)* are placed between the auxiliary and the gerund:

*Estou me preparando para o concurso.*
I’m preparing myself for the competition.

The pronouns *o, a, os, as* are either positioned before the auxiliary or appended to the gerund with a hyphen, according to the rules given in 7.5.3–7.5.6:

*O governo o está apoiando. / O governo está apoiando-o.*
The government is supporting him.

*Estavam esperando-a.*
They were waiting for her.

---

**NOTE**

22 The rules given in 7.5.3–7.5.6 may be applied to these pronouns too in more formal writing, which means that they are either placed before the auxiliary or appended to the gerund with a hyphen.
Note that object pronouns are always appended to the gerund when it is used adverbially, i.e. not in combination with estar or similar auxiliary:

Ela apagou o cigarro, esmagando-o com o salto do sapato.
She put her cigarette out, crushing it with the heel of her shoe.

More about indirect pronoun objects

Although the prepositional phrases a ele(s) and a ela(s) can always be used instead of the indirect object pronouns lhe(s) in the written language, there are three cases where a prepositional phrase has to be used:

(i) When the indirect pronoun is stressed (i.e. when the preposition to is used in English):

    Dei o dinheiro a ela.
    I gave the money to her.

cf. Eu lhe dei o dinheiro. / Dei a ela o dinheiro.
    I gave her the money.

(ii) When lhe could be ambiguous:

    Depois do que o amigo fez, ele prometeu a ela que nunca mais o procuraria.
    After what his friend did, he promised her he would never contact him again.

(iii) When the sentence contains both direct and indirect pronoun objects:

    Eu queria que você o encaminhasse a ele.
    I’d like you to pass it on to him.

    Ele deixou a casa ao irmão, depois de tê-la prometido a nós.
    He left the house to his brother after having promised it to us.

The preposition em is used instead of a/para when the action of the verb affects the indirect object physically:

    Ele deu um beijo nela. (spoken or written)
    Ele lhe deu um beijo. (written)
    He gave her a kiss.

The indirect object pronouns can be used to indicate that someone is the beneficiary or victim of an action. In such cases, English uses ‘for’ with a pronoun or a possessive where Portuguese has the definite article:

    Ele me roubou a carteira.
    He stole my wallet.

    Eles nos consertaram o carro.
    They fixed our car (for us).

In a similar usage, indirect me can be included in colloquial speech to express the speaker’s surprise or annoyance:

    Não me quebre esse copo, hein!
    Don’t go breaking that glass now!

    Em vez de quitar as dívidas, ele me compra um carro zero.
    Instead of paying off his debts, he only goes and buys a brand-new car.
Pronouns used with prepositions

As we have seen above, the forms of the personal pronouns used after prepositions are the same as the subject pronouns, except in the case of the first person singular, mim:

- sem ela
  without her
- atrás de nós
  behind us
- contra mim
  against me.

After entre 'between', the rule in writing is that mim is to be used immediately after the preposition, e.g. entre mim e ele 'between me and him', but the subject form eu can be used as the second term, e.g. entre ele e eu 'between him and me'. In speech, most people would also use eu in the first case: entre eu e ele.

Note that the first person singular and plural pronouns combine with the preposition com to form the single words comigo 'with me' and conosco ‘with us’. The other pronouns form regular two-word combinations with com, e.g. com você, com eles.

The third person reflexive pronoun se takes the form si after prepositions and forms the word consigo with the preposition com. However, these forms are only used in very formal written language, or when the meaning is ‘oneself’ (see 22.6). In the spoken language and less formal writing, the subject pronoun is used instead, reinforced where appropriate with mesmo(s)/mesma(s) ‘-self, -selves’:

- Ele prometeu a ele mesmo que não voltaria a fumar.
  He promised himself that he would not smoke again.

- A Laura se surpreendeu com ela mesma.
  Laura was surprised at herself.

- Não se deve pensar só em si mesmo. (impersonal sense)
  One shouldn’t think just of oneself.

In colloquial speech, you may hear the familiar forms ti (in place of você) and contigo (in place of com você):

- Eu vou contigo.
  I’ll go with you.

Emphatic uses of object pronouns

In the written language, the preposition a + pronoun is also used to emphasize a direct object:

- Por que não convidaram a mim?
  Why didn’t they invite me?

- Isso não prejudica só a eles, prejudica a nós também.
  This doesn’t just harm them, it harms us too.
In the spoken language, this is only an issue with the first person object pronouns, as in other cases the pronouns are placed in noun-object position anyway and can simply be pronounced with greater emphasis. With first person pronouns the options are (italics indicate spoken emphasis):

Por que não me convidaram? / Por que não convidaram eu?

Nos prejudica também. / Prejudica nós também.

The same rules apply when a pronoun forms a composite direct object with a noun. Note that, in such cases, the accompanying noun must also be preceded by the preposition a in the written language:

Convidaram a mim e a três outras pessoas. (written)
Convidaram eu e três outras pessoas. (spoken)
They invited me and three other people.

Conheci a ele e ao diretor. (written)
Conheci ele e o diretor. (spoken)
I met him and the director.

The above rules also apply when a pronoun is accompanied by só ‘only, just’, todos/todas ‘all’ or mesmo(s)/mesma(s) ‘-self, -selves’:

Pretendemos ajudar só a ela. (written)
We intend to help only her.

Preciso convencer a mim mesmo primeiro. (written or spoken)
I need to convince myself first.

Non-standard pronouns

The subject pronoun tu is quite often used in place of você in very colloquial speech, usually in combination with third person verb forms. This usage is most widespread in the southernmost part of Brazil, where it may be considered the norm in colloquial spoken language. A small number of speakers in that region also use second person verb forms.

In some regions, notably Bahia, lhe is used as both the direct and indirect object of você.

The old second person plural pronoun vós (unstressed object form: vos) is nowadays only encountered in biblical contexts as a form of address used between God and man. It can be likened to the English ‘thou’ and ‘ye’.

See Appendix V: Second person verb forms on page 458.
### Brazilian personal pronoun usage – quick reference tables

**Table 7.10.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject form</th>
<th>Spoken direct object form</th>
<th>Written direct object form</th>
<th>Spoken indirect object form</th>
<th>Written indirect object form</th>
<th>After preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu ‘I’</td>
<td>me*</td>
<td>me*</td>
<td>me*/para mim</td>
<td>me*</td>
<td>mim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>você ‘you’</td>
<td>te*/você</td>
<td>você</td>
<td>para você</td>
<td>a você</td>
<td>você</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ele ‘he, it’</td>
<td>o*</td>
<td>para ele</td>
<td>lhe*/a ele</td>
<td>ele</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ela ‘she, it’</td>
<td>a*</td>
<td>para ela</td>
<td>lhe*/a ela</td>
<td>ela</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós ‘we’</td>
<td>nos*</td>
<td>nos*/para nós</td>
<td>nos*</td>
<td>nós</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês ‘you’</td>
<td>vocês</td>
<td>para vocês</td>
<td>a vocês</td>
<td>vocês</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eles ‘they’ m.</td>
<td>os*</td>
<td>para eles</td>
<td>lhes*/a eles</td>
<td>eles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elas ‘they’ f.</td>
<td>as*</td>
<td>para elas</td>
<td>lhes*/a elas</td>
<td>elas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* unstressed object pronoun – for guide to placement see Tables 7.10.2 and 7.10.3.

**Table 7.10.2**

Placement of unstressed object pronouns in the written language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>me, se, lhe, nos, lhes</th>
<th>o, a, os, as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finite verb: zero subject</td>
<td>after with hyphen, e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finite verb: noun or pronoun subject</td>
<td>before (neutral style), e.g. ela me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finite verb: negative, subordinate clause etc. (see 7.5.4)</td>
<td>before, e.g. não me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>before (neutral style), e.g. pode me surpreender or after with hyphen (formal or literary), e.g. pode surpreendeu-me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect auxiliary: zero subject</td>
<td>between auxiliary and participle, no hyphen, e.g. tinha me surpreendido</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect tenses: noun or pronoun subject</td>
<td>between auxiliary and participle, no hyphen, e.g. ela tinha me surpreendido</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect tenses: negative, subordinate clause etc. (see 7.5.4)</td>
<td>between auxiliary and participle, no hyphen (neutral), e.g. não tinha me surpreendido</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Person 7.10*
**Brazilian personal pronoun usage – quick reference tables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>estar + gerund:</th>
<th>between auxiliary and gerund</th>
<th>after gerund with hyphen, e.g. está surpreendendo-o</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>zero subject</td>
<td>(neutral), e.g. ela está me surpreendendo or after gerund with hyphen (formal or literary), e.g. está surpreendendo-me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estar + gerund: noun or pronoun subject</td>
<td>between auxiliary and gerund (neutral), e.g. ela está me surpreendendo or after gerund with hyphen (formal or literary), e.g. ela está supreendendo-me</td>
<td>after gerund with hyphen, e.g. ela está supreendendo-o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estar + gerund: negative, subordinate clause, etc. (see 7.5.4)</td>
<td>between auxiliary and gerund (neutral), e.g. não está me surpreendendo or before auxiliary (formal or literary), e.g. não me está supreendendo</td>
<td>before auxiliary, e.g. não o está supreendendo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Table 7.10.3 Placement of unstressed pronouns in the spoken language**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>me, te, se, nos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finite verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estar + gerund</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8

Demonstratives

8.1 Introduction
There are three demonstratives in Brazilian Portuguese, though only two are regularly used in the spoken language. They can be used as adjectives (accompanying a noun) or as pronouns (replacing a noun), but in either case they must agree in gender and number with the noun in question. In addition, there are corresponding neuter forms, which are only used as pronouns and refer to something as yet unidentified or to a fact, an idea, etc.

8.2 Forms and meaning
In each case, the masculine singular form ends in -e, the feminine singular in -a. The plural is formed by adding -s to the singular form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>este</td>
<td>esta</td>
<td>estes</td>
<td>estas</td>
<td>this/these</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esse</td>
<td>essa</td>
<td>esses</td>
<td>essas</td>
<td>that/those (&lt;i&gt;near you&lt;/i&gt;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aquele</td>
<td>aquela</td>
<td>aqueles</td>
<td>aquelas</td>
<td>that/those (&lt;i&gt;over there&lt;/i&gt;)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) In all the masculine forms, singular and plural, the stressed first e has the closed [e] sound, while in the feminine forms it is has the open [ε] sound.

(ii) Like the definite article, the demonstratives merge with the prepositions em and de, e.g. <i>neste</i> (= em + este), <i>nesse</i> (= em + esse), <i>naquele</i> (em + aquele); <i>deste</i> (= de + este), <i>desses</i> (= de + esse), <i>daquele</i> (= de + aquele).

(iii) The preposition a merges with <i>aquele(s)/aquela(s)</i> to become <i>àquele(s)/àquela(s)</i>.

8.3 Usage
The fundamental difference between <i>esse(s)/essa(s)</i> and <i>aquele(s)/aquela(s)</i> is that the former refers to something close to the listener, while the latter refers to something at a distance from both speaker and listener. Compare:

<i>Onde você comprou esse relógio?</i>
Where did you buy that watch (<i>i.e. the one you are wearing</i>)?

<i>Você está vendo aquela casa verde?</i>
Can you see that green house (<i>i.e. over there</i>)?
The demonstrative *este(s)/esta(s)* is only used in the written language; in the spoken language, *esse(s)/essa(s)* is used instead, with the result that *esse(s)/essa(s)* does duty for both ‘this/these’ and ‘that/those’ (*near you*):

- **Caso o pagamento tenha sido efetuado, desconsidere este aviso.**
  - If payment has been made, disregard this notice. (*written*)
- **Comprei essa camiseta semana passada.**
  - I bought this T-shirt last week. (*spoken*)

Beyond the spatial realm, *esse(s)/essa(s)* is also used to refer back to something the speaker or listener has mentioned previously:

- **Foi nesse momento que percebi . . .**
  - It was at that moment (*i.e. the one I have just mentioned*) that I realized . . .
- **Quando é que você tomou essa decisão?**
  - When did you take this decision (*i.e. the one you have just told me about*)?

Similarly, *aquele(s)/aquela(s)* is used to pinpoint something remote in space or time with which both speaker and listener are familiar:

- **Você já esteve naquele shopping novo?**
  - Have you been in that new shopping centre yet?
- **A gente se divirtiu muito aquele dia, não é?**
  - We had a really good time that day, didn’t we?

In colloquial speech, *aquele(s)/aquela(s)* can also be used for emphatic effect:

- **Acordei com aquela ressaca hoje.**
  - I woke up today with such a hangover.
- **Foi aquele sufoco para achar uma vaga.**
  - It was the usual hassle to find a parking space.

The construction *aquele(s)/aquela(s) que . . .* is used to mean ‘the one(s) who/that . . .’:

- **um programa para aqueles que gostam da natureza**
  - an activity for those who enjoy nature
- **Prefiro essa saia àquela que experimentei antes.**
  - I prefer this skirt to the one I tried on before.

The demonstratives can be used in conjunction with possessives and other indefinite pronouns, as in English:

- **todos esses problemas**
  - all these problems
- **aquelas outras meninas**
  - those other girls
- **O que aconteceu com aquele seu namorado?**
  - What happened to that boyfriend of yours?

Note the expression *um/uma . . . desses/dessas* ‘one of these . . .’:

- **Temos que nos encontrar um dia desses.**
  - We must meet up one of these days.
And also note, in colloquial speech, um/uma . . . daqueles/daquelas ‘a major . . .’, ‘one hell of a . . .’:

Foi uma correria daquelas para terminar tudo.
It was a major rush to get everything finished.

The feminine singular form essa is used pronominally in a number of colloquial expressions, some of which are:

A impressora quebrou? Essa não!
The printer’s broken down? Oh no!

Você não pode ficar nessa de sair toda noite.
You can’t keep up this business of going out every night.

Essa foi boa!
Good one! (referring to a joke or witty remark) or
That’s a good one! (irony indicating disbelief)

The demonstratives aquele(s)/aquela(s) and este(s)/esta(s) can be used in combination in formal written language to mean ‘the former’ and ‘the latter’:

A América do Sul foi colonizada por portugueses e espanhóis: aqueles no Brasil e estes nos demais países.
South America was colonized by the Portuguese and the Spanish: the former in Brazil and the latter in the other countries.

Neuter demonstrative pronouns

The corresponding neuter pronouns are: isto ‘this’, isso ‘this/that’ and aquilo ‘that’. As with este(s)/esta(s), the use of isto is confined to the written language (except for occasional emphatic use in speech), so isso is used to mean both ‘this’ and ‘that’ in the spoken language.

These pronouns combine with the prepositions em and de to form nisto, nisso, naquilo and disto, disso, daquilo respectively. The preposition a merges with aquilo to become àquilo.

These neuter pronouns are used to refer to something concrete that has not yet been identified, or to something abstract, such as a fact, an idea, something a person has just said, etc.:

O que é aquilo no céu?
What’s that in the sky?

Por que você disse isso?
Why did you say that?

É isso que precisamos fazer.
That’s what we must do.

The neuter pronouns can be preceded by tudo ‘everything’ to mean ‘all this, all that’. Placing tudo after the pronoun gives greater emphasis in colloquial speech:

Tudo isso aconteceu muito tempo atrás.
This all happened a long time ago.

Você vai comer isso tudo?
Are you going to eat all that?
Demonstrative adverbs ‘here’ and ‘there’

It is useful at this point to present the words for ‘here’ and ‘there’ in Portuguese because they follow the same logic as the demonstratives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverb</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Equivalent demonstrative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aqui</td>
<td>here</td>
<td>near me</td>
<td>este (written), esse (spoken)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aí</td>
<td>there</td>
<td>near you</td>
<td>esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ali</td>
<td>(over) there</td>
<td>within sight</td>
<td>aquele</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lá</td>
<td>there</td>
<td>remote</td>
<td>aquele</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(i) *aqui, aí* and *ali* combine with the preposition *de* to form *daqui* ‘from here’, *daí* ‘from there’ and *dali* ‘from (over) there’.

(ii) As in English, these adverbs can denote location or movement to a location, so may be used in association with both stative verbs and verbs of motion:

- **O banco é logo ali.**
  The bank’s just over there.

- **Vou passar aí amanhã.**
  I’ll drop by there tomorrow. (*i.e. where you are*)

(iii) *lá* is often used to mean ‘over there’ in the sense of ‘abroad’:

- **Não temos essa fruta lá.**
  We don’t have this fruit over there (*i.e. where I’m from*).

In the spoken language, the demonstrative adverbs are often combined with the corresponding adjective or pronoun for precision or emphasis, as is also the case in English:

- **Você só vai levar essa bolsa aqui?**
  Are you only taking this bag here?

- **Não é esse ônibus, é aquele ali.**
  It’s not this bus, it’s that one over there.

The adverbs are sometimes preceded by *de* in this usage:

- **Essa daqui é a minha filha.**
  This is my daughter.

- **Bom, isso daí é você que sabe.**
  Well, that’s up to you.

In combination with the preposition *por*, the demonstrative adverbs each have two possible meanings: *por aqui* ‘around here’ or ‘this way’, *por aí* ‘around there’ or ‘that way’, *por ali* ‘around there’ or ‘that way’, *por lá* ‘around there’ or ‘that way’:

- **É por aqui para ir ao museu?**
  Is it this way to the museum?

- **A Cristina está por aí?**
  Is Cristina around? (*said on the phone*)
These adverbs can be combined with other adverbs of place. Notice that the order is the reverse of English: aqui dentro ‘in here’, aí fora ‘out there’, ali embaixo ‘down there’. The adverb lá forms some idiomatic expressions of this type: lá embaixo ‘downstairs; at the bottom’, lá em cima ‘upstairs; at the top’ and lá fora ‘outside; abroad’:

Não estamos escutando nada aqui atrás.
We can’t hear anything back here.

Tem outro banheiro lá embaixo.
There’s another bathroom downstairs.

There is another demonstrative adverb, cá ‘(to) here’, but its use is restricted. It can be used on its own with the verb vir ‘to come’ or in the combination para cá with vir and other verbs of movement:

Vem cá. / Vem para cá. / Vem aqui. (spoken)
Come here.

Acho que ele não volta para cá tão cedo.
I don’t think he’ll be back here any time soon.

Note the expressions o lado de cá ‘this side’ and o lado de lá ‘the other side, the far side’:

O hotel fica do lado de lá do rio.
The hotel’s on the other side of the river.

The demonstrative adverbs also have temporal usages that correspond to their spatial meanings; aí, ali and lá can all mean ‘then’ while aqui is equivalent to ‘now’ in the expressions daqui para frente ‘from now on’ and daqui a . . . ‘in . . . time’:

Até lá vai estar tudo esquecido.
By then it’ll all be forgotten. (remote time)

Foi aí que eu descobri a verdade.
It was then that I found out the truth. (the moment I just mentioned)

Ela volta daqui a duas semanas.
She’ll be back in two weeks’ time.

Finally, aí or daí can have the sense of ‘so’:

Eles não gostam da gente. E daí?
They don’t like us. So what?

Eu não tinha dinheiro, aí eu desisti de ir.
I didn’t have any money, so I decided not to go.
9

Possessives

Chapter 40 (p. 292)

Introduction

Possessives can be used as adjectives (accompanying a noun) or as pronouns (replacing a noun), but in either case they must agree in gender and number with the noun in question. The usage of the possessives differs slightly between the spoken language and the written language, as explained below:

Forms

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>meu</td>
<td>minha</td>
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<td>minhas</td>
<td>my/mine</td>
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<tr>
<td>seu</td>
<td>sua</td>
<td>seus</td>
<td>suas</td>
<td>your; his, her, its; their/your;</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>his, hers, its; theirs</td>
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<td>nosso</td>
<td>nossa</td>
<td>nossos</td>
<td>nossas</td>
<td>our/ours</td>
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Usage

In the spoken language, seu(s)/sua(s) is used to mean ‘your’ only.24 ‘His’ is translated o(s)/a(s) . . . dele (literally, ‘the . . . of him’), ‘her’ o(s)/a(s) . . . dela, ‘their’ o(s)/a(s) . . . deles, or referring to females or feminine nouns only, o(s)/a(s) . . . delas:

O Carlos me trouxe no carro dele.
Carlos brought me in his car.

Sua mãe é professora?
Is your mother a teacher?

NOTE

24 Because of the bias towards written language grammar in traditional textbooks of Brazilian Portuguese, foreign learners, especially those who have studied Spanish, have a tendency to use seu(s)/sua(s) to mean ‘his, her, their’ when speaking. In conversational situations, Brazilians always take seu(s)/sua(s) to mean ‘your’, which can lead to potentially embarrassing misunderstandings.

In the written language, seu(s)/sua(s) is also used to mean ‘his’, ‘her’ or ‘their’, but dele/dela/deles/delas are still preferred if it is not obvious who seu(s)/sua(s) refers to. Similarly, de você may be used for ‘your’ to avoid ambiguity:

Eles me convidaram a ficar em sua casa.
They invited me to stay at their house.
A namorada do Ricardo saiu da casa dele às 7h00.
Ricardo’s girlfriend left his house at 7.00.
(*suas casa could mean ‘her house’ or even ‘their house’*)

Ele quer vender a casa de você.
He wants to sell your house.
(*suas casa could mean ‘his (own) house’, ‘her house’ or ‘their house’*)

The possessive seu(s)/suas is not used for ‘your’ when addressing more than one person. In that case, it is customary to use o(s)/a(s) ... de vocês. Similarly, when talking to someone you address as o senhor/a senhora, the appropriate construction is o(s)/a(s) ... do senhor/da senhora:

Gente, posso ir no carro de vocês?
Guys, can I go in your car?

Qual o nome da senhora?
What’s your name, (madam)?

Note that nosso(s)/nossa(s) is often used in combination with a gente in the spoken language, though o(s)/a(s) ... da gente is also possible:

A gente vai vender o nosso carro.
We’re going to sell our car.

Ele pagou o jantar da gente.
He paid for our dinner.

A peculiarity of Portuguese possessives is that they may be preceded by the definite article, and must be when used pronominally (i.e. replacing a noun):

as minhas irmãs
my sisters

os nossos compromissos
our commitments

O cabelo dela é mais escuro do que o meu.
Her hair is darker than mine.

As casas deles são diferentes das nossas.
Their houses are different from ours.

When the possessives are used adjectivally (i.e. before a noun), the inclusion of the definite article is optional. In the spoken language, its inclusion with nouns in subject or object position is a matter of personal preference, whereas after prepositions that contract with the definite article (*a, de, em, por and para – see 4.1.3*), it is almost always included (e.g. o nome da minha rua ‘the name of my street’). In more formal written language, it is considered better style to leave the article out before a possessive, even after a preposition:

Ela falou de suas viagens à África. (*semi-formal writing*)
She talked about her journeys to Africa.

Possessives may also be placed after the noun corresponding to the English ‘of mine, of yours, of his’, etc.:

um amigo meu
a friend of mine
aquela professora sua
that teacher of yours
alguns pertences dela
some belongings of hers.

With a few nouns, such as foto ‘photo’, lembrança ‘memory, reminder’ and notícia ‘news’, the possessive placed after the noun means ‘of me, of you’, etc.:

Aguardo notícias suas.
I look forward to hearing from you (literally, I await news of you).
Pode tirar uma foto nossa?
Can you take a picture of us?

Omission of possessives

When a possessive is used in English to refer back to the subject of the sentence, Portuguese usually uses the definite article instead, especially in the following cases:

(i) With parts of the body:

Coloque as mãos na cabeça.
Put your hands on your head.

Ela quebrou o braço.
She’s broken her arm.

(ii) With items of clothing and personal accessories:

Ele tirou o casaco.
He took off his jacket.

Ela colocou a bolsa na cadeira do lado.
She put her bag on the chair next to her.

(iii) With family members and relatives:

Eles puxaram ao pai.
They take after their father.

Ela vai ficar um tempo com os avós.
She’s going to stay with her grandparents for a while.

(iv) With any other noun where it is reasonable to assume that it is the subject’s own:

Você não pode deixar o carro aqui.
You can’t leave your car here.

Ele rabiscou o telefone num guardanapo.
He scribbled his phone number on a napkin.

The definite article may also be used with similar types of noun object, the possessor being expressed as an indirect object pronoun (see 7.6.3). This construction is primarily used in written language:

uma voz que nos dá nos nervos
a voice that gets on our nerves
O ladrão me roubou algumas joias.
The thief stole some jewellery of mine.

9.5 próprio ‘own’

The possessives may be reinforced with the word próprio ‘own’, which, as a regular adjective, agrees in gender and number with the noun referred to:

Apresentei ao chefe as minhas próprias ideias.
I submitted my own ideas to the boss.

As expressions with ‘own’ usually refer back to the subject of the sentence, it is very common to replace the possessive with the definite article, especially when the subject is third person:

Ele veio no próprio carro.
He came in his own car.

Ela nem reconhecia a própria mãe.
She didn’t even recognize her own mother.

In the sense of ‘(a) . . . of my/your/his, etc. own’, próprio is placed after the noun and a possessive is not included in Portuguese:

Eles querem uma casa própria.
They want a house of their own. / . . . their own house.

Ela montou um negócio próprio.
She’s started up a business of her own. / . . . her own business.

9.6 Possessives after the verb ser ‘to be’

Possessives may be used after the verb ser to mean ‘to be mine/yours/his’, etc.:

Essa caneta é sua? – Não, é dele.
Is this pen yours? – No, it’s his.

Esses papéis são meus.
Those papers are mine.

The possessive may be preceded by the definite article when there is an idea of contrast, sometimes expressed in English by saying ‘my/your/his, etc. one(s)’:

Essa caneta aqui é a sua, e essa aí é a minha.
This pen here is yours (your one), and that one is mine (my one).

9.7 The second person possessive teu(s)/tua(s)

The second person possessive teu(s)/tua(s) is often heard in colloquial spoken language as an alternative to seu(s)/sua(s):

Esse é teu irmão?
Is that your brother?

Pode deixar tuas coisas aqui.
You can leave your stuff here.
Special use of the possessive **seu(s)/sua(s)**

The possessive *seu(s)/sua(s)* is used before a noun to mean ‘you . . .’ when addressing a person directly:

- **Seu idiota, olha o que você fez!**
  You idiot, look what you’ve done!

- **Vocês vão me pagar, seus desgraçados!**
  I’ll get you for that, you bastards!
10

Relative pronouns

10.1 que

The most versatile relative pronoun is *que*, which can refer to a person or thing, subject or object, translating ‘who(m)’, ‘which’ or ‘that’. Note that, unlike English, the relative pronoun can never be omitted in Portuguese:

- o homem que eu vi
  the man (who/that) I saw

- Qual é o ônibus que vai ao centro?
  Which is the bus that goes to the city centre?

10.1.2 The relative pronoun *que* can be preceded by the simple prepositions *a*, *com*, *de*, *em* and *por* (but not when these form part of a compound preposition, see 10.4.2):

- a moça com que eu falava
  the girl (who/that) I was talking to

- Foi uma decisão de que ele se arrependeria.
  It was a decision (which/that) he would regret.

10.2 quem

The relative pronoun *quem* can be used instead of *que* after the simple prepositions *a*, *com*, *de*, *em* and *por* when the relative pronoun refers back to a person:

- a moça com quem eu falava
  the girl (who/that) I was talking to

- a pessoa a quem ela se referia
  the person she was referring to.

10.2.2 In addition, *quem* can combine the function of antecedent and relative with the meaning of ‘someone/anyone who . . .’, ‘he/those who . . .’, ‘a person/people who . . .’:

- Quem gosta de peixe vai adorar este novo restaurante.
  Anyone who likes fish will love this new restaurant.

- Para quem não faz exercício, ela tem bastante fôlego.
  She has quite a lot of stamina for someone who doesn’t exercise.

- O cachorro me olhou como quem diz: ‘Tenha dó.’
  The dog looked at me as if to say: ‘Take pity on me.’
It can also be used in this way in emphatic expressions:

\textbf{Quem manda aqui sou eu.}
\begin{itemize}
\item I give the orders around here.
\end{itemize}
\quad (= The person who gives the orders here is me.)

\textbf{Foi o Jorge quem quebrou o vidro.}
\begin{itemize}
\item It was Jorge who broke the window.
\end{itemize}

**o que**

Some grammarians recommend using \textit{o que} as the relative pronoun after \textit{tudo} ‘everything’ and \textit{nada} ‘nothing’, but \textit{que} alone is widely used:

\textbf{O livro contém tudo (o) que se precisa saber sobre Paris.}
\begin{itemize}
\item The book contains everything you need to know about Paris.
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Não entendi nada (o) que ele disse.}
\begin{itemize}
\item I didn’t understand anything he said.
\end{itemize}

The pronoun \textit{o que} is also used as a relative referring back to a whole sentence or idea:

\textbf{Ele tirou o primeiro lugar, o que nos surpreendeu.}
\begin{itemize}
\item He came first, which surprised us.
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Ela alega que eu a agredi, o que não é verdade.}
\begin{itemize}
\item She claims I attacked her, which is not true.
\end{itemize}

It can also combine the function of antecedent and relative with the meaning ‘what’:

\textbf{O que nos falta é dinheiro.}
\begin{itemize}
\item What we lack is money.
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Ele não entende nada do que o professor fala.}
\begin{itemize}
\item He doesn’t understand any of what the teacher says.
\end{itemize}

**o/a qual, os/as quais**

The relatives \textit{o/a qual, os/as quais} agree with the noun they refer to in gender and number. They are used instead of \textit{que} to avoid possible confusion, or when the relative pronoun does not immediately follow the antecedent:

\textbf{Comprei um romance e uma revista, a qual folheei durante o voo.}
\begin{itemize}
\item I bought a novel and a magazine, which I leafed through during the flight. 
\end{itemize}
\quad (i.e. I only leafed through the magazine)

\textbf{Os alunos haviam perdido 60 horas de aula com a greve, as quais eles teriam que repor durante as férias.}
\begin{itemize}
\item The students had missed 60 hours of classes with the strike that they would have to make up during the vacation.
\end{itemize}

The relatives \textit{o/a qual, os/as quais} are also used after prepositions other than \textit{a, com, de, em} and \textit{por}, including compound prepositions:

\textbf{... a data a partir da qual os salários seriam reajustados}
\begin{itemize}
\item ... the date from which salaries would be increased
\end{itemize}
O Brasil produziu alguns dos craques mais famosos do mundo, entre os quais Pelé e Ronaldo.
Brazil has produced some of the world’s most famous soccer stars, including (literally, among which) Pelé and Ronaldo.

The relatives o/a qual, os/as quais may also be used with the simple prepositions:

a empresa da qual ele é presidente
the company of which he is president

as organizações às quais eles estão ligados
the organizations (which/that) they are linked to.

cujo(s), cuja(s)

The relative pronoun cujo behaves like an adjective, agreeing in gender and number with the noun following it. It can refer back to a person or a thing, meaning 'whose', 'of which':

a professora cujo nome me escapa (written)
the teacher whose name escapes me

os países cujos cidadãos precisam de visto (written)
the countries whose citizens require a visa.

The relative pronoun cujo is not used in the spoken language. Either the construction is avoided, or the relative pronoun que is used with the appropriate possessive inserted in the relative clause:

a professora que eu esqueci o nome dela (spoken)
the teacher whose name I forget (literally, . . . that I forgot her name)

uma casa que o telhado está sendo consertado (spoken)
a house whose roof is being repaired (literally, . . . that the roof is . . .).

quanto(s), quanta(s)

The form quanto is used as a relative after tanto ‘as much’; similarly, quanto(s)/quanta(s) are used after tanto(s)/tanta(s):

Não recebi tanto quanto pedi.
I didn’t get as much as I asked for.

Faremos tantas tentativas quantas forem necessárias.
We will make as many attempts as are necessary.

Note also the expressions tudo quanto ‘everything which’ and todos quantos ‘all those who’:

Ela gosta de tudo quanto é esporte.
She likes any kind of sport. (literally, everything that is sport)

A nova terapia traz esperança para todos quantos sofrem de asma.
The new therapy brings hope for all those who suffer from asthma.
**onde**

The relative *onde* means ‘where’:

- *o bairro onde eu moro*
  the neighbourhood where I live

  *Voltamos ao lugar de onde tínhamos saído.*
  We went back to the place (where) we had set out from.

**Note on translating ‘when’ as a relative**

‘When’ as a relative pronoun should be translated *em que* ‘on/in which’:

- *o dia em que ela chegou*
  the day (when) she arrived

  *na época em que ainda usávamos a máquina de escrever*
  in the time when we still used typewriters.

See also 20.3.6 and 20.4.2 on the use of the subjunctive in relative clauses.
Interrogatives

31.2 (p. 246); 33.4 (p. 255)

11.1 O que

The interrogative *o que* (or sometimes just *que*) means ‘what’ as a pronoun:

O que você disse?
What did you say?

O que aconteceu?
What happened?

Do que eles estão falando?
What are they talking about?

When *o que* falls at the end of a sentence, it is spelt *o quê*:

Acho que fiz algo errado, mas não sei o quê.
I think I did something wrong, but I don’t know what.

11.2 Que

Before a noun *que* translates ‘what . . .’:

Que horas são?
What time is it?

Que ônibus temos que pegar?
What bus do we have to take?

Você é de que cidade no Canadá?
What town are you from in Canada?

11.3 Qual, quais

The interrogative *qual* means ‘which (one)’. The plural is *quais* ‘which (ones)’:

Qual você prefere?
Which (one) do you prefer?

Quais são as melhores laranjas para fazer suco?
Which are the best oranges for making juice?

Qual dos dois é o seu namorado?
Which of the two (of them) is your boyfriend?
They can also be used adjectivally before a noun, but this construction is generally avoided, either by using qual/quais dos/das . . . or qual o/a . . . que, quais os/as . . . que:

Qual livro é o seu? / Qual dos livros é o seu?
Which book is yours?

Quais alunos foram reprovados? / Quais dos alunos foram reprovados? / Quais (são) os alunos que foram reprovados?
Which students failed?

Qual marca você comprou? / Qual a marca que você comprou?
Which brand did you buy?

The constructions qual é . . . ?/quais são . . . ? should be used to translate ‘what is/are . . . ?’ when you are asking someone to specify something from among a range of possibilities, as opposed to o que é/são . . . ?, which is used when asking for a definition. Note that the verb ser may be omitted after qual/quais:

Qual (é) o seu nome?
What’s your name?

Quais (são) os motivos do atraso?
What are the reasons for the delay?

Compare:

O que são células-tronco?
What are stem cells?

Notice the following uses of qual:

Qual é a altura do muro?
How high is the wall?

Qual é o comprimento do rio?
How long is the river?

Quem pegou a minha caneta?
Who’s taken my pen?

Quem você viu na festa?
Who did you see at the party?

Com quem ela estava falando?
Who was she talking to?

As subject, quem is followed by a singular verb, except in the case of the verb ser ‘to be’, when it may also be followed by the plural form as in English:

Quem são aqueles homens ali?
Who are those men over there?

Quem foram os primeiros habitantes desta região?
Who were the first inhabitants of this region?
**11.5 quanto(s)/quanta(s)**

The forms *quanto/quanta* mean ‘how much?’ and *quantos/quantas* ‘how many?’. They can be used adjectivally, before a noun, or pronominally, replacing a noun, but, in either case, they must agree in gender and number with the noun referred to:

- **Quantas horas você levou para vir até aqui?**
  How many hours did you take to get here?
- **Quanto dinheiro você tem na carteira?**
  How much money do you have in your wallet?
- **Você fritar uns ovos. Quantos você quer?**
  I’m going to fry some eggs. How many do you want?
- **Eu senti tanta dor, você nem imagina quanta.**
  I was in such pain, you can’t imagine how much.

**11.5.2** Note that *quanto tempo?* translates ‘how long’:

- **Quanto tempo temos que esperar?**
  How long do we have to wait?
- **Há quanto tempo você estuda português?**
  How long have you been studying Portuguese?

**11.5.3** The form *quanto* is used invariably as an adverb meaning ‘how much’:

- **Quanto você pagou?**
  How much did you pay?
- **Você sabe quanto ele ganha?**
  Do you know how much he earns?

**11.5.4** In indirect questions, this adverbial *quanto* is often preceded by the definite article *o*, which adds emphasis:

- **Você sabe o quanto ele ganha?**
  Have you any idea just how much he earns?
- **Fiquei impressionado com o quanto ele envelheceu.**
  I was amazed by how much he had aged.

**11.6 como**

As an interrogative, *como* means ‘how?’:

- **Como vai?**
  How are you?
- **Como se escreve ‘Guaratinguetá’?**
  How do you spell ‘Guaratinguetá’?

▶ 42.1.2 (p. 304)

**11.6.2** It also translates ‘What . . . like?’:

- **Como está o tempo aí?**
  What’s the weather like there?
Como é a sua namorada?  
What’s your girlfriend like? / What does your girlfriend look like?

► 36.2 (p. 269)

Used on its own, como? can mean ‘pardon?’ ‘sorry?’, etc. when you haven’t heard or understood what someone has said. The longer form como é que é? expresses impatience or disbelief:

Como? Não estou te escutando.  
Sorry? I can’t hear you.

Como é que é? Você está me chamando de mentiroso?  
I beg your pardon? Are you calling me a liar?

onde

11.7.1 The interrogative onde? means ‘where?’, expressing location or direction:

Onde você mora?  
Where do you live?

Onde ele vai?  
Where is he going?

De onde ela é?  
Where is she from?

11.7.2 The form aonde? means ‘where to?’, but in the spoken language it is used interchangeably with onde for both location and direction:\n
Perguntei-lhe aonde ele ia.  
I asked him where he was going.

Aonde nos encontramos? (spoken)  
Where shall we meet?

NOTE  
25 In the spoken language, you will also hear daonde? and donde? ‘where from?’: Você é daonde?  
‘Where are you from?’

quando

11.8 The interrogative quando means ‘when?’:

Quando você chegou?  
When did you arrive?

Você sabe quando ela volta?  
Do you know when she’ll be back?

Desde quando você fuma?  
Since when have you been smoking?
The term *por que* means ‘why?’. Note that it is written as two words to differentiate it from *porque* ‘because’:

**Por que você não manda um e-mail para ela?**
Why don’t you send her an e-mail?

When it falls at the end of a sentence, *por que* is spelt *por quê*:

**Ele não para de emagrecer, mas os médicos não sabem por quê.**
He just keeps losing weight, but the doctors don’t know why.

The interrogative *para que* means ‘what for?’:

**Para que você precisa de dois carros?**
What do you need two cars for?

When it falls at the end of sentence, *para que* is spelt *para quê*:

**Ela me pediu dinheiro emprestado, sem me dizer para quê.**
She asked me to lend her money without telling me what for.

The word *quão* ‘how’ is used to quantify adjectives and adverbs, mostly in indirect questions. It is only used in the written language.

**A enquete revela quão arraigado ainda é o racismo.**
The survey reveals how deep-rooted racism still is.

**Quão fiel é a tradução ao original?**
How faithful is the translation to the original?

In indirect questions, this adverbial *quão* is often preceded by the definite article *o*, which adds emphasis:

**Resta saber o quão eficaz será esta política.**
It remains to be seen how effective this policy will be.

Especially in the spoken language, . . . é que . . . is often inserted after an interrogative word, or . . . foi que . . . when the main verb is past tense:

**O que é que aconteceu? / O foi que aconteceu?**
What happened?

**Quem é que você vai convidar?**
Who are you going to invite?
Unlike English, a pronoun subject usually precedes the verb even after an interrogative:

**Onde você está?**
Where are you?

**O que ele disse?**
What did he say?

With a noun subject, inversion may take place with intransitive verbs, i.e. when there is no direct object in the sentence. Inversion is preferred in the following cases:

(i) When the verb means ‘to be’ (*ser, estar, ficar, ir, andar*, etc.):

**Como vai o seu pai?**
How is your father?

**Onde fica o banheiro?**
Where is the bathroom?

(ii) In indirect questions, especially in careful written style:

*a cidade onde moram meus pais*
the town where my parents live

**Eles se perguntam por que não veio ninguém ao enterro.**
They wonder why no one came to the funeral.

**Precisamos averiguar como se extraviaram os documentos.**
We must ascertain how the documents went astray.

(iii) In direct questions, in very formal written style:

**Por que se recusou o presidente a assinar o decreto?**
Why did the president refuse to sign the decree?

After *o que* ‘what’ as the direct object, inversion is optional, provided the meaning is clear:

**O que disse o médico? / O que (é que) o médico disse?**
What did the doctor say?

In the spoken language, it is common to place the interrogative expression where the missing information would be in an affirmative sentence:

**Você vai para casa como?**
How are you getting home?

**Ele acabou casando com qual das três irmãs?**
Which of the three sisters did he end up marrying?

**Ela saiu da empresa por quê?**
Why did she leave the company?
Interrogatives can be placed before an infinitive to render an impersonal meaning:

**Por que não proibir o cigarro completamente?**
Why not ban smoking completely?

**Como explicar isso a uma criança?**
How do you explain that to a child?

**Que computador comprar?**
Which computer to buy?

They can also be used before an infinitive in the same way as in English, in expressions such as ‘how to say’, ‘what to do’, ‘which to buy’, etc.:

**Não sei como te agradecer.**
I don’t know how to thank you.

**Você perguntar à Julia. Ela vai nos dizer o que fazer.**
I’ll ask Julia. She’ll tell us what to do.

**Estou na maior dúvida qual comprar.**
I really can’t make up my mind which one to buy.

Finally, o que, como and por que can be used after the verbs **ter** ‘to have’ and **haver** ‘there is/are’ and before an infinitive to mean ‘something to . . .’, ‘a way of . . .’ and ‘a reason to . . .’ respectively:

**Não tenho do que me queixar.**
I don’t have anything to complain about.

**Você tem como entrar em contato com ele?**
Do you have some way of getting in touch with him?

**Não há por que desconfiar deles.**
There’s no reason to distrust them.

**Infelizmente, não tem como.**
Unfortunately, there’s no way / it’s impossible.
12

Exclamations

The interrogatives *que*, *quanto(s)/quanta(s)* and *como* are also used in exclamatory sentences. This kind of sentence is used more frequently in spoken Portuguese than the literal English translations might suggest, so alternative translations are also given below.

12.1 *que*

12.1.1 In combination with a noun, *que* means ‘what a(n) . . . !’, ‘what . . . !’:

*Que ideia!*
What an idea! / What are you thinking?

*Que olhos que ele tem!*
What eyes he has! / He has the most amazing eyes!

*Que dia bonito!*
What a nice day! / It’s such a nice day today!

12.1.2 When the noun is followed by an adjective, the adjective is often further stressed by preceding it with *mais*:

*Que tempo mais feio!*
What horrible weather!

12.2 *quanto(s)/quanta(s)*

12.2.1 Before a noun, *quanto(s)/quanta(s)* means ‘What a lot of . . . !’:

*Quanta gente!*
What a lot of people! / Look at all those people!

*Quantas vezes eu não pensei nisso!*
The number of times I’ve thought about that! / I’ve thought about that so many times!

12.2.2 The invariable *quanto* can be used as an adverbial in exclamations:

*Quanto ri!*
How I laughed! / I laughed so much!

12.3 *como*

The adverbial *como* expresses degree, especially in relation to an adjective, adverb or verb:

*Como ele mudou!*
How he’s changed! / He’s changed so much!
Como São Paulo é grande, não é?
São Paulo is so big, isn’t it?

Como você fala bem português!
How well you speak Portuguese! / You speak such good Portuguese!
Indefinite adjectives and pronouns

13.1 todo(s)/toda(s)

13.1.1 Before a plural noun, todos/as means ‘all’. Notice that, in Portuguese, the definite article is obligatory in all such cases, whereas, in English, its use depends on whether the expression refers to a specific group or not:

- todas as crianças
  all the children or all children
- todos os meus amigos
  all my friends.

13.1.2 As a pronoun, todos/as can combine with other types of pronoun, as well as with verbs:

- Todos sentimos saudade dele. / Nós todos sentimos . . . / Todos nós sentimos . . . / Sentimos todos . .
  We all miss him.
- Tem suficiente para todos nós. / . . . para nós todos.
  There’s enough for all of us. / . . . for us all.
- Temos que colocar todas aquelas caixas no carro.
  We have to put all those boxes into the car.

13.1.3 The form todos can also mean ‘everyone, everybody’ in general. When it is the subject of the verb, only the context makes clear whether the meaning is ‘everyone’ or ‘they all’:

- Todos querem encontrar a felicidade.
  Everyone wants to find happiness.
- Ela tem três irmãos. Todos são médicos.
  She has three brothers. They’re all doctors.

13.1.4 In the written language, todos/as as an object pronoun is usually preceded by the preposition a, even when the verb takes a direct object:

- Ele cumprimentou a todos.
  He greeted everyone.
Before a singular noun, and accompanied by the definite article or equivalent, *todo/a* means ‘all’, ‘the whole’:

Ele comeu todo o bolo.
He ate all the cake. / ... the whole cake.

Já gastei todo aquele dinheiro.
I’ve already spent all that money.

In the sense described in 13.1.5, *todo/a* is often placed after the noun:

**o dia todo**
all day / the whole day

Ele comeu o bolo todo.
He ate the whole cake.

Before a singular noun without the article, *todo/a* means ‘every’:

**todo dia**
every day

Nem toda mulher quer ser mãe.
Not every woman wants to be a mother.

The indefinite adjective *todo/a* may occasionally occur without the article before an uncountable noun, e.g. *Todo cuidado é pouco*. ‘You can’t be too careful’ (*literally*, All caution is little).

The usage described in 13.1.7 has virtually the same meaning as that described in 13.1.1, and the two possibilities are often used interchangeably:

**todo dia / todos os dias**
every day

**toda criança / todas as crianças**
every child / all children.

Note the idiomatic expression *todo mundo* ‘everybody, everyone’:

Ele se dá bem com todo mundo.
He gets on well with everybody.

The form *todo/a* may also be used adverbially before an adjective:

Ela ficou toda suja.
She got all dirty.

The pronoun *tudo* means ‘everything’:

**Tudo mudou desde então.**
Everything’s changed since then.

It can also translate ‘it all’:

Ele abriu uma garrafa de vinho e tomou tudo.
He opened a bottle of wine and drank it all.
When an adjective is used to qualify *tudo*, it is preceded by the preposition *de*:

*Ela me culpa por tudo de ruim que aconteceu com ela.*
She blames me for everything bad that’s happened to her.

*Tudo de bom!*
All the best!

In addition, *tudo* can sometimes be translated ‘anything’, depending on the context:

*Tudo é possível.*
Anything’s possible.

In colloquial speech, *tudo* may be used in a dismissive sense to refer collectively to a group of people:

*Nenhum dos candidatos presta, é tudo ladrão.*
None of the candidates is any good, they’re all crooks.

### amboss/as

The word *amboss/as* means ‘both’ and can be used in combination with other pronouns as well as verbs:

*Ambos estudam Engenharia.*
Both of them study engineering. / They both study engineering.

*Eles têm duas filhas, ambas advogadas.*
They have two daughters, both (of them) lawyers.

Before a noun, *amboss/as* is always followed by the definite article:

*Ambos os países têm armas nucleares.*
Both (the) countries have nuclear weapons. / The countries both have nuclear weapons.

When used pronominally as a direct object, *amboss/as* is usually preceded by the preposition *a*:

*Conheço a ambos.*
I know both of them. / I know them both.

It is rarely used in the spoken language, where it is replaced by *os dois/as duas* ‘the two’:

*Já li as duas revistas.*
I’ve already read both (the) magazines.

*Conheço os dois.*
I know both of them.

*Nós dois falamos português.*
We both speak Portuguese. / Both of us speak Portuguese.
13.4 cada

13.4.1 The word cada means ‘each, every’. It can precede a noun:

- Cada funcionário recebe dois uniformes.
  Each employee is given two uniforms.

- Melhorou um pouco a cada dia.
  I get a little better every day.

13.4.2 The pronominal forms are cada um/cada uma ‘each (one)’, or the more formal cada qual:

- Cada uma delas tem um estilo diferente.
  Each one of them has a different style.

- Os candidatos aparecem na televisão, cada qual tentando conquistar o eleitor.
  The candidates appear on TV, each one trying to win over the voters.

13.4.3 The term cada um can also have the general meaning of ‘each individual’:

- Depende do gosto de cada um.
  It depends on each individual’s taste.

13.4.4 On its own, cada can be used adverbially in expressions of quantity, as in English:

- Os cartões custam R$4,00 cada.
  The cards cost four reais each.

13.4.5 It is also used in expressions of frequency:

- Ele faz exame de sangue (a) cada seis meses.
  He has a blood test every six months.

13.4.6 And cada is used idiomatically to indicate amazement:

- Já ouvi cada história.
  I’ve heard the most amazing stories.

- Ele vem com cada desculpa!
  He comes up with such far-fetched excuses!

13.5 qualquer

13.5.1 Before a noun, qualquer means ‘any’ (or ‘either’ of two) in the sense of ‘no matter which’. The plural form quaisquer is rarely used in the spoken language:

- Você pode pegar qualquer ônibus.
  You can take any bus.

- Tomaremos quaisquer medidas necessárias para conter a doença.
  We will take any measures necessary to contain the disease.

13.5.2 The pronominal form is qualquer um/qualquer uma ‘any one; either one’:

- Qual das duas maçãs você quer? – Qualquer uma.
  Which of the two apples do you want? – Either one.
The term *qualquer um* can also be used with the general meaning of ‘anyone’:

**Qualquer um sabe disso.**
Anyone knows that.

On its own, *qualquer* may also be placed after an indefinite noun in the sense of ‘(just) any old’:

**Pode usar uma roupa qualquer.**
You can wear any old outfit.

**Mas este não é um carro qualquer.**
But this is no ordinary car.

This is used for ‘somebody, someone’, or ‘anybody, anyone’ in questions and conditional sentences:

**Preciso de alguém para me ajudar.**
I need someone to help me.

**Se alguém ligar, anote o telefone.**
If anyone calls, note down their phone number.

The forms *algum*/*alguma*, *alguns*/*algumas* are used for ‘some’ before a singular or plural noun, or ‘any’ in questions and conditional sentences. Note that, before a plural noun, they may also be translated ‘a few, a couple of’:

**Eu vi a Silvia alguns dias atrás.**
I saw Silvia a few days ago.

**Você acha que vai ter algum problema?**
Do you think there’ll be any problem?

**A aplicação de gelo no músculo pode trazer algum alívio.**
Applying ice to the muscle may bring some relief.

And they are also used pronominally:

**Você tirou fotos na festa? – Tirei algumas.**
Did you take pictures at the party? – I took some/a few.

**Essas camisetas estão em promoção. Gostou de alguma?**
Those T-shirts are on special offer. Do you like any of them?

**Alguns nascem com talento, outros não.**
Some people are born with talent, others are not.

**Você leu algum dos livros que te emprestei?**
Did you read any of the books I lent you?

In negative sentences, *algum*/*alguma*, *alguns*/*algumas* can follow the noun to express a strongly emphatic negative meaning, ‘no . . . whatsoever’:

**sem dúvida alguma**
without any doubt / without a shadow of a doubt
Nao há motivo algum para desconfiar dela.
There is no reason whatsoever to suspect her.

**13.8**

**alguma coisa**

The term *alguma coisa* is used for ‘something’, or ‘anything’ in questions and conditional sentences:

*Alguma coisa não bate nessa história.*
There’s something not quite right about this business.

*Se quiser que eu explique alguma coisa, é só pedir.*
If you want me to explain anything, just ask.

‘Something’ or ‘anything’ is often translated as *uma coisa*, especially when followed by an adjective:

*Eu comi uma coisa na rua.*
I had something to eat while I was out.

*Uma coisa estranha aconteceu hoje.*
Something strange happened today.

When an adjective is used to qualify *alguma coisa*, it may be preceded by the preposition *de*, though this is not obligatory. If the preposition is used, the adjective takes the masculine form:

*Há alguma coisa de errado aqui.* / *Há alguma coisa errada aqui.*
There is something wrong here.

**13.9**

**algo**

A more formal-sounding word for ‘something, anything’, *algo* is more often used in the written language, though not exclusively:

*Os dois escritores têm algo em comum.*
The two writers have something in common.

As in the case of *alguma coisa* (see 13.8.3), an adjective qualifying *algo* may be preceded by the preposition *de*, though this is not obligatory:

*Ela tinha algo (de) muito importante a dizer.*
She had something very important to say.

The word *algo* is also used adverbially to mean ‘somewhat, rather’:

*uma vida algo solitária*
a somewhat lonely life.

**13.10**

**outro(s)/outra(s)**

The words *outro(s)/outra(s)* mean ‘other’; as pronouns, ‘other one(s)’, others:

*As facas não estão nessa gaveta, estão na outra.*
The knives aren’t in that drawer; they’re in the other one.
In the sense of ‘another (one)’, the indefinite article is optional before *outro/outra*, but is usually omitted:

**Quer outra cerveja?**
Do you want another beer?

**Ela viu o namorado beijando outra.**
She saw her boyfriend kissing another girl.

In the sense of ‘another’ before a numerical expression, *outros/outras* must be used in the plural in Portuguese, agreeing with the following noun:

**Outras seis semanas**
another six weeks

**Onde é que vou arranjar outros cinco mil reais?**
Where am I going to find another five thousand reais?

Note the expressions *um ao outro/uma à outra* (in the case of two people or things) and *uns aos outros/umas às outras* (in the case of more than two) meaning ‘each other, one another’. The preposition *a* may be replaced with other prepositions as appropriate:

**Os convidados cumprimentaram-se uns aos outros.**
The guests greeted one another.

**As meninas não gostam uma da outra.**
The girls don’t like each other.

There is also the expression *um e outro/uma e outra* (used before a singular noun) meaning ‘one or two, a couple of’:

**Apenas um ou outro jornal noticiou o fato.**
Only one or two newspapers reported the incident.

---

**tal**

The word *tal* (plural: *tais*) means ‘such’. With a singular countable noun, *um(a) tal* means ‘such a . . .’ in the sense of ‘a . . . of this sort’, whereas without the indefinite article, *tal* means ‘this’, i.e. the specific one mentioned earlier:

**Um tal escândalo é difícil de encobrir.**
Such a scandal (or A scandal such as this) is difficult to cover up.

**Como é que ele se envolveu em tal escândalo?**
How did he get involved in this scandal?

**O clamor foi tal que o presidente foi obrigado a recuar.**
The outcry was such that the president was forced to back down.

**frutas tropicais, tais como manga, mamão e abacaxi**
tropical fruits, such as mango, papaya and pineapple

**Ele é o chefe e, como tal, tem que assumir a culpa.**
He is the boss and, as such, has to take the blame.

---

27 In Brazilian grammars, *tal* is classified as a demonstrative, but it is more convenient to deal with it here.

28 Do not confuse this usage of ‘such’ with ‘such’ followed by an adjective, where it is the adjective that is being emphasized. In the latter case, the adjective in Portuguese is preceded by *tão* ‘so’:

**Eu não tenho condições para pagar um aluguel tão alto.** ‘I can’t afford to pay such a high rent.’
The idiomatic expression um(a) tal de means ‘someone/something called . . .’. A demonstrative or the definite article can be used instead of the indefinite article, with a corresponding change in meaning:

**Um tal de Rogério ligou querendo falar com você.**
Someone called Rogério phoned wanting to speak to you.

**O exame acusou traços de uma tal de efedrina.**
The test showed up traces of something called ephedrin.

**Como é que você conheceu essa tal de Cristina?**
How did you meet this (person called) Cristina?

**Isso causa o tal de efeito estufa.**
This causes the so-called greenhouse effect.

### Adjectives and pronouns of quantity

#### muito(s)/muita(s)

This is used to mean ‘much, many, a lot (of)’. The masculine singular form muito is also used invariably as an adverb meaning ‘a lot, much’, or ‘very’ before an adjective or adverb:

**Muitos acreditam que ele é inocente.**
Many believe he is innocent.

**Você tem muita paciência.**
You have a lot of patience.

**Ela fala muito.**
She talks a lot.

**A prova foi muito fácil.**
The test was very easy.

#### pouco(s)/pouca(s)

This means ‘little, not much, few, not many’. The masculine singular form pouco is also used invariably as an adverb meaning ‘little, not much’, or ‘not very’ before an adjective or adverb. Note that pouco(s)/pouca(s) occur much more frequently in Portuguese than ‘little, few’ in English because they are often used where in English you would say ‘not much, not many’. Also, do not confuse pouco ‘little, not much’ with um pouco ‘a little, a bit’.

**Sobrou pouca comida.**
There wasn’t much food left. / There was little food left.

**Poucos gostaram do filme.**
Not many people liked the film. / Few (people) liked the film.

**Ele estuda muito pouco.**
He studies very little. / He doesn’t study very much at all.

**Achei o argumento dela pouco convincente.**
I didn’t find her argument very convincing.

**Dormi pouco no avião.**
I didn’t sleep much on the plane.

**Dormi um pouco no avião.**
I slept a little on the plane.
Adjectives and pronouns of quantity

13.12.3 *tanto(s)/tanta(s)*

This means ‘so much, so many’. The masculine singular form *tanto* is also used invariably as an adverb:

200 CDs? Eu nem imaginava que tinha tantos!
200 CDs? I had no idea I had so many!

*Choveu tanto ontem que a rua ficou alagada.*
It rained so much yesterday that the street got flooded.

The comparative and superlative forms 29 *mais* ‘more, most’ and *menos* ‘less, least’ are invariable, even when followed by a noun. Only the context makes it clear whether the meaning is comparative or superlative:

*Eu tinha muito menos problemas com meu antigo computador.*
I had a lot less trouble with my old computer.

*a pessoa que eu mais admiro*
the person I admire most

*Quer um pouco mais?*
Would you like a little more?

---

29 Both *muito* and *pouco* have absolute superlative forms (*muitíssimo*, *pouquíssimo*) that are used for additional emphasis (see 5.11): *Muitíssimo obrigado!* ‘Thanks a million!’, *São pouquíssimas as chances de uma recuperação.* ‘The chances of a recovery are minimal.’

13.12.5 *bastante(s)*

This means ‘plenty of, quite a lot of, quite a few’. 30 The singular form *bastante* is also used invariably as an adverb meaning ‘plenty, quite alot’, or ‘quite’ before an adjective or adverb:

*Você deve tomar bastante água.*
You should drink plenty of water.

*Gostamos bastante do hotel.*
We really liked the hotel.

*Ela é bastante conhecida como escritora.*
She’s quite well known as a writer.

---

30 Following a noun, *bastante(s)* can mean ‘sufficient’. However, this usage is rare, although the adverbial *o bastante* is more common: *Ela tem conhecimento e experiência bastantes para evitar esse tipo de situação.* ‘She has sufficient knowledge and experience to avoid this kind of situation’, *O aparelho é compacto o bastante para ser transportado com facilidade.* ‘The machine is compact enough to be transported easily.’

13.12.6 *vários/várias*

This is used for ‘several’:

*Já estive em Londres várias vezes.*
I’ve been to London several times.

*Ele não tomou só um uísque, tomou vários.*
He didn’t have just one whisky, he had several.
**INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS**

**13.12.7 demasiado(s)/demasiada(s)**

This means ‘too much, too many’. The masculine singular form *demasiado* is also used invariably as an adverb meaning ‘too much, too’. This word is only used in more formal written language:

- *Deu-se demasiada importância a esse fato.*
  Too much importance has been attached to this fact.

- *Um crescimento demasiado rápido poderá gerar inflação.*
  Too rapid growth may generate inflation.

**13.12.8 quanto(s)/quanta(s)**

This is used for ‘how much, how many’ (see 11.5).

**13.13 Other indefinite adjectives and pronouns**

**13.13.1 certo(s)/certa(s)**

This means ‘certain’. Note that, in the singular, the indefinite article may be omitted in more formal language and in many fixed expressions:

- *até certo ponto*
  to a certain extent

- *Certo dia, apareceu na porta de casa um policial.*
  One day, a policeman turned up at my door.

**13.13.2 diversos/diversas**

This is used for ‘various, different’:

- *um método usado em diversos países*
  a method used in various countries.

**13.13.3 tamanho(s)/tamanha(s)**

This means ‘such, such great’ and is used in the written language:

- *Sentimo-nos impotentes diante de tamanha injustiça.*
  We feel impotent in the face of such injustice.

**13.13.4 os/as demais**

This is used for ‘the others, the rest’, with or without a following noun:

- *as demais empresas*
  the other companies

- *Dois bandidos foram presos, os demais continuam foragidos.*
  Two bandits were arrested, the others are still on the run.

**13.13.5 outrem**

This means ‘another (person)’ and is only used in formal writing:

- *Roubo é apropriação ilegal de um bem pertencente a outrem.*
  Theft is illegal appropriation of property belonging to another.
‘Else’

‘Else’ is translated *mais* when it means ‘in addition’:

- *tudo (o) mais* ‘everything else’
- *alguém mais / mais alguém* ‘someone else, anyone else’
- *mais alguma coisa* ‘something else’
- *algo mais* ‘something else’.

When it means ‘different’, expressions with *outro* are used:

- *outra pessoa* ‘someone else’
- *outra coisa* ‘something else’
- *em outro lugar* ‘somewhere else’.
There are two basic principles governing the use of negatives in Portuguese:

(i) unlike English, double (or even triple) negatives are the norm; and
(ii) when a negative word (nada, ninguém, nunca, jamais, nem, nenhum) occurs after
the verb, the verb must be preceded by não or another negative word:

Não vi nada.
I didn’t see anything. / I saw nothing.

Eu nunca tive nenhum problema.
I’ve never had any problem.

não

In addition to meaning ‘no’ as a negative response, não is used to negate verbs with
the meaning of ‘not’. Note that it is placed before the verb and that Portuguese does not require
the insertion of an auxiliary verb (like ‘do’ in English) to form the negative:

O Jim não fala português.
Jim doesn’t speak Portuguese.

Não a encontrei em casa.
I didn’t find her at home.

The word não is used on its own when the verb is understood. English repeats the auxiliary
in such cases:

O meu irmão fuma, eu não.
My brother smokes, I don’t.

The tag question não é? is used to render any negative tag question in English:

Você sabe chegar lá, não é?
You know how to get there, don’t you?

Nós vamos ter que voltar, não é?
We’ll have to go back, won’t we?
The expression **não . . . mais** translates ‘not any more’. The synonymous expression **já não** sounds slightly more formal and can be thought of as meaning ‘no longer’:

- **Ela não mora mais aqui.**
  She doesn’t live here any more.

- **Já não se fala em crise.**
  There’s no longer any talk of a crisis.

**nada**

The word **nada** translates ‘nothing’. When it occurs after the verb, the verb must be preceded by **não** or another negative word:

- **Não comi nada hoje.**
  I haven’t eaten anything today.

- **Desde então nada mudou.**
  Nothing’s changed since then.

- **Ninguém falou nada.**
  No one said anything.

When an adjective is used to qualify **nada**, it may be preceded by the preposition **de**, although this is not obligatory:

- **Não aconteceu nada de novo.**
  Nothing new has happened.

‘Nothing else’ is translated **mais nada** or **nada mais**:

- **Ele não disse mais nada?**
  Didn’t he say anything else?

The word **nada** is also used adverbially to mean ‘(not) at all’:

- **Não dormi nada essa noite.**
  I didn’t sleep at all last night.

- **As perspectivas não são nada boas.**
  The prospects are not good at all.

It also occurs in some idiomatic usages:

- **Você estava dormindo? – Dormindo nada, acordei cedo hoje.**
  Were you asleep? – No way, I was up early today.

- **Ir para um hotel? Que nada! Pode ficar aqui em casa.**
  Go to a hotel? Of course not! You can stay here.

**ninguém**

The word **ninguém** translates ‘nobody, no one’:

- **Ninguém acredita em mim.**
  Nobody believes me.

- **Não tem ninguém em casa.**
  There’s no one at home.
‘Nobody else’ is translated **mais ninguém** or **ninguém mais**:

\[
\text{Você não quer convidar ninguém mais?}
\]

Don’t you want to invite anyone else?

### nunca

The word **nunca** is used for ‘never’:

\[
\text{Eu nunca vou esquecer o que aconteceu.}
\]

I’ll never forget what happened.

\[
\text{Ele não liga nunca.}
\]

He never calls.

The expression **nunca mais** means ‘never again’:

\[
\text{Não nos vimos nunca mais.}
\]

We never saw each other again.

And for ‘hardly ever’, **quase nunca** is used:

\[
\text{Eu quase nunca assisto TV.}
\]

I hardly ever watch TV.

### jamais

This is a more emphatic synonym of **nunca** and might be thought of as meaning ‘never ever’:

\[
\text{Eu jamais faria uma coisa dessas.}
\]

I would never ever do a thing like that.

\[
\text{Você não deve jamais escrever sua senha num e-mail.}
\]

You should never, ever write your password in an e-mail.

**nem**

A single **nem** means ‘not even’. This idea can be expressed more emphatically with the expression **nem sequer**:

\[
\text{Não tive tempo nem de tomar café.}
\]

I didn’t even have time to have breakfast.

\[
\text{Nem sei mais onde ela mora.}
\]

I don’t even know where she lives any more.

\[
\text{Ele nem sequer me cumprimentou.}
\]

He didn’t even say hello to me.

The expression **nem . . . nem . . .** means ‘neither . . . nor . . .’:

\[
\text{Nem o Bruno nem o irmão dele falam inglês.}
\]

Neither Bruno nor his brother speak English.

\[
\text{Não tenho aula nem hoje nem amanhã.}
\]

I don’t have class either today or tomorrow.
On its own, **nem** can also mean ‘neither, nor’ in expressions of agreement and when giving additional information:

- **Eu não gosto de filmes de ação. – Nem eu.**  
  I don’t like action movies. – Neither do I. / Nor do I. / Me neither.

- **Eu não quero ir, nem você, então não vamos.**  
  I don’t want to go, neither do you, so we won’t go.

It is also used as a negative before **todo(s)/toda(s), tudo** and **sempre**:

- **Nem todas as crianças gostam de chocolate.**  
  Not all children like chocolate.

- **Nem sempre concordo com ele.**  
  I don’t always agree with him.

Note the colloquial expression **que nem**, which means ‘like’:

- **Ele fala português que nem brasileiro.**  
  He speaks Portuguese like a Brazilian.

**nenhum/nenhuma**

Before a noun, **nenhum/nenhuma** means ‘no’. Notice that the negated noun is always singular in Portuguese, whereas it is often plural in English:

- **O brasileiro não teve nenhum dificuldade para ganhar a corrida.**  
  The Brazilian had no difficulty winning the race.

- **Nenhum passageiro ficou ferido no acidente.**  
  No passengers were injured in the accident.

The word **nenhum/nenhuma** may be placed after the noun for greater emphasis:

- **Não tivemos problema nenhum.**  
  We had no problem at all.

As a pronoun, **nenhum/nenhuma** means ‘none’, or ‘neither’ of two:

- **Quantas fotos você tirou? – Nenhuma.**  
  How many photos did you take? – None.

- **Nenhum dos gêmeos come carne.**  
  Neither of the twins eats meat.

**sem**

The word **sem** ‘without’ is used in combination with the other negative words:

- **sem nenhum arrependimento**  
  without any regrets / with no regrets

- **Ela saiu sem dizer nada.**  
  She went out without saying anything.
In phrases without a verb, it often corresponds to the English ‘no’:

**Sem comentários.**
No comment.

**Aula experimental grátis sem compromisso.**
Free trial lesson with no obligation.

Note the common expressions *estar sem* ‘to have no’ and *ficar sem* ‘to go without’:

**Estou sem dinheiro na carteira.**
I have no money in my wallet.

**Ficamos um tempão sem nos ver.**
We went for ages without seeing each other.
Regular verb conjugations

15.1 Introduction to Portuguese verbs: how the system works

Portuguese verb forms consist of a stem and an ending, or inflection. While English verbs have few inflected forms (e.g. speak, speaks, speaking, spoke, spoken), Portuguese verbs have many more, according to the person (I, you, he, we, they, etc.), tense (present, past, future, etc.) and mood (indicative or subjunctive). The pattern of different inflected forms is called conjugation.

While the vast majority of Portuguese verbs inflect according to one of the three regular conjugations, many of the most common verbs of the language have some irregularities that must be memorized.

The job of learning verb forms is made easier by the fact that, in Brazilian Portuguese, it is only necessary to memorize a maximum of four separate forms per tense (the first person singular, for eu ‘I’; the third person singular, for você, o senhor/a senhora ‘you’, ele ‘he, it’ and ela ‘she, it’; the first person plural, for nós ‘we’; and the third person plural for vocês ‘you’, eles and elas ‘they’). In fact, to get by in the spoken language, you only need to remember three forms, as the third person singular is also used with a gente, the colloquial alternative for nós (see 7.1.1).

There are only three simple tenses that must be learnt in order to speak Brazilian Portuguese effectively: present, imperfect and preterite. The future tense is hardly ever used in the spoken language and the conditional is usually replaced in speech by the imperfect. The perfect and pluperfect tenses are formed by combining the past participle with the verb ter ‘to have’ (as in English). In addition, there are three subjunctive tenses in frequent use: present, imperfect and future – see Chapter 20 for an explanation of the nature and use of the subjunctive.

15.2 The infinitive and the stem

The verb form shown in dictionaries is the infinitive, e.g. falar corresponding to English ‘to speak’. The infinitive of virtually all Portuguese verbs ends in either -ar, -er or -ir. This ending immediately shows which conjugation (category of verb) the verb belongs to and which conjugation pattern it follows.

A limited number of monosyllabic verbs (e.g. ir ‘to go’, pôr ‘to put’, ser ‘to be’, ter ‘to have’, ver ‘to see’, vir ‘to come’, etc.) cannot be classified according to the above categorization and are irregular in their conjugation.
To isolate the stem of a regular verb – i.e. the element to which the various inflectional endings are added – simply remove the infinitive ending -ar, -er or -ir.

### Simple tenses: present indicative

#### 15.3.1 The first person singular ending is -o for all three conjugations: falar ‘to speak’ > falo ‘I speak’; comer ‘to eat’ > como ‘I eat’; decidir ‘to decide’ > decido ‘I decide’.

The third person singular ending is -a for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > ele fala ‘he speaks’, and -e for both -er and -ir verbs: comer > ele come ‘he eats’; decidir > ele decide ‘he decides’.

The first person plural ending is -amos for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > falamos ‘we speak’; -emos for -er verbs, e.g. comer > comemos ‘we eat’; and -imos for -ir verbs, e.g. decidir > decidimos ‘we decide’.

The third person plural ending is -am (pronounced /-ão/) for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > eles falam ‘they speak’, and -em for both -er and -ir verbs: comer > eles comem ‘they eat’; decidir > eles decidem ‘they decide’.

#### 15.3.2 Table 15.3.1 Summary of present tense endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ar verb: falar</th>
<th>-er verb: comer</th>
<th>-ir verb: decidir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu falo</td>
<td>como</td>
<td>decido</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>você, ele, ela</td>
<td>fala</td>
<td>come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós falamos</td>
<td>comemos</td>
<td>decídimos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês, eles, elas falam</td>
<td>comem</td>
<td>decidiem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Simple tenses: imperfect indicative

#### 15.4 In the imperfect tense, there is no distinction between first and third person singular forms, and the endings for -er and -ir verbs are the same in all four forms.

The singular ending is -ava for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > eu/ele falava ‘I/he used to speak’, and -ia for both -er and -ir verbs: comer > eu/ele comia ‘I/he used to eat’; decidir > eu/ele decidia ‘I/he used to decide’.

The first person plural ending is -ávamos for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > falávamos ‘we used to speak’, and -íamos for both -er and -ir verbs: comer > comíamos ‘we used to eat’; decidir > decídimos ‘we used to decide’.

The third person plural ending is -avam (pronounced /-ávão/) for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > eles falavam ‘they used to speak’, and -iam (pronounced /-iáão/) for both -er and -ir verbs: comer > eles comiam ‘they used to eat’; decidir > eles decidiam ‘they used to decide’.

#### 18.3 (p. 129)
Table 15.4.1 Summary of imperfect tense endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>-ar verb: falar</th>
<th>-er verb: comer</th>
<th>-ir verb: decidir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu, você, ele, ela</td>
<td>falava</td>
<td>comia</td>
<td>decidi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós</td>
<td>falávamos</td>
<td>comiamos</td>
<td>decidiámos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês, eles, elas</td>
<td>falavam</td>
<td>comiam</td>
<td>decidiám</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Simple tenses: preterite indicative

The first person singular ending is -ei for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > falei ‘I spoke’, and -i for both -er and -ir verbs: comer > comi ‘I ate’; decidir > decidi ‘I decided’. Note that, in all cases, the preterite ending is stressed.

The third person singular ending is -ou for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > ele falou ‘he spoke’; -eu for -er verbs, e.g. comer > ele comeu ‘he ate’; and -iu for -ir verbs, e.g. decidir > ele decidiu ‘he decided’.

The first person plural forms of the preterite are identical to those of the present tense: falar > falamos ‘we spoke’; comer > comemos ‘we ate’; decidir > decidimos ‘we decided’. Only the context makes it clear whether the verb form has present or preterite meaning.

The third person plural ending is -aram (pronounced /-árão/) for -ar verbs, e.g. falar > eles falaram ‘they spoke’; -eram (pronounced /-êrão/) for -er verbs, e.g. comer > eles comeram ‘they ate’; and -iram (pronounced /-írão/) for -ir verbs, e.g. decidir > eles decidiram ‘they decided’.

► 18.5 (p. 130)

Table 15.5.1 Summary of preterite tense endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>-ar verb: falar</th>
<th>-er verb: comer</th>
<th>-ir verb: decidir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu</td>
<td>falei</td>
<td>comi</td>
<td>decidi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>você, ele, ela</td>
<td>falou</td>
<td>comeu</td>
<td>decidiu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós</td>
<td>falamos</td>
<td>comemos</td>
<td>decidiámos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês, eles, elas</td>
<td>falaram</td>
<td>comeram</td>
<td>decidiám</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Simple tenses: present subjunctive

The present subjunctive is formed by adding the present indicative endings of -er verbs to the stem of -ar verbs, and the present indicative endings of -ar verbs to the stem of -er and -ir verbs, except in the first person singular, which, in the subjunctive, is always identical in form to the third person singular.

► Chapter 20 (p. 143)
Simple tenses: imperfect subjunctive

The singular of the imperfect subjunctive, which is the same for first and third person, is formed by adding the ending -asse to the stem of -ar verbs, the ending -esse to the stem of -er verbs and the ending -isse to the stem of -ir verbs. The first person plural is formed by adding -mos to the singular form and a written accent on the first vowel of the combined ending. The third person plural is formed by adding -m to the singular form.

▶ Chapter 20 (p. 143)

Simple tenses: future subjunctive

In regular verbs, the singular form of the future subjunctive is identical to the infinitive. The first person plural is formed by adding -mos to the singular form, the third person plural by adding -em.

▶ Chapter 20 (p. 143)

Future and conditional tenses

The future and conditional tenses are formed by adding endings to the future stem, which is identical to the infinitive for all verbs except dizer ‘to say’, fazer ‘to do’ and trazer ‘to bring’, which have the future stems dir-, far- and trar- respectively. Note also that the verb pôr loses the written accent before the future or conditional endings.

NOTE

32 This also applies to compounds of these verbs, e.g. contradizer > contradir-, satisfazer > satisfar-, etc.
The future tense endings for all verbs are: -ei, -á, -emos, -ão.

Table 15.9.1 Summary of future tense endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ar verb: falar</th>
<th>-er verb: comer</th>
<th>-ir verb: decidir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu</td>
<td>falarei</td>
<td>decidirei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>você, ele, ela</td>
<td>falará</td>
<td>comerá</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós</td>
<td>falaremos</td>
<td>decidiremos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês, eles, elas</td>
<td>falarão</td>
<td>comerão</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The conditional tense endings are the same as those for the imperfect of -er and -ir verbs but are added to the future stem instead of the present stem. The endings are the same for all verbs: -ia, -ia, -íamos, -iam.

Table 15.9.2 Summary of conditional tense endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ar verb: falar</th>
<th>-er verb: comer</th>
<th>-ir verb: decidir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu, você, ele, ela</td>
<td>falaria</td>
<td>decidiria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós</td>
<td>falariamos</td>
<td>decidiramos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês, eles, elas</td>
<td>falariam</td>
<td>decidiram</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a simple pluperfect tense that is nowadays only found in very formal written or literary style. The third person plural form of this tense is identical to that of the preterite, and the singular form, which is the same for first and third persons, is derived by removing the final -m from the third person plural form. The first person plural is formed by replacing -m with -mos and adding a written accent to the first vowel of the ending.

Table 15.10.1 Summary of simple pluperfect endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ar verb: falar</th>
<th>-er verb: comer</th>
<th>-ir verb: decidir</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu, você, ele, ela</td>
<td>falara</td>
<td>decidira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós</td>
<td>faláramos</td>
<td>decidiramos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês, eles, elas</td>
<td>falaram</td>
<td>decidiram</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the present indicative and subjunctive of regular verbs, the last vowel of the stem is stressed in the first and third person singular and the third person plural. In the first person plural the stress shifts to the first vowel of the ending:

Pres. indic. realizo, realiza, realizamos, realizam
Pres. subj. realize, realizemos, realizem.

In all other tenses, the stress falls on the first syllable of the ending.
Spelling conventions governing regular verbs

The following spelling rules are applied in the conjugation of regular verbs:

(i) Verbs ending in -car: -c- becomes -qu- before -e (i.e. first person singular preterite and all present subjunctive forms) to preserve the hard c sound, e.g. ficar > fiquei, fique.

(ii) Verbs ending in -çar: -ç- becomes -c- before -e (i.e. first person singular preterite and all present subjunctive forms) as the cedilla is not required to soften the pronunciation of ç before e, e.g. abraçar > abracei, abrace.

(iii) Verbs ending in -gar: -g- becomes -gu- before -e (i.e. first person singular preterite and all present subjunctive forms) to preserve the hard g sound, e.g. pagar > paguei, pague.

(iv) Verbs ending in -cer: -c- becomes -ç- before -o or -a (i.e. first person singular present indicative and all present subjunctive forms) to preserve the soft ç sound, e.g. descer > desço, desça.

(v) Verbs ending in -ger and -gir: -g- becomes -j- before -o or -a (i.e. first person singular present indicative and all present subjunctive forms) to preserve the soft g sound, e.g. dirigir > dirijo, dirija.

(vi) Verbs ending in -guer and -guir: -g- becomes -g- before -o or -a (i.e. first person singular present and all present subjunctive forms) as the letter -u- is not required before -o and -a to preserve the hard g sound, e.g. distinguir > distingo, distingua.

(vii) Verbs ending in -ear: -e- becomes -ei- when stressed (i.e. the first and third persons singular and third person plural, present indicative and subjunctive), e.g. passear > passeio, passeia, passeiam; passeie, passeiem (cf. passeamos, passememos, passeei, etc. where the -e- of the stem is not stressed).

The following rules apply for the use of the written accent in certain regular verbs:

(i) In the verbs saudar and reunir, the letter u is accented in those forms that have stem stress (i.e. the first and third persons singular and third person plural, present indicative and subjunctive) to indicate that the two vowels are to be pronounced separately with the stress on u, e.g. saudar > saúdo, saúda; reunir > reúno, reúne.

(ii) In the verbs arruinar, proibir and coibir, the letter i is accented in those forms that have stem stress (i.e. the first and third persons singular and third person plural, present indicative and subjunctive) to indicate that the two vowels are to be pronounced separately with the stress on i, e.g. arruinar > arruíno, arruínam; proibir > proíbo, proibem.

(iii) In the verbs aguar, desaguar and enxaguar, the letter a is accented in those forms that have stem stress (i.e. the first and third persons singular and third person plural, present indicative and subjunctive) to indicate that the stress falls on a and not u, even though u is pronounced in all forms, e.g. enxaguar > enxágua, enxágue /eʃ’agwi/.

(iv) The verbs mobiliar and resfolegar are unusual in that the second from last syllable is stressed in those forms that have stem stress (i.e. the first and third persons singular and third person plural, present indicative and subjunctive) and therefore these forms must be written with an accent: mobiliar > móbilio, móbilam; resfolegar > resfólego, resfólegam.
Verbs ending in -air and -uir follow similar rules regarding spelling and accentuation. The forms are as follows (accented forms underlined):

- **Infinitive**: sair, atribuir
- **Pres. indic.**: saio, sai, saímos, saem; atribuo, atribui, atribuímos, atribuem
- **Pres. subj.**: saia, saïamos, saiam; atribua, atribuamos, atribuam
- **Imperf. indic.**: saía, saíamos, saíam; atribuía, atribuíamos, atribuíam
- **Imperf. subj.**: saísse; atribuísse, etc. (all forms accented)
- **Preterite**: saí, saiu, saímos, saíram; atribuí, atribuiu, atribuímos, atribuíram
- **Pluperf.**: saíra; atribuíra, etc. (all forms accented)
- **Future subj.**: sair, saírmos, saírem; atribuir, atribuírmos, atribuírem
- **Past participle**: saído; atribuído.

Verbs ending in -struir follow the rules for those ending in -uir (see 15.12.3) but the verbs construir and destruir have a much more frequently used alternative form of the third person singular present indicative ending in -ói: e.g. construir > constrói ‘(he) builds’; destruir > destrói ‘(he) destroys’.

Verbs ending in -oer (e.g. doer, roer) have a written accent on the third person singular present indicative that ends in -i (dói, rói), all forms of the imperfect indicative (roía, roíamos, roiam), the first person singular of the preterite (roí) and the past participle (doído, roído).
Semi-irregular and irregular verbs

16.1 Radical-changing verbs

Some groups of verbs of the -ir conjugation exhibit a phonetic alternation that is reflected in the spelling of certain forms.33

NOTE
33 A similar phonetic alternation is found in -ar and -er verbs that have -e- or -o- in the stem, but the spelling is not affected. In -er verbs, the stressed vowel is pronounced as /e/ or /o/ in the first person singular of the present indicative and all forms of the present subjunctive, and as /ɛ/ or /ɔ/ in the third persons singular and plural of the present indicative, e.g. dever > eu devo /dɛvu/ > ele deve /dɛvi/ > eles devem /dɛvɛm/. In -ar verbs, the open sound occurs in all stressed positions, e.g. tocar > eu toco /tɔku/ > ele toca /tɔka/ > eles tocam /tɔkæm/. This alternation does not occur before the nasal letters m, n and nh, and in the case of -ar verbs, not with e before ch, j, lh and x or with o in verbs ending -oar. In all such cases, the vowels e and o have their closed pronunciations /e/ and /o/ in all forms, as they do in unstressed position in all verbs (e.g. in the first person plural). There are exceptions and variations to these basic rules, but the use of the incorrect vowel quality is unlikely to lead to misunderstanding.

Verbs with -e- in the stem: -e- changes to -i- in the first person singular present indicative and all forms of the present subjunctive (i.e. when stressed before -o or -a in the next syllable), e.g. mentir ‘to lie’ (irregular forms underlined):

Pres. indic. minto, mente, mentimos, mentem
Pres. subj. minta, mintamos, mintam.
(All other forms are regular.)

Similarly:
aderir ‘to adhere’, advertir ‘to warn’, convergir ‘to converge’, differir ‘to differ’,
digerir ‘to digest’, divergir ‘to diverge’, divertir ‘to amuse’, ferir ‘to wound, injure’, preferir ‘to prefer’, reflectir ‘to reflect’, referir ‘to refer’, repelir ‘to repel’, repetir ‘to repeat’, seguir ‘to follow’, sentir ‘to feel’, servir ‘to serve’, sugerir ‘to suggest’, vestir ‘to dress’ and compounds of these verbs, e.g. conseguir ‘to get, manage, succeed’, pressentir ‘to sense, anticipate’, etc.

Verbs with -o- in the stem: -o- changes to -u- in the first person singular present indicative and all forms of the present subjunctive (i.e. when stressed before -o or -a in the next syllable), e.g. dormir ‘to sleep’ (irregular forms underlined):
Semi-irregular verbs

Pres. indic.  durmo, dorme, dormimos, dormem
Pres. subj.  durma, durmamos, durmam.
(All other forms are regular.)

Similarly:

cobrir ‘to cover’, descobrir ‘to discover’, encobrir ‘to cover up’, engolir ‘to swallow’, tossir ‘to cough’.

Verbs with -u- in the stem: -u- changes to -o- in the third persons singular and plural of the present indicative (i.e. when stressed before -e in the next syllable), e.g. subir ‘to go up’ (irregular forms underlined):

Pres. indic.  subo, sobe, subimos, sobem.
(All other forms are regular.)

Similarly:

consumir ‘to consume’, cuspir ‘to spit’, fugir ‘to escape’, sacudir ‘to shake’, sumir ‘to disappear’.

A group of verbs with -e- in the stem change -e- to -i- in all stressed positions and, by analogy, also in the first person plural of the present subjunctive, e.g. agredir ‘to attack’ (irregular forms underlined):

Pres. indic.  agrido, agride, agredimos, agridem
Pres. subj.  agrida, agridamos, agridam.
(All other forms are regular.)

Similarly:

cerzir ‘to darn’, denegrir ‘to denegrate’, prevenir ‘to prevent; to warn’, progredir ‘to progress’, regredir ‘to regress’, transgredir ‘to transgress’.

The verb polir ‘to polish’ changes -o- to -u- in all stressed positions and, by analogy, also in the first person plural of the present subjunctive (irregular forms underlined):

Pres. indic.  pulo, pule, polimos, pulem
Pres. subj.  pula, pulamos, pulam.
(All other forms are regular.)

Semi-irregular verbs

Semi-irregular verbs are those that show irregularities in certain forms but are basically regular.

16.2.1 Verbs ending in -duzir and reluzir ‘to sparkle’: these verbs are irregular only in the third person singular of the present indicative, which ends in -z, e.g. produzir > produz ‘(he) produces’, reluzir > reluz ‘(it) sparkles’.

16.2.2 Five verbs ending in -iar that change -i- to -ei- in stressed position, e.g. odiar ‘to hate’ (irregular forms underlined):

Pres. indic.  odeio, odeia, odiamos, odeiam
Pres. subj.  odeie, odiemos, odeiem.
(All other forms follow regular -ar conjugation.)
Similarly:

ansiar ‘to long for’, incendiari ‘to set alight’, mediari ‘to mediate’, remediar ‘to remedy’. All other verbs ending in -iar are regular.

The verbs crer ‘to believe’, ler ‘to read’ and their compounds are irregular only in the present indicative and subjunctive (irregular forms underlined):

Pres. indic. leio, le, lemos, leem
Pres. subj. leia, leiamos, leam
(All other forms follow regular -er conjugation.)

The verbs rir ‘to laugh’ and sorri ‘to smile’ are irregular only in the present indicative and subjunctive (irregular forms underlined):

Pres. indic. rio, ri, rimos, riem
Pres. subj. ria, riamos, riam
(All other forms follow regular -ir conjugation.)

The following verbs are irregular only in the first person singular of the present indicative and all forms of the present subjunctive (irregular forms underlined):

(i) medir ‘to measure’, pedir ‘to ask’ and their compounds:

Pres. indic. peço, pede, pedimos, pedem
Pres. subj. peça, peçamos, peçam;

(ii) ouvir ‘to hear’:

Pres. indic. ouço, ouve, ouvimos, ouvem
Pres. subj. ouça, ouçamos, ouçam;

(iii) perder ‘to lose’:

Pres. indic. perco, perde, perdemos, perdem
Pres. subj. perca, percamos, percam;

(iv) valer ‘to be worth’:

Pres. indic. valho, vale, valemos, valem
Pres. subj. valha, valhamos, valham.

Irregular verbs

Some tips on memorizing irregular verb forms

(i) The forms of irregular verbs you need to memorize are those of the present indicative, the preterite and, in a few cases, the imperfect.

(ii) The only verbs with an irregular imperfect are: pôr ‘to put’, ser ‘to be’, ter ‘to have’ and vir ‘to come’, and their compounds.

(iii) The present subjunctive forms of irregular verbs can nearly always be derived from the first person singular present indicative by changing the final -o to -a. For example, ter ‘to have’ > tenho ‘I have’ > pres. subj.: tenha, tenhamos, tenham. The only exceptions to this rule are the verbs dar ‘to give’, estar ‘to be’, haver ‘to have’, ir ‘to go’, saber ‘to know’ and ser ‘to be’.
The imperfect and future subjunctive forms of all irregular verbs can be derived from the third person plural of the preterite, e.g. ter ‘to have’ > tiveram ‘they had’ > imperf. subj.: tivesse, tivéssemos, tivessem; future subj.: tiver, tivermos, tiverem. Note that the first person plural of the imperfect subjunctive of irregular verbs has an acute accent reflecting the open [e] sound (except ir/ser – see 16.3.8).

The simple pluperfect is also derived from the third person plural of the preterite, e.g. ter ‘to have’ > tiveram ‘they had’ > tivera, tivéramos, tiveram. Note that the first person plural of the simple pluperfect of irregular verbs has an acute accent reflecting the open [e] sound (except ir/ser – see 16.3.8).

caber ‘to fit, befit’, saber ‘to know’
Apart from the first person singular of the present indicative, these two verbs follow the same pattern (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>caibo, cabo, cabemos, cabem</th>
<th>caiba, caibamos, caibam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>coube, coube, coubemos, couberam</td>
<td>coubesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>couber, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>sei, sabe, sabemos, sabem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>saiba, saibamos, saibam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>soube, soube, soubemos, souberam</td>
<td>soubesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>souber, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>soubera, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(All other tenses follow regular -er conjugation.)

dizer ‘to say’, trazer ‘to bring’
These two verbs follow the same pattern in the present tense, diverging in the preterite. Note that both verbs have irregular future stems (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>digo, diz, dizemos, dizem</th>
<th>diga, digamos, digam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>disse, disse, dissemos, disseram</td>
<td>dissesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>disser, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>disseira, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future indic.</td>
<td>direi, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>diria, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>trago, traz, trazemos, trazem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>traga, tragamos, tragam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>trouxe, trouxe, trouxemos, trouxeram</td>
<td>trouxesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>trouxer, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>trouxera, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future indic.</td>
<td>trarei, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>traria, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Remaining forms follow regular -er conjugation.)

NOTE
34 The letter x in these forms is pronounced [s].
fazer ‘to do, make’

This verb has distinct first and third person singular forms in the preterite. Note that this verb also has an irregular future stem (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>façar, faz, fazemos, fazem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>faça, façamos, façam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>fiz, fez, fizemos, fizeram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>fizesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>fizer, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>fizer, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future indic.</td>
<td>farei, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional</td>
<td>faria, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Remaining forms follow regular -er conjugation.)

ter ‘to have’, vir ‘to come’

These two verbs follow the same pattern in the present and imperfect except in the first person plural present indicative. The preterite of both verbs has distinct first and third person singular forms (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>tenho, tem, temos, têm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>tenha, tenhamos, tenham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf.</td>
<td>tinha, tínhamos, tinham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>tive, teve, tivemos, tiveram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>tivesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>tiver, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>tiver, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>venho, vem, vimos, vêm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>venha, venhamos, venham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf.</td>
<td>vinha, vinhamos, vinham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>vim, veio, viemos, vieram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>viesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>vier, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>viera, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third person singular present indicative of compounds of ter and vir is spelt with an acute accent, e.g. deter ‘to detain’ > ele detém ‘he detains’; convir ‘to suit’ > convém ‘it suits’.

ver ‘to see’

The forms of this verb should not be confused with those of vir (see 16.3.5) (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>vejo, vê, vemos, veem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>veja, vejamos, vejam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>via, viamos, viam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>vi, viu, vimos, viram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>visse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>vir, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>vira, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irregular verbs

16.3.7 pôr ‘to put’

The imperfect stem of this verb is irregular and the preterite has distinct first and third person singular forms (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>ponho, põe, pomos, põem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>ponha, ponhamos, ponham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>punha, púnhamos, punham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>pus, pôs, pusemos, puseram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>pusesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>puser, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>pusera, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The infinitive of compounds of pôr is spelt without the circumflex accent. However, the accent is used in the third person singular of the preterite, e.g. compor ‘to compose’ > ele compôs ‘he composed’; opor-se ‘to oppose’ > ele se opôs ‘he opposed’.

16.3.8 ir ‘to go’, ser ‘to be’

These two verbs share common forms in the preterite and derived tenses. Both verbs have an irregular present subjunctive and ser an irregular imperfect indicative (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>vou, vai, vamos, vão</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>vá, vamos, vão</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>ia, íamos, iam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>foi, fomos, foram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>fosse, fôssemos, fossem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>for, formas, forem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>fora, fôramos, foram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>sou, é, somos, são</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>seja, sejamos, sejam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>era, éramos, eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>foi, fomos, foram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>fosse, fôssemos, fossem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>for, formas, forem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>fora, fôramos, foram</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16.3.9 haver ‘to have’

The imperfect indicative of this verb is regular (irregular forms underlined):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. indic.</td>
<td>hei, há, hemos, hão</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
<td>haja, hajamos, hajam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preterite</td>
<td>houve, houvemos, houveram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. subj.</td>
<td>houvesse, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future subj.</td>
<td>houver, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple pluperf.</td>
<td>houvera, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16.3.10 *dar* ‘to give’

The imperfect indicative of this verb is regular (irregular forms underlined):

- **Pres. indic.** dou, dá, damos, dão
- **Pres. subj.** dé, demos, deem
- **Imperfect** dava, etc.
- **Preterite** dei, deu, demos, deram
- **Imperf. subj.** desse, dêssemos, dessem
- **Future subj.** der, dermos, derem
- **Simple pluperf.** dera, etc.

16.3.11 *estar* ‘to be’

The present indicative and subjunctive of this verb are irregular. The imperfect indicative is regular. The preterite and derived forms are similar to those of the verb *ter* (see 16.3.5) (irregular forms underlined):

- **Pres. indic.** estou, está, estamos, estão
- **Pres. subj.** esteja, estejamos, estejam
- **Imperfect** estava, etc.
- **Preterite** estive, esteve, estivemos, estiveram
- **Imperf. subj.** estivesse, etc.
- **Future subj.** estiver, etc.
- **Simple pluperf.** estivera, etc.

In the colloquial spoken language, the *es*-part of this verb is hardly ever pronounced (e.g. the present indicative forms are pronounced /tou/, /tal/, /tamos/, /tão/). This means that the preterite and derived forms sound exactly the same as those of the verb *ter*. The forms without *es*- are never used in writing except to quote speech, although the form *tá* is sometimes seen with its idiomatic meaning of ‘OK’.

16.3.12 *poder* ‘to be able’

The imperfect indicative of this verb is regular. Note that the third person singular of the preterite is differentiated from that of the present indicative with a cirumflex accent (irregular forms underlined):

- **Pres. indic.** posso, pode, podemos, podem
- **Pres. subj.** possa, possamos, possam
- **Preterite** pude, pôde, pudemos, puderam
- **Imperf. subj.** pudesse, etc.
- **Future subj.** puder, etc.
- **Simple pluperf.** puderá, etc.

16.3.13 *querer* ‘to want’

The imperfect indicative of this verb is regular (irregular forms underlined):

- **Pres. indic.** quero, quer, queremos, querem
- **Pres. subj.** queira, queiramos, queiram
- **Preterite** quis, quis, quisemos, quiseram
- **Imperf. subj.** quisesse, etc.
- **Future subj.** quisêr, etc.
- **Simple pluperf.** quisera, etc.

The verb *requerer* ‘to require; to claim’ follows the same pattern except for the first person singular of the present indicative, which is *requeiro*. 
Gerunds, past participles, compound tenses and the passive

17.1 Gerunds

17.1.1 Formation of the gerund

The gerund of all verbs is formed by replacing the final r of the infinitive with -ndo:

- falar ‘to speak’ > falando ‘speaking’
- fazer ‘to do’ > fazendo ‘doing’
- ir ‘to go’ > indo ‘going’
- pôr ‘to put’ > pondo ‘putting’ (written accent dropped).

17.1.2 Use of the gerund

The gerund is used in combination with a number of auxiliary verbs (see Chapter 24). Notably, it is used with the present and imperfect tenses of the verb estar to form the continuous present and past tenses:

- Estou esperando a resposta dela.
  I’m waiting for her answer.

- Ele estava assistindo televisão quando eu cheguei.
  He was watching television when I arrived.

The gerund can also be used adverbially to describe an action that is concurrent with that of the main verb, or with the meaning of ‘by . . . ing’:

- Ela passou o fim de semana inteiro pintando a casa.
  She spent the whole weekend painting the house.

- Conseguimos voltar para casa pedindo carona com um caminhoneiro.
  We managed to get back home by hitching a ride with a truck driver.
17.2 Past participles

17.2.1 Regular past participles

With the vast majority of verbs, the past participle is formed regularly, by replacing the final -ar of the infinitive with -ado, and -er and -ir with -ido:

- falar ‘to speak’ > falado ‘spoken’
- comer ‘to eat’ > comido ‘eaten’
- decidir ‘to decide’ > decidido ‘decided’.

17.2.2 Irregular past participles

The following verbs have irregular past participles:

- abrir ‘to open’ > aberto ‘opened’
- cobrir ‘to cover’ > coberto ‘covered’
- dizer ‘to say’ > dito ‘said’
- escrever ‘to write’ > escrito ‘written’
- fazer ‘to do’ > feito ‘done’
- pôr ‘to put’ > posto ‘put’
- ver ‘to see’ > visto ‘seen’
- vir ‘to come’ > vindo35 ‘come’.

Note particularly that compounds of these verbs also form irregular participles, e.g. 
- entreabrir ‘to half-open’ > entreaberto;
- descobrir ‘to discover’ > descoberto;
- contradizer ‘to contradict’ > contradito;
- descrever ‘to describe’ > descrito;
- satisfazer ‘to satisfy’ > satisfeito;
- impor ‘to impose’ > imposto;
- prever ‘to foresee, predict’ > previsto;
- provir ‘to originate’ > provindo.

35 In the case of the verb vir ‘to come’, the gerund and past participle are identical.

17.2.3 Verbs with both a regular and an irregular past participle

The following verbs have both a regular and an irregular past participle:

- aceitar ‘to accept’ > aceitado, aceito
- acender ‘to light, turn on’ > acendido, aceso
- dispersar ‘to disperse’ > dispersado, disperso
- elegir ‘to elect’ > elegido, eleito
- entregar ‘to hand over, deliver’ > entregado, entregue
- expressar ‘to express’ > expressado, expresso
- exprimir ‘to express’ > exprimido, expresso
- expulsar ‘to throw out, expel’ > expulsado, expulso
- extinguir ‘to extinguish’ > extinguido, extinto
Compound tenses

fritar ‘to fry’ > fritado, frito
ganhar ‘to win, earn’ > ganhado, ganho
gastar ‘to spend, wear out’ > gastado, gasto
imer gir ‘to immerse’ > imergido, imerso
limpar ‘to clean’ > limgado, limpo
matar ‘to kill’ > matado, morto
pagar ‘to pay’ > pagado, pago
pegar ‘to get’ > pegado, pego
prender ‘to fix’, ‘to arrest’ > prendido, preso
salvar ‘to save’ > salvado, salvo
soltar ‘to release’ > soltado, solto
submergir ‘to submerge’ > submergido, submerso
suprimir ‘to do away with’ > suprimido, supresso
suspendir ‘to suspend’ > suspendido, suspenso.

The basic rule is that the longer, regular form is used with the auxiliaries ter and haver ‘to have’ to form the perfect tenses (see 17.3), while the shorter, irregular form is used adjectivally and with the auxiliaries ser, estar and ficar ‘to be’ to form passive expressions (see 17.4):

Ela tinha acendido as luzes. / As luzes estavam acesas.  
She had turned the lights on. / The lights were on.

Ele tinha morrido um ano antes. / Ele foi morto por uma bala perdida.  
He had died a year earlier. / He was killed by a stray bullet.

However, actual usage is not so clear-cut. Thus, the short forms aceito, eleito, entregue, expulso, extinto, ganho, gasto, impresso, pago, pego, salvo and suspenso are very frequently used instead of the longer forms after ter and haver. As these short forms are irregular, they can sound rather learned when used in the perfect tenses; the tendency in colloquial speech is to use the regular participle by analogy with all other verbs.

The verbs supreender and incluir also have irregular past participles (surpreso, incluso) in addition to the regular ones (surpreendido, incluido), but the irregular forms are not normally used after ser, occurring only after estar/ficar and as adjectives.

17.3 Compound tenses

The compound tenses are formed with the auxiliary verbs ter and haver ‘to have’ and the past participle. Note that, in the active compound tenses described in Sections 17.3.1–3, the past participle is always invariable.

17.3.1 The perfect tense

The perfect tense is formed by combining the present tense of the verb ter ‘to have’ with the past participle. Note that the meaning of this tense is equivalent to the English perfect continuous ‘have been doing’ and not to the perfect simple ‘have done’ (see Chapter 18):
Tenho lido muito ultimamente.
I’ve been reading a lot lately.

Tem sido difícil dormir com esse calor.
It’s been difficult sleeping with this heat.

The pluperfect tense

The pluperfect tense is formed by combining the imperfect tense of the verbs ter or haver ‘to have’ with the past participle. The auxiliary ter is much more commonly used and is the only auxiliary used in the spoken language. The auxiliary haver is found in more formal or literary written language:

Eu tinha esquecido que hoje era o seu aniversário.
I’d forgotten that today was your birthday.

Até ontem, só 4% dos contribuintes haviam entregue a declaração.
By yesterday, only 4 per cent of taxpayers had submitted their returns.

Other perfect tenses

The auxiliary ter can also be used in other tenses and moods to form compound tenses (see Chapters 18 and 20):

ele terá terminado
he will have finished (future perfect)

da teria vindo
she would have come (conditional perfect)

Espero que tenham gostado.
I hope they liked it (perfect subjunctive)

se isso não tivesse acontecido
if this had not happened (pluperfect subjunctive)

se tivermos terminado até lá
if we’ve finished by then (future perfect subjunctive)

Você poderia ter ligado.
You could have called. (perfect infinitive)

The passive

The passive is formed in exactly the same way as in English, i.e. by combining the relevant person and tense of the verb ser ‘to be’ with the past participle. Note that, in all passive constructions, the past participle must agree in gender and number with the subject of the verb:

Amostras de sangue são colhidas do cordão umbilical.
Blood samples are collected from the umbilical cord.

As garrafas serão recicladas.
The bottles will be recycled.
The passive

Ela era admirada pelas outras alunas.
She was admired by the other students.

O dicionário está sendo atualizado.
The dictionary is being updated.

Os mortos já haviam sido enterrados.
The dead had already been buried.

Ser valorizado é importante.
It’s important to be appreciated.

The verb *ficar* ‘to be, become’ may also be used as a passive auxiliary with verbs denoting an involuntary result:

Cinco pessoas ficaram feridas.
Five people were injured.

Tenho medo de ficar preso no elevador.
I’m scared of getting stuck in the lift.

The past participle can also be combined with the verb *estar* ‘to be’ to describe a resultant state:

A lista está ordenada alfabeticamente.
The list is ordered alphabetically.

As roupas estavam expostas na vitrine.
The clothes were displayed in the shop window.

A past participle can also function as an adjective accompanying a noun:

um relógio quebrado
a broken watch
casas alugadas
rented houses.
Use of the tenses

This chapter presents the various tenses of the indicative, examining their usage and equivalences in English. The various tenses of the subjunctive are dealt with in Chapter 20.

18.1 Present simple

The present simple largely corresponds to the present simple in English:

- *Onde é que você mora?*  
  Where do you live?

- *Ela trabalha como professora.*  
  She works as a teacher.

The present simple is also used to describe an action that began in the past and continues in the present. English uses the present perfect tense in such cases:

- *Moramos aqui há três anos.*  
  We’ve lived here for three years.

- *Faz quanto tempo que você estuda português?*  
  How long have you been studying Portuguese?

18.2 Present continuous

The use of the present continuous broadly corresponds to that in English:

- *Estou procurando emprego no momento.*  
  I’m looking for a job at the moment.

The present continuous may also describe an action that started in the past and continues in the present, in which case it corresponds to the English present perfect continuous:

- *Estou te esperando já há meia hora.*  
  I’ve been waiting for you for half an hour already.
The imperfect tense is used to describe habitual or repeated action in the past – actions that took place an indefinite number of times. In this usage, it corresponds to the English simple past or expressions with ‘used to’:

Ele falava japonês com os avós.
He used to speak Japanese to his grandparents.

Naquela época, comíamos pouca carne.
At that time, we didn’t eat much meat.

The imperfect tense is also used to ‘set the scene’ by describing the background to events in the past:

Era pleno verão e fazia um calor insuportável.
It was the middle of summer and it was unbearably hot.

Ela era uma menina alta e magra.
She was a tall, thin girl.

The imperfect tense can also correspond to the English past continuous ‘was/were doing’, especially in the written language, where it is preferred to the imperfect continuous tense (see 18.4):

Eles jantavam quando a polícia chegou.
They were having dinner when the police arrived.

The imperfect is also used to describe an action that started at an earlier time in the past and is continuing at the point in the past being discussed; in English, the pluperfect or pluperfect continuous is used in such cases:

A criança não falava desde a morte da mãe.
The child had not spoken since the death of its mother.

The imperfect is very frequently used, especially in the spoken language, to replace the conditional tense (see 18.10):

Ele disse que vinha à uma.
He said he would come at one.

Se fosse você, eu deixava assim.
If I was you, I’d leave it like that.
Imperfect continuous

The imperfect continuous broadly corresponds to the past continuous in English:

\[ \text{O que é que você estava fazendo no meu quarto?} \]
\[ \text{What were you doing in my room?} \]

Preterite

The preterite is used to describe one-off actions in the past, and actions that were repeated a finite number of times or which lasted a certain period of time but came to an end. In this usage, it corresponds to the English simple past:

\[ \text{O Paulo caiu da escada e quebrou a perna.} \]
\[ \text{Paulo fell down the stairs and broke his leg.} \]

\[ \text{Fui ao supermercado três vezes num dia.} \]
\[ \text{I went to the supermarket three times in one day.} \]

\[ \text{Eles moraram vinte anos nos Estados Unidos.} \]
\[ \text{They lived for twenty years in the US.} \]

The preterite also corresponds to the English present perfect tense. The present perfect meaning is often indicated by the use of the adverb já ‘already, yet’:

\[ \text{Você já almoçou?} \]
\[ \text{Have you had lunch (yet)?} \]

\[ \text{Ele sempre quis ser ator.} \]
\[ \text{He’s always wanted to be an actor.} \]

The preterite is used in Portuguese to describe your first impression of something, where in English the present tense would be used:

\[ \text{O que é que você achou desse sorvete? Gostou?} \]
\[ \text{What do you think of this ice cream? Do you like it?} \]

\[ \text{Você ficou linda nesse vestido!} \]
\[ \text{You look lovely in that dress!} \]

The preterite has some idiomatic uses frequently seen in advertising slogans:

\[ \text{Terminou de comer, lave o prato.} \]
\[ \text{Once you’ve finished eating, wash your plate.} \]

\[ \text{Sedex: mandou, chegou.} \]
\[ \text{Sedex: send it and it’s there. (slogan for express delivery service)} \]

\[ \text{Procure a tampa premiada: achou, ganhou!} \]
\[ \text{Look for the prize-winning cap: find it and win!} \]
Perfect

The perfect tense corresponds in meaning to the English perfect continuous tense and is not very frequently used:

Ele tem malhado muito nos últimos meses.
He’s been working out a lot in recent months.

Em média, 150 ocorrências por mês têm sido registradas este ano.
On average, 150 incidents a month have been recorded this year.

Note that, if the sentence gives an indication of how long or since when something has been going on, Portuguese uses the present tense rather than the perfect (see 18.1.2):

Ele malha muito desde que foi escalado para o papel de Tarzan.
He’s been working out a lot since being selected for the role of Tarzan.

Pluperfect

The pluperfect corresponds to the English pluperfect ‘had done’:

Ele tinha avisado que ia chegar tarde.
He had warned that he would arrive late.

It is safe to say that the pluperfect is less commonly used than in English, especially in reported speech, where the preterite is often used instead:

A companhia aérea informou que o voo foi cancelado.
The airline announced that the flight had been cancelled.

Note that, if the sentence gives an indication of how long or since when something had been going on, Portuguese uses the imperfect tense rather than the pluperfect (see 18.3.4):

O Sérgio trabalhava na empresa desde 1989.
Sergio had been working for the company since 1989.

Future tense

The inflected future tense is hardly ever used in the spoken language and is felt to be quite formal, even in writing, although it is much used in news reporting.\(^{37}\)

Os relógios serão atrasados à meia-noite de sábado para domingo.
The clocks will be put back at midnight on Saturday.

NOTE

\(^{37}\) A recent development, much used in customer relations, is the future continuous formed with the future tense of estar and the gerund, e.g. Estaremos lhe enviando um e-mail com os dados para pagamento. ‘We will be sending you an e-mail with the details for payment.’ This is thought to be a direct translation from English and its use is condemned by many commentators.
Amanhã, ele prestará depoimento ao procurador da República.
Tomorrow, he will make a statement to the federal prosecutor.

The future tense is expressed in speech and informal writing using the present tense of the verb *ir* ‘to go’ followed by the infinitive. This corresponds not only to ‘going to do’ in English, but also to ‘will do’ and ‘am/are/is doing’ when referring to the future:

**Vou precisar da sua ajuda.**
I’ll need your help. / I’m going to need your help.

**Ela vai viajar na segunda.**
She’s going away on Monday.

The present simple tense may also be used with future reference, especially in spontaneous statements about the future:

**De repente a gente se vê mais tarde. Te ligo.** *(spoken)*
Maybe we’ll see each other later. I’ll call you.

Future perfect
This is mostly found in the written language:

**Se o governo ceder, os terroristas terão alcançado seu objetivo.**
If the government gives in, the terrorists will have achieved their objective.

Conditional
The conditional corresponds to the English ‘would do’:

**Se todos colaborassem, o problema seria resolvido.**
If everyone did their bit, the problem would be solved.

Conditional verb forms have a ponderous and formal ring to them, which means that they are rarely used in the spoken language. In speech, the conditional is usually replaced by the imperfect:

**Ele falou que me ligava hoje.** *(spoken)*
He said he’d call me today.

**Você podia ir de trem.** *(spoken)*
You could go by train.
Another way of avoiding the conditional, also in writing, is to use the imperfect of the verb *ir* followed by the infinitive:

\[98x622]Ela disse que ia me ajudar com os preparativos.\\] She said she’d help me with the preparations.

\textbf{Note} 70.4.1 (p. 445)

In the written language it is not uncommon to find the conditional of the verb *ir* followed by the infinitive, e.g. \textit{Disseram que, se nós não pagássemos, a luz e a água iriam ser cortadas.} ‘They said that, if we didn’t pay, the power and water would be cut off.’

There is a special use of the conditional, much used in news reporting, which implies that the action is alleged to be the case, but is uncorroborated:

\begin{quote}
\textit{A casa abrigaria um bingo ilegal.}\\The house is allegedly home to an illegal bingo parlour.\\
\textit{O senador teria várias contas no exterior.}\\The senator is alleged to have several accounts abroad.
\end{quote}

\textbf{Conditional perfect}

The conditional perfect is mostly used in the written language:

\begin{quote}
\textit{Se não fosse a presença de espírito da babá, o bebê teria morrido.}\\If it hadn’t been for the nanny’s quick thinking, the baby would have died.
\end{quote}

In speech and less formal writing, the conditional is usually replaced by the pluperfect:

\begin{quote}
\textit{Se não fosse a babá, o bebê tinha morrido.} (spoken)\\If it hadn’t been for the nanny, the baby would have died.
\end{quote}

The conditional perfect is very commonly used in news reporting, to imply that something is alleged to have happened but is uncorroborated:

\begin{quote}
\textit{Segundo o delegado, Silva teria confessado o crime.}\\According to the police chief, Silva supposedly confessed to the crime.
\end{quote}
The infinitive

19.1 Introduction
In some of its uses, the Portuguese infinitive is equivalent to the English infinitive with or without ‘to’, as in ‘I want to go’ or ‘I must go’. However, in many other uses, it translates the English -ing form as in ‘I prefer going by train’ or ‘before going to bed’, etc.

19.1.2 Unlike many other languages, where the infinitive cannot by definition have a subject of its own that is different from that of the main verb, Portuguese has a so-called ‘personal infinitive’, which makes the infinitive an extremely versatile and much-used feature of the language.

19.2 Uses of the infinitive
The infinitive is used in the following ways:

19.2.1 As if it were a masculine noun, as the subject or object of a sentence and after prepositions (see 19.4), usually corresponding to the English -ing form:

   Viajar é cansativo.
   Travelling is tiring.

   Caminhar faz bem à saude.
   Walking is good for you.

   Prefiro ir de ônibus.
   I prefer going (or to go) by bus.

   Acenda o fósforo antes de abrir o gás.
   Light the match before turning on the gas.

19.2.2 After the auxiliary verb ir to form the future (see 18.8.2):

   Vou falar com ele amanhã.
   I’ll talk to him tomorrow.

19.2.3 After modal verbs, such as poder ‘to be able to’, dever ‘should’, ter que ‘to have to’, precisar ‘to need to, must’ (see 19.5.1):

   O presidente deve anunciar sua decisão essa semana.
   The president is expected to announce his decision this week.
Impersonal vs. personal infinitive

19.2.4 After other verbs, with or without an intervening preposition (see 19.5):

Decidimos voltar ao hotel.
We decided to go back to the hotel.

19.2.5 In impersonal expressions:

É importante lembrar que isso foi na época da hiperinflação.
It’s important to remember that this was in the time of hyperinflation.

Não adianta fugir.
There’s no point (or It’s no use) running away.

► 65.1.8 (p. 419); 65.2.8 (p. 422)

19.2.6 After interrogatives (see 11.12.6, 11.12.7):

Não sei o que fazer.
I don’t know what to do.

Como explicar isso a uma criança?
How does one explain that to a child?

19.2.7 In written instructions that are not directed at anyone in particular:

Refogar a cebola e adicionar o molho.
Brown the onions and add the sauce.

19.3 Impersonal vs. personal infinitive

19.3.1 The infinitive can be considered to be ‘personal’ when it has a subject of its own that is different from that of the main verb. Normally, this subject will be a noun or pronoun placed immediately before the infinitive:

É raro o Pedro atrasar.
It’s rare for Pedro to be late.

Ela saiu sem eu saber.
She went out without me knowing.

Eu lembro de você ter me falado.
I remember you telling me. (literally, you having told me)

19.3.2 When the subject of the personal infinitive is first or third person plural, the infinitive itself inflects, adding the ending -mos for the first person plural and -em for the third person plural.40 As these endings indicate the subject of the infinitive, an explicit pronoun subject is never obligatory, although it is usually included, especially in the spoken language:

É perigoso as crianças brincarem nos trilhos.
It’s dangerous for the children to play on the tracks.

NOTE 40 The personal infinitive forms of regular verbs are identical to those of the future subjunctive (see 15.8), but with irregular verbs the endings are the same but the stems are different, e.g. fazermos (infinitive) vs. fizermos (future subjunctive). In fact, it is not uncommon to hear native speakers incorrectly use the infinitive of irregular verbs in place of the future subjunctive.
Certain changes are necessary for us to be able to sign the contract.

You are in danger. You’d best stay here for the time being.

In most cases, the personal infinitive can be thought of as meaning ‘me going’, ‘you doing’, etc. or the more formal equivalent, ‘my going’, your doing’, etc.:

Ele ser budista não atrapalha a nossa relação.
Him being a Buddhist doesn’t get in the way of our relationship.

A sociedade os discrimina apesar de (elas) gozarem de igualdade perante a lei.
Society discriminates against them despite them (or their) enjoying equality before the law.

Use of the infinitive after prepositions

Since the personal infinitive can be used to signal a change of subject, prepositional constructions are often used where English requires a conjunction and a subordinate clause:

Ele telefonou antes de nós saíremos.
He phoned before we left.

Você faz o favor de esperar até eu terminar de falar?
Would you be so kind as to wait until I finish speaking?

Não tenho pena deles apesar de serem menores.
I don’t feel sorry for them despite the fact that they are under age.

Note that the preposition de should not be contracted with a following article or pronoun when the latter is the subject of an infinitive. Native speakers frequently disregard this rule, especially in speech:

o fato de eles não entenderem a língua (not deles)
the fact that they don’t understand the language

antes de o avião decolar (not do avião)
before the plane takes off.

Purpose is expressed with the preposition para ‘(in order) to’ before the infinitive. Again, it can also be used before a personal infinitive signalling a change of subject, equivalent to the English ‘for someone to do something’:

Ela me ligou para contar a notícia.
She called me to tell me the news.

Parei o carro para ele descer.
I stopped the car for him to get out.

The preposition por followed by the infinitive often requires the translation ‘because’ plus clause in English:

Ele não consegue emagrecer por não fazer exercício.
He doesn’t manage to lose weight because he doesn’t do any exercise.
Elas nos tratou assim por sermos estrangeiros.
She treated us like that because we’re foreigners.

► 42.2.2 (p. 306)
The following verbs are followed by the preposition de and the infinitive:

(i) acabar de ‘to have just, to finish’,
combinar de ‘to arrange to’,
encarregar-se de ‘to undertake to’,
esquecer de ‘to forget to’,
ficar de ‘to arrange/promise to’,
lembrar de ‘to remember to’,
deixar de ‘to stop, to fail to’,
parar de ‘to stop’,
terminar de ‘to finish’,
tratar de ‘to see to (it that)’:

Ficamos de sair no domingo.
We arranged to go out on Sunday.

(ii) With direct object: impedir alguém de ‘to stop/prevent someone (from)’, proibir alguém de ‘to forbid someone to’:

Ninguém vai me impedir de ver meus filhos.
No one is going to stop me seeing my children.

(iii) With indirect object: lembrar a alguém de ‘to remind someone to’:

Preciso lembrar ao Bruno de pagar a conta da luz.
I must remind Bruno to pay the electricity bill.

41 The verb continuar is more often followed by the gerund, especially in the spoken language: Ele continuou falando. ‘He went on talking.’

42 Although acabar de can be used to mean ‘to finish (doing something)’, it is more commonly used in the preterite to mean ‘have/has just’: Eles acabaram de chegar. ‘They’ve just arrived.’

43 Note the difference between lembrar de fazer ‘to remember to do’ and lembrar de ter feito ‘to remember doing’: Você lembrou de comprar leite? ‘Did you remember to buy milk?’ Não lembro de ter visto esse filme. ‘I don’t remember seeing this film.’
The following verbs are followed by the preposition em and the infinitive:

(i) contentar-se em ‘to be content to’, empenhar-se em ‘to put your mind to, strive to’, pensar em ‘to think of’:

Estou pensando em comprar um carro.
I’m thinking of buying a car.

(ii) The preposition em is also used after nouns and adjectives expressing emotion, e.g. feliz em ‘happy to’, prazer em ‘pleasure to’, triste em ‘sad to’, etc.:

Fiquei contente em saber que você está bem.
I was glad to hear that you are well.

The following verbs are followed by the preposition para and the infinitive:

(i) pedir para ‘to ask to’:

Ela pediu para sair da mesa.
She asked to leave the table.

(ii) With indirect object: pedir a alguém para ‘to ask someone to’:

Pedi às crianças para me ajudarem.
I asked the children to help me.

Cases where either the impersonal or personal infinitive may be used

After the verbs of perception ver ‘to see’, ouvir (colloquially also escutar) ‘to hear’ and sentir ‘to feel’, as well as some other verbs, such as deixar ‘to let’, fazer ‘to make’ and mandar ‘to tell, to order’, a noun object can be construed either as the object of these verbs or as the subject of a following infinitive, which means that the infinitive can be either impersonal or personal. In fact, this is only an issue when the noun object is third person plural or combined with a pronoun to make first person plural:

Ele viu os ladrões pularem (or pular) o muro.
He saw the thieves jump over the wall.

Não deixaram a mim e aos meus amigos entrarmos (or entrar).
They didn’t let me and my friends go in.

When the object of the first verb is an unstressed pronoun, the following infinitive can only be impersonal:

Ela nos mandou fechar a porta.
She told us to shut the door.
But when the pronouns eles or elas are used in noun-object position in the spoken language (see 7.3.3), they are followed by the personal infinitive:

Manda elas entrarem. *(spoken)*
Tell them to come in.

Note that ‘let me . . .’ is translated deixa eu with the personal infinitive in the spoken language, and deixe-me with the impersonal infinitive in the written language:

Deixa eu ver. *(spoken)*
Let me see.

Deixe-me explicar de outra forma. *(written)*
Let me explain in another way.

### Personal infinitive with the same subject as the main verb

There are a number of cases where the personal infinitive may optionally be used even though it has the same subject as the main verb:

(i) When the infinitive expression precedes the main verb, usually introduced by a preposition:

Sem fazermos barulho, abrimos a porta e entramos na casa.
Without making a noise, we opened the door and went into the house.

(ii) When the infinitive expression is separated from the auxiliary:

Começaram, depois de muita discussão, a derrubarem a parede.
They started, after much discussion, to knock the wall down.

The personal infinitive is obligatory when the verb is reflexive or passive, although this rule is not always observed in the spoken language:

Passaram seis meses sem se falarem.
They went for six months without speaking to each other.

Eles se disfarçaram para não serem descobertos.
They disguised themselves so as not to be discovered.

### Position of object pronouns with the infinitive

For the position of object pronouns with auxiliaries and the infinitive, see 7.5.8.

Unstressed object pronouns, including the reflexive se, have to be appended to the infinitive in the written language:

Como prevenir-se da gripe suína.
How to protect yourself from swine flu.

Ao verem-na sair, os fotógrafos se amontoaram em volta dela.
On seeing her come out, the photographers crowded around her.
Other uses of the infinitive

19.8.2 However, when the infinitive has an explicit subject or is preceded by a preposition or a negative, the unstressed pronouns me, te, se, nos and lhe are usually placed immediately before the infinitive except in the most formal written style:

- Acho difícil a polícia nos ajudar.
  I find it unlikely the police will help us.
- Pulei na água para me salvar.
  I jumped into the water to save myself.

In the spoken language, the unstressed pronouns me, te, se, nos and lhe are always placed before the infinitive:

- Foi um grande erro me meter nisso. (spoken)
  It was a big mistake getting myself involved in this.

19.8.3 Other uses of the infinitive


- Esta porta é difícil de abrir.
  This door is difficult to open.
  cf. É difícil abrir esta porta.
  It’s difficult to open this door.
- O carro é ruim de dirigir.
  The car’s no good to drive.

19.9 Other uses of the infinitive

19.9.1 The preposition por preceding an infinitive can also mean ‘to be done’:

- Ainda tem quatro páginas por traduzir.
  There are still four pages to be translated.

An infinitive may be introduced by ao (preposition a + article o), which is equivalent to the English ‘on doing, when doing’. This construction is only used in the written language, and may also sometimes be translated ‘in/by doing’:

- Ao entrarem na igreja, tiraram o chapéu.
  On entering the church, they took off their hats.
- O árbitro errou ao não expulsar o jogador.
  The referee made a mistake in not sending the player off.

The preposition a alone can introduce an infinitive with a passive meaning. The passive infinitive may also be used:

- as regras a respeitar or as regras a serem respeitadas
  the rules to be respected.

It is also found in some idiomatic phrases:

- a julgar pela reação do público
  to judge from the public reaction
três países, a saber, Inglaterra, França e Itália
three countries, namely, England, France and Italy

a seguir
as follows

Não tem nada a ver comigo.
It has nothing to do with me.

A persistirem os sintomas, o médico deverá ser consultado.45
If symptoms persist, consult your doctor. (health warning printed on over-the-counter medicines)

19.9.5

There are cases where the perfect infinitive should be used in Portuguese because the action of the infinitive precedes that of the main verb. The perfect infinitive can be used in such cases in English, but is usually replaced by the present:

Ele foi preso por ter roubado um carro.
He was arrested for stealing a car. (literally, . . . for having stolen . . .)

Apesar de ter nascido em Portugal, ela se considera brasileira.
Despite being born in Portugal, she considers herself Brazilian.

19.9.6

Very occasionally, the infinitive may be accompanied by an article:

o cantar dos pássaros
the singing of the birds

num piscar de olhos
in the blink of an eye.
The subjunctive

Introduction

The subjunctive forms of verbs could be described as expressing hypothetical actions and situations, as opposed to the real ones expressed by the indicative. But the use of the subjunctive is largely dictated by the grammatical context in which the verb occurs, and these contexts will be examined below.

There are three simple subjunctive tenses in Portuguese: present (see 15.6), imperfect (see 15.7) and future (see 15.8). Using these tenses of the auxiliary ter (see 16.3.5) and a past participle, it is also possible to form a perfect, pluperfect and future perfect subjunctive:

**Pres. subj.**
- eu fale, eu coma, eu decida, etc.

**Imperf. subj.**
- eu falasse, eu comesse, eu decidisse, etc.

**Future subj.**
- eu falar, eu comer, eu decidir, etc.

**Perfect subj.**
- eu tenha falado/comido/decidido, etc.

**Pluperf. subj.**
- eu tivesse falado/comido/decidido, etc.

**Future perfect subj.**
- eu tiver falado/comido/decidido, etc.

46 In the case of the pluperfect subjunctive, the auxiliary haver may also be used in more formal writing.

The subjunctive mainly occurs in subordinate clauses, i.e. after the conjunction que ‘that’ and some others. These are clauses that cannot stand on their own, but depend on a main clause, which is usually in the indicative. There are a few special uses of the subjunctive in main clauses, and these will be dealt with at the end of this chapter.

47 The conjunction ‘that’ is often omitted in English, but que can never be left out in Portuguese, except in a few very formal turns of phrase.

Sequence of tenses

When the subjunctive occurs in a subordinate clause, its tense is determined by the tense of the main verb (i.e. the verb in the main clause). If the main verb is present, future or perfect, the subordinate verb is usually present or future subjunctive; if the main verb is imperfect, preterite, conditional or pluperfect, the subordinate verb is usually imperfect subjunctive.

48 In fact, the ‘sequence of tense’ rules are sometimes broken, especially after impersonal expressions, e.g. É provável que conhecessem o agressor. ‘It’s probable that they knew their attacker’, and after the preterite with present reference, e.g. Fiquei contente que o senhor tenha vindo. ‘I’m glad that you came.’
This rule of ‘sequence of tenses’ applies equally to the auxiliary *ter*, the compound tenses being used if the action of the subjunctive verb occurred before that of the main verb.

The difference in usage between the present and future subjunctive will be described below.

### The present or imperfect subjunctive in subordinate clauses

The present or imperfect subjunctive (according to the sequence of tenses) is used in the following types of subordinate clauses:

#### 20.3.1

After impersonal phrases that express doubt or a value judgement, such as *é possível/ impossível que* ‘it’s possible/impossible that’, *é provável que* ‘it’s likely that’, *é importante que* ‘it’s important that’, *é bom que* ‘it’s good that’, *é uma pena que* ‘it’s a pity that’, *convém que* ‘it is appropriate that’, etc.:

> É duvidoso que a nova política resolva o problema.
> It is doubtful that the new policy will solve the problem.

> Não me importa que as pessoas não gostem de mim.
> It doesn’t matter to me that people don’t like me.

#### 20.3.2

After certain verbs, when the subject of the subordinate clause is different from that of the main clause, e.g. *aconselhar que* ‘to advise that’, *conseguir que* ‘to get (sb to do something)’, *deixar que* ‘to allow that’, *desejar que* ‘to wish that’, *detestar que* ‘to hate that’, *esperar que* ‘to hope/expect that’, *exigir que* ‘to demand that’, *gostar que* ‘to like (sb to do)’, *impedir que* ‘to prevent, stop’, *insistir que* ‘to insist that’, *odiar que* ‘to hate that’, *pedir que* (see 19.5.5) ‘to ask that’, *permitir que* ‘to allow that’, *precisar que* ‘to need (sb to do something)’, *proibir que* ‘to forbid that’, *querer que* ‘to want (sb to do something)’, *sugerir que* ‘to suggest that’, etc.:

> Eu queria que ele me acompanhasse.
> I wanted him to go with me.

> A oposição tentou impedir que o projeto de lei fosse votado.
> The opposition tried to stop the bill being put to the vote.

> Espero que você tenha se divertido.
> I hope you had a good time.

#### 20.3.3

After phrases expressing an emotional reaction to the content of the subordinate clause, including *lamentar que* ‘to regret that’, *temer que* ‘to fear that’, *ter medo de que* ‘to be afraid that’, etc.:

> Surpreendeu-a que ele pensasse assim.
> It surprised her that he should think that.

> Estamos contentes que o caso tenha sido resolvido.
> We are glad that the case has been resolved.
Ela tinha medo de que ele contasse a verdade.
She was afraid he might tell the truth.

After the verbs **duvidar** ‘to doubt’ and **negar** ‘to deny’, verbs of thinking and believing in the negative and expressions that negate such as **não é que** ‘it’s not that’, **não é porque** ‘it’s not because’ and **é falso que** ‘it is false that’, as well as to express things that turned out to be untrue:

**Duvido que ele volte tão cedo.**
I doubt he’ll be back in a hurry.

**Não acredito que ela seja capaz de fazer uma besteira dessas.**
I don’t believe she’s capable of doing something so stupid.

**Não é que eu não goste dele, é que não temos afinidade.**
It’s not that I don’t like him, it’s just that we have nothing in common.

**Pensei que ela fosse bater em mim.**
I thought she was going to hit me.

Note that the subjunctive is also used in clauses introduced by nouns derived from the adjectives and verbs mentioned above:

**a possibilidade de que o governo aumente as taxas de juros**
the possibility that the government may raise interest rates

**Ele gritava na esperança de que alguém o ouvisse.**
He was shouting in the hope that someone would hear him.

**Há receio de que as negociações acabem fracassando.**
There are fears that talks may end up breaking down.

After a relative pronoun when the relative clause describes a type of person or thing rather than someone or something specific:

**Precisamos de um recepcionista que fale inglês.**
We need a receptionist who speaks English.

**Ele procurava alguém que o ajudasse a montar um negócio.**
He was looking for someone who would help him set up a business.

After the following conjunctions: **a fim de que** ‘in order that’, **a menos que** ‘unless’, **a não ser que** ‘unless’, **ainda que** ‘even though’, **antes que** ‘before’, **caso** ‘if’, **contanto que** ‘provided (that)’, **desde que** ‘as long as, provided (that)’, **embora** ‘although’, **mesmo que** ‘even if’, **nem que** ‘even if’, **para que** ‘in order that’, **sem que** ‘without’:

**Ele prometeu ajudar os pobres caso ganhasse a eleição.**
He promised to help the poor if he won the election.

**Qualquer dia serve, desde que seja à tarde.**
Any day is fine as long as it’s in the afternoon.

**Embora o anel fosse caríssimo, ele insistiu em comprá-lo.**
Although the ring was extremely expensive, he insisted on buying it.
Não vamos conseguir fugir sem que nos vejam.
We won’t manage to escape without them seeing us.

▶ 42.5.2 (p. 310); 42.5.4, 42.5.5 (p. 311)

The conjunctions até que ‘until’ and de maneira que/de modo que ‘so that’ are followed by the subjunctive when the subordinate clause refers to an unfulfilled action: 49

Ela se posicionou de maneira que todos a vissem.
She positioned herself so that everyone would see her.

O aeroporto permanecerá fechado até que o tempo melhore.
The airport will remain closed until the weather improves.

49 The same conjunctions are followed by an indicative when the subordinate verb refers to something that is actually happening or happened, e.g. A janela bateu com força de modo que o vidro quebrou. ‘The window slammed so hard that the glass broke.’

NOTE

After adjectives and adverbs preceded by por or por mais in the sense of ‘however . . . it may be’:

Por incrível que pareça, eles sobreviveram.
Incredible as it may seem, they survived.

Por mais que tentasse, ele não conseguiu.
As hard as he tried/Try as he might, he did not succeed.

After interrogatives followed by quer que with the meaning ‘. . . ever’, e.g. o que quer que ‘whatever’, quem quer que ‘whoever’, onde quer que ‘wherever’, etc.:

Ele aceita ajuda de quem quer que seja para atingir seus objetivos.
He accepts help from whoever it may be to achieve his objectives.

Ela era assediada pelos fãs aonde quer que fosse.
She was besieged by fans wherever she went.

The future or imperfect subjunctive in subordinate clauses

The future subjunctive is used after the following conjunctions of time when the main verb of the sentence also refers to future time: assim que ‘as soon as’, depois que ‘after’, enquanto ‘while, as long as’, logo que ‘as soon as’, quando ‘when’, sempre que ‘whenever’:

Vamos sair assim que a novela terminar.
Let’s go out as soon as the soap ends.

Não vou dormir enquanto ela não chegar em casa.
I’m not going to bed until she gets home.

Mande notícias quando você tiver tempo.
Send news when you have time.

The future subjunctive is also used in relative clauses that refer to a possible event at some undefined time in the future:

Qualquer coisa que você precisar, é só pedir.
(If there’s) anything you need, you only have to ask.
You can eat as much as you want.

We’d best take the first bus that comes along.

Ele disse que ia ligar assim que chegasse.
He said he would call as soon as he arrived.

We decided to take the first bus that came along.

50 At the time described in this sentence, a bus has not yet come along and it is still uncertain how things will develop. Using the preterite indicative in the relative clause (. . . o primeiro ônibus que apareceu) would mean that a bus actually came and the speaker took it.

The future subjunctive is used after the conjunction se ‘if’ when the main clause refers to future time:

Se ganharmos o próximo jogo, avançamos para a fase eliminatória.
If we win the next game, we go forward to the knockout stage.

The imperfect subjunctive is used after the conjunction se to express an unreal condition. The main verb is either imperfect or conditional (in more formal writing) in such cases:

Se tivéssemos o dinheiro, comprávamos um carro novo.
If we had the money, we’d buy a new car.

Se não fosse o empréstimo, a empresa teria que fechar as portas.
If it weren’t for the loan, the company would have to close down.

Both conditional and main clause can contain a compound tense to express an impossible condition. In the spoken language in particular, the pluperfect subjunctive is usually replaced by a simple imperfect subjunctive in the conditional clause:

Se o Palmeiras tivesse vencido, teria garantido o campeonato. \(\text{[written]}\)
If Palmeiras had won, it would have had the championship sewn up.

Se eu soubesse, não tinha vindo. \(\text{[spoken]}\)
If I’d have known, I wouldn’t have come.

The imperfect subjunctive is also used after como se ‘as if’, regardless of the tense of the main verb:

Ele fala com os funcionários como se fossem crianças.
He talks to the employees as if they were children.
Do not confuse the above usages with se meaning ‘if, whether’, which introduces an indirect question and is followed by the indicative:

Não sei se ele vai poder nos ajudar.
I don’t know if he’ll be able to help us.

The subjunctive in main clauses

The present subjunctive is used for the formal imperative (see Chapter 21):

Assine aqui.
Sign here.

The present subjunctive is also used in third person wishes, sometimes introduced by que:

Deus te abençoe!
(May) God bless you!

Que os seus desejos se realizem!
May your wishes come true!

The first person plural of the present subjunctive expresses an exhortation ‘Let us . . .’. This is replaced in the spoken language and informal writing by the auxiliary vamos followed by the infinitive:

Vejamos alguns exemplos. (written)
Let us look at some examples.

Vamos pedir uma pizza. (spoken)
Let’s order a pizza.

The subjunctive must be used after the adverb talvez ‘perhaps’. The tense used depends on the sense, with the imperfect subjunctive functioning as if it were an imperfect indicative or conditional:

A outra opção talvez seja melhor.
The other option is perhaps better.

Talvez fosse assim naquela época.
Perhaps that’s how things were at that time.

Se você tivesse explicado melhor, talvez eu tivesse entendido.
If you had explained it better, perhaps I would have understood.

The present subjunctive is also used after the expression tomara que ‘let’s hope (that)’:

Tomara que não chova!
Let’s hope it doesn’t rain!

THE SUBJUNCTIVE
Idiomatic uses of the subjunctive

The present and future subjunctives of the same verb are combined in expressions of the following type:

- **seja como for**
  - be that as it may

- **venha o que vier**
  - come what may

- **Haveremos de conseguir, custe o que custar.**
  - We shall succeed, whatever the cost.

Note also the expression **quer queira ou não** ‘like it or not’:

- **Quer queira ou não, a realidade é essa.**
  - Like it or not, that is the reality of the situation.

Subjunctive vs. infinitive

In some of the usages described above (20.3.1–3, 20.3.5 and after antes, até, para and sem), a personal infinitive construction could be used instead of a subjunctive clause. Generally speaking, where a choice exists, the subjunctive construction sounds more formal and, consequently, a personal infinitive construction is more likely to be favoured in speech.

Avoidance of the subjunctive in colloquial speech

There is a definite tendency to avoid the subjunctive in colloquial speech and the indicative is often used where formal grammar would require a subjunctive. This is particularly true when referring to facts and events that are beyond doubt, especially those in the past:

- **Que pena que ela não veio! (for . . . que ela não tenha vindo)**
  - What a pity she didn’t come!

- **Espero que você gostou da festa. (for . . . que você tenha gostado . . .)**
  - I hope you enjoyed the party.

- **Que bom que você está aqui! (for . . . que você esteja . . .)**
  - It’s great that you’re here!
21

The imperative

For addressing one person, Brazilian Portuguese has a familiar imperative, which is used in the spoken language and in informal writing, and a formal imperative, which is used in formal speech and writing. There is also a plural imperative form used for addressing more than one person in all situations.

21.1 Familiar imperative

The familiar imperative form is identical to the third person singular of the present indicative.\(^{51}\) It is used in most spoken language situations except when particular formality is called for (see 21.2.1) and in informal writing:

- **Fala a verdade!**
  - Tell the truth!

- **Vem aqui!**
  - Come here!

\(^{51}\) The only exceptions are the verbs *ser* and *estar*, which only have the formal imperative forms *seja* and *esteja*. The familiar imperative is the original second person imperative (*tu* form), which has survived even though other second person verb forms are no longer used.

21.2 Unstressed object pronouns are positioned immediately before the verb form:

- **Me dá o seu e-mail.**
  - Give me your e-mail address.

- **Te cuida.**
  - Take care of yourself.

21.3 The familiar imperative can also occur in the negative in very colloquial speech, although the present subjunctive is more usual in prohibitions (see 21.2.3):

- **Não fica pegando no meu pé.**
  - Don’t keep going on at me.

- **Não esquece de comprar leite.**
  - Don’t forget to buy milk.
**Formal imperative**

The third person singular of the present subjunctive is used as a formal imperative. This form is used in speech with people you would address as o senhor/a senhora and in written orders and instructions:

- Abra aqui.
  Open here.
- Entre.
  Come in.

Unstressed object pronouns are appended to polite imperative forms with a hyphen:

- Certifique-se de que o aparelho está desligado na tomada.
  Make sure the appliance is unplugged.
- Deixe-me citar alguns exemplos.
  Allow me to quote some examples.

In prohibitions (negative imperative sentences) the present subjunctive is used even in informal speech:

- Não esqueça de ligar para o Eduardo.
  Don’t forget to call Eduardo.
- Não pise na grama.
  Do not step on the grass.

In prohibitions, unstressed object pronouns are placed between the adverb of negation and the verb form:

- Não se preocupe.
  Don’t worry.
- Nunca se esqueça disso.
  Never forget that.

**Plural imperative**

When addressing more than one person, the third person plural of the present subjunctive is used as an imperative in both informal and formal registers:

- Passem por aqui, por favor.
  Come this way, please.
- Fiquem à vontade.
  Make yourselves at home.
- Sentem-se.
  Sit down.
- Não se encabulem.
  Don’t be shy.

For third and first person imperatives, see 20.6.2 and 20.6.3.
Reflexive verbs

22.1 Introduction

The English term ‘reflexive verb’ denotes a verb that is accompanied by a pronoun object referring back to the subject, i.e. the subject and the object of the verb are the same. In English, this type of verb is only used when the subject does something to himself/herself (e.g. I cut myself, they blamed themselves, etc.), whereas, in Portuguese, verbs that are reflexive in form have a number of different meaning patterns, of which the truly reflexive usage is just one.

22.2 Reflexive object pronouns

The reflexive object pronouns are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject pronoun</th>
<th>Corresponding reflexive pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eu</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>você</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ele</td>
<td>se</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ela</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós</td>
<td>nos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocês</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eles</td>
<td>se</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reflexive pronouns are subject to the same rules of placement as other unstressed object pronouns\(^2\) (see 7.5).

\(^2\) When the first person plural reflexive pronoun nos is appended to a first person plural verb form in more formal written style, the final -s of the verb form is dropped, e.g. sentamo-nos ‘we sat down’, pusemo-mos a trabalhar ‘we set to work’.

22.3 Meaning patterns of reflexive verbs

22.3.1 Reflexive use

This usage corresponds to the use of reflexive verbs in English, e.g. lavar-se ‘to wash oneself’, cortar-se ‘to cut oneself’. There are also many Portuguese reflexive verbs that involve doing something to oneself and that do not have ‘myself, yourself’, etc. in the translation:

Ele se escondeu atrás de uma árvore.
He hid behind a tree. (literally, He hid himself . . .)
Meaning patterns of reflexive verbs

Eles se vestem muito bem.
They dress very well. (literally, They dress themselves . . .)

Nós nos identificamos com os personagens.
We identify with the characters. (literally, We identify ourselves . . .)

Note that the reflexive pronoun can also be the indirect object:

Ela tem que se aplicar duas injeções por dia.
She has to give herself two injections a day.

Reciprocal use

When the subject is plural, the reflexive pronoun can have a reciprocal meaning:

Vi os dois se beijando.
I saw the two of them kissing (each other).

Não entendo por que vocês dois se gostam tanto.\(^{53}\)
I don’t understand why you two like each other so much.

This reciprocal meaning can be made more explicit with the addition of um ao outro (when two people are involved) or uns aos outros (when more than two are involved – see 13.10.4):

Foi uma oportunidade para nós nos conhecermos uns aos outros.
It was a chance for us to get to know one another.

The reflexive pronoun can also be the indirect object:

Nós nos compramos o mesmo presente de Natal.
We bought each other the same Christmas present.

NOTE

53 The verb gostar ‘to like’ is peculiar in that the reflexive pronouns can be used with reciprocal meaning even though the object is usually introduced with the preposition de.

Intransitive meaning

Many reflexive verbs correspond to intransitive verbs in English, especially those that indicate a change of some kind:

a relação que se desenvolveu entre eles
the relationship that has developed between them

A doença se espalha rapidamente pelo corpo.
The disease quickly spreads through the body.

O sol se põe por volta das seis horas.
The sun sets around six o’clock.

Change of emotional state

There are many reflexive verbs that denote a change of emotional state, usually translated into English with a passive:

Eu me surpreendi com a reação dele.
I was surprised at his reaction.
Não se estresse.
Don’t get stressed out.

In informal speech, such reflexive verbs tend to be replaced by the verb ficar ‘to be, to get’ with the corresponding past participle:

Eu fiquei surpreso com a reação dele.
Não fique estressado.

**Change of physical position**

There is also a class of reflexive verbs that denote a change of bodily position, e.g. sentar-se ‘to sit down’, ajoelhar-se ‘to kneel down’, deitar-se ‘to lie down’, levantar-se ‘to get up, stand up’:

O padre se ajoelhou diante do altar.
The priest knelt before the altar.

In informal speech, these verbs are usually used intransitively, without the reflexive pronoun:

Levantei cedo hoje.
I got up early this morning.

**Conventionally reflexive verbs**

There are a number of verbs that are simply reflexive by convention and do not fall into any particular meaning pattern, e.g. arrepender-se ‘to be sorry’, recusar-se ‘to refuse’, gabar-se ‘to boast’, etc.

**Impersonal se-construction**

Most normally non-reflexive verbs can be used in the third person in combination with the reflexive pronoun se to form a general statement. With verbs that are otherwise intransitive, this se may be thought of as meaning ‘one, they, people’, etc., although, in strictly syntactic terms, it is still an unstressed object pronoun and must be positioned according to the rules given in 7.5. The verb is always singular:

Come-se bem nos restaurantes do bairro.
One eats well in the local restaurants.

Naquela época, não se saía na rua à noite.
At that time, people didn’t go out at night.

É importante que se responda a qualquer comunicação recebida.
It is important that one should reply to any communication received.

With verbs that are transitive, the se-construction is best translated by making the verb passive in English:

um tipo de peixe que se chama surubim
a type of fish that is called surubim

Aqui se fala inglês. (on a sign)
English spoken here.
More formal grammar requires a third person plural verb if the grammatical subject is plural:

- **A necessidade de se criarem novas regras**
  the need for new rules to be devised

- **Vendem-se apartamentos. (on a sign or advertisement)**
  Apartments for sale.

---

When the se-construction is used with a modal auxiliary verb, se precedes or follows the modal (according to the rules on object pronoun placement). The modal verb itself is singular, though it can be plural if the grammatical subject is plural and there is no preposition between the modal and the following infinitive:

- **Não se deve/devem destruir as florestas. (plural subject, no preposition)**
  The forests should not be destroyed.

- **Tende-se a subestimar as dificuldades. (preposition before main verb)**
  People tend to/There is a tendency to underestimate the difficulties.

- **Não se pode fumar aqui. (intransitive main verb)**
  You cannot smoke here.

---

The impersonal se-construction has a slightly formal ring to it and its use in informal speech is therefore limited, other than in certain set phrases, such as: **Nunca se sabe.** ‘You never know.’ It is especially common in scientific and academic writing where an objective tone is called for. In such contexts, it is often preferred to the more cumbersome passive.

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**Reflexive verbs in the spoken language**

There is a definite tendency away from reflexive verbs in the spoken language. Apart from the cases noted above (22.3.4, 22.3.5), there are verbs that are used reflexively in more formal language and non-reflexively in everyday speech, such as **casar(-se)** ‘to get married’, **divorciar(-se)** ‘to get divorced’, **esquecer(-se)** ‘to forget’, **lembrar(-se)** ‘to remember’, among others.

---

**Other reflexive pronouns**

The unstressed reflexive pronoun se has a corresponding stressed form si, which is used after prepositions. Note that the preposition **com** ‘with’ combines with **si** to form the single word **consigo**:

- **Deve-se sempre questionar a si mesmo.**
  One should always question oneself.

- **Cada passageiro pode levar consigo uma peça de bagagem.**
  Each passenger may take one piece of luggage with them.
In formal grammar, si and consigo should be used to refer back to any third person subject, including você(s), but in practice they are only used in impersonal sentences or general statements with an indefinite subject (such as the two examples given in 22.6.1). When the subject is a specific person or persons, the stressed reflexive pronoun is replaced by the appropriate non-reflexive pronoun, sometimes followed by mesmo(s)/mesma(s) ‘-self, -selves’:

Você vai ter que cuidar de você mesmo.
You will have to take care of yourself.

O presidente leva a primeira dama junto com ele quando viaja.
The president takes the first lady along with him when he travels.

In the first person, the stressed pronouns mim and nós (in combination with com, comigo and conosco) may also be used reflexively:

Fiquei decepcionado comigo mesmo.
I was disappointed with myself.

Temos que conservar este patrimônio para nós e os nossos filhos.
We must preserve this heritage for ourselves and our children.
23

Ser, estar and ficar

23.1 Introduction

As explained in detail below, the verbs ser and estar both mean ‘to be’ but have different uses. The verb ficar also translates ‘to be’ in certain circumstances, so it will also be dealt with in this chapter.

23.2 ser

► 16.3.8 (p. 121)

The verb ser is used to define the subject, so it is the verb to use when the verb ‘to be’ is followed by a noun that identifies the subject:

Esse é o meu marido.
This is my husband.

Sou jornalista.55
I’m a journalist.

A baleia é um mamífero.
The whale is a mammal.

Era um dia como qualquer outro.
It was a day like any other.

► Chapter 34 (p. 258); Chapter 35 (p. 265); 38.1.4 (p. 283); 41.2.3 (p. 302)

55 When the verb ser is followed by a noun that describes the subject’s profession, nationality or religion, the indefinite article is not used in Portuguese (see 4.2.3.1 (i)).

23.2.1

The verb ser can also be followed by a pronoun in this identifying function, but note that ser always agrees with what follows it, not what precedes:

Quem é? – Sou eu.
‘Who is it?’ – ‘It’s me.’

‘Who’s speaking?’ – ‘It’s Bob.’

O maior problema são os mosquitos.
The biggest problem is/are the mosquitoes.
It follows that *ser* is used with adjectives that describe an inherent and/or permanent characteristic of the subject:

- Os dois irmãos são altos.
  Both brothers are tall.

- O verão é quente no Brasil.
  The summer is hot in Brazil.

► 36.1.2 (p. 267); 36.7 (p. 272)

In addition, *ser* is used with adjectives that denote human qualities when the meaning is ‘behave in a . . . way’:

- Ela foi muito simpática comigo.
  She was very nice to me.

- Ele pode ser teimoso às vezes.
  He can be stubborn at times.

► 36.8 (p. 272)

And it is also used to describe permanent location in the case of things that do not normally move, such as buildings, geographical features, etc.; *ficar* may also be used in this sense:

- Por favor, onde é fica a Biblioteca Nacional?
  Excuse me, where is the National Library?

- A minha rua é fica logo aqui, à direita.
  My street is just here, on the right.

► 39.1.3 (p. 286)

The verb *ser* is also used to identify the time when something occurs:

- O meu aniversário é na semana que vem.
  My birthday is next week.

- Isso foi logo depois da morte do pai dela.
  That was just after the death of her father.

► 39.2 (p. 287)

It is also used in expressions of time by the clock, dates and distance:

- Eram dez para a meia-noite.
  It was ten to midnight.

- Hoje é dia oito.
  Today is the eighth.

- São cinco quilômetros daqui até a praia.
  It’s five kilometres from here to the beach.

► 23.2.3

23.2.4

23.2.5

23.2.6

23.2.7

23.2.8

And it is also used with a past participle to form the passive (see 17.4.1):

- O serviço será incluído na conta.
  The service charge will be included in the bill.

► 158
The verb **estar** describes a temporary state and is therefore used with adjectives that denote such states:

- **Estávamos muito cansados.**
  We were very tired.

- **Estou pronto para sair.**
  I’m ready to go out.

► 36.3 (p. 270)

It is also used with adjectives that describe the speaker’s perception of someone or something, such as the appearance, feel, taste, etc. In fact, **estar** can also translate ‘to look’, ‘to feel’, ‘to taste’ in certain circumstances:

- **Você está linda hoje!**
  You look lovely today!

- **Essa sopa está muito salgada.**
  This soup is/tastes very salty.

- **Está quente aqui dentro.**
  It’s/It feels hot in here.

► 36.4 (p. 271)

It follows that **estar** can only be followed by a noun when the noun is being used metaphorically to describe a temporary state or sensation:

- **Eu estava um caco depois da aula de aeróbica.**
  I was a wreck after the aerobics class.

- **A cozinha está um brinco.**
  The kitchen is spotless.

**23.3.4**

The verb **estar** is also used with adjectives and nouns to describe temporary weather conditions:

- **Estava uma tarde linda.**
  It was a lovely afternoon.

- **Está muito frio hoje.**
  It’s very cold today.

► 36.9 (p. 273)

It is also used to express the temporary location of living beings and things that are easily moved around:

- **Você sabe onde está a chave do carro?**
  Do you know where the car key is?

- **Ele estava na minha frente na fila do supermercado.**
  He was in front of me in the supermarket queue.

► 39.1.1 (p. 285)
SER, ESTAR AND FICAR

In addition, it is used when referring to a level:

Hoje o dolar está a R$1,50.
Today the dollar is at R$1.50.

And estar is used with a past participle to describe a resultant state (see 17.4.3):

O serviço está incluído.
Service is included.

ficar

The verb ficar can be used as an alternative to ser when expressing permanent location:

Porto Alegre fica no sul do Brasil.
Porto Alegre is in the south of Brazil.

Before an adjective, ficar marks a transition to a new state, usually as a reaction to something else. It often translates ‘to get, become’, but should be used to translate ‘to be’ when a change of emotional state is implied:

Fiquei contente em saber que você está bem.
I was glad to hear that you are well. (i.e. I became glad when I heard)

Não fique triste.
Don’t be sad. (i.e. Don’t get sad)

Like estar, ficar can only be followed by a noun used metaphorically to describe a new state:

Meu cabelo vai ficar um lixo com essa chuva.
My hair’s going to be a right mess with this rain.

Also, ficar can be followed by a past participle to express an involuntary passive result (see 17.4.2):

Ficamos presos no elevador.
We got stuck in the lift.

Adjectives used with either ser or estar

Some adjectives can be used with either ser or estar, depending on whether an inherent/permanent or temporary feature is being described:

Ele sempre foi magro. vs. Ele estava magro quando o vi.
He’s always been thin. He was thin when I saw him.

Often, the criterion is inherent quality (ser) vs. speaker’s perception (estar):

Meu pai é velho. vs. Meu pai está velho.
My father is old. My father is looking old.

Você é louco. vs. Você está louco.
You’re crazy (in general). You’re being/acting crazy.
The words *rico* ‘rich’ and *pobre* ‘poor’ are usually used with *ser*, although *estar* can be used to describe a temporary situation:

O avô dela era rico.
Her grandfather was rich.

Estou pobre no momento.
I’m poor (= *broke*) at the moment.

The words *vivo* ‘alive’ and *morto* ‘dead’ are used with *ser* except when describing a situation where there may be some doubt:

Se o cantor fosse vivo, teria hoje 90 anos.
If the singer was alive, he’d be 90 now.

Se não fosse aquele acidente, o cantor estaria vivo hoje.
If it hadn’t been for that accident, the singer would be alive today.

The words *casado* ‘married’, *divorciado* ‘divorced’, *separado* ‘separated’ and *solteiro* ‘single’ are usually used with *ser*, except when describing a situation that is perceived as temporary:\(^{56}\)

Eles são casados há muitos anos.
They’ve been married for many years.

Atualmente ela está solteira.
She’s single at the moment.

---

Translating ‘was/were’, ‘has/have been’, etc.

The interplay between *ser* vs. *estar* and imperfect vs. preterite (see 18.3, 18.5) can be difficult for English speakers. Here are some tips.

**estava vs. foi**

In some cases, there is a choice between the imperfect of *estar*, which describes the background situation or the speaker’s perception, and the preterite of *ser*, which sets a more objective tone with no further detail:

A festa estava boa.
The party was good. (= I personally enjoyed the party. or The party was going well.)

A festa foi boa.
The party was good. (*i.e. by all objective standards*)

**estive vs. estava**

The preterite of *estar* is normally only used to refer to an instance of being in a place at a time in the past:

Já estive em Paris duas vezes.
I’ve been to Paris twice.
**SER, ESTAR AND FICAR**

Estivemos com o Paulo ontem.
We saw (= we were with) Paulo yesterday.

In other cases where a past tense of *estar* is called for, the imperfect is usually appropriate as it describes the situation pertaining at the time:

- *A Sandra estava linda na festa.*
  Sandra looked lovely at the party.
- *Comi a pizza, mas estava horrível.*
  I ate the pizza, but it was horrible.

**era vs. foi**

The imperfect has the sense of ‘used to be’ or describes the background situation, while the preterite means ‘has been’ or points to a one-off event:

- *Ele era meu melhor amigo.*
  He used to be my best friend. or (At that time) he was my best friend.
- *Ele sempre foi meu melhor amigo.*
  He’s always been my best friend.
- *Era o Cláudio no telefone, chamando a gente para sair.*
  It was Cláudio on the phone, asking us out.
- *Foi o Cláudio quem ligou.*
  It was Cláudio who called.

**tem sido vs. foi**

When there is no adverb of time in the sentence, the perfect tense usually translates ‘has/have been’, while the preterite translates ‘was/were’, referring to a single instance in the past.

- *Eles têm sido muito compreensivos comigo.*
  They’ve been very understanding with me.
- *Eles foram muito compreensivos comigo.*
  They were very understanding with me.

**Idiomatic expressions with *ser***

**ser com alguém**

This is used for ‘to be meant for someone; to be someone’s department’:

- *É comigo?*
  Do you mean me? / Do they mean me? / Are you talking to me?
- *É com você, Renata.*
  Over to you, Renata. *(on TV programme)*
- *Os aplausos eram com o diretor.*
  The applause was for the director.
- *Futebol não é comigo.*
  Football’s not my strong point. / It’s no use asking me about football.
Idiomatic expressions with *estar*

**Abrir conta é com o gerente.**
Opening an account is a matter for the manager.

### 23.7.2 *ser de*

This is used for ‘to be from (a place)’, ‘to be made of (a material)’, ‘to be one to (do something)’:

**Você é de onde?**
Where are you from?

**As casas eram de madeira.**
The houses were built of wood.

**O Zé não é de beber.**
Zé is not one to drink.

► 36.5 (p. 271)

### 23.7.3 *é para (alguém) fazer*

This is used informally for ‘someone is supposed to do’:

**É para pagar primeiro?**
Are you/we supposed to pay first?

**Era para todos estarem aqui às nove.**
Everyone was supposed to be here at nine.

### 23.7.4 *é*

This can follow another verb as a form of emphasis:

**Quero é voltar para casa.**
To go home is what I want.

**Estamos é cansados.**
Tired is what we are.

### 23.7.5 *é que*

This can be inserted between subject and verb as a form of emphasis:

**Eu é que tenho que bancar tudo.**
It’s me who has to pay for everything.

**Oportunidades é que não faltam.**
There’s no shortage of opportunities. / It’s not opportunities that are lacking.

### 23.8 Idiomatic expressions with *estar*

On its own, *estar* can also mean ‘to be in (at home or work), to be there, to be present’:

**A Lúcia está por favor? (on the phone)**
Is Lucia there please?

**O meu chefe não estava ontem.**
My boss wasn’t in yesterday.
**23.8.2 estar com**

The expression **estar com** is used as follows:

(i) To mean ‘to have’ when talking about things you have on you and illnesses:

Você está com a chave de casa?
Have you got the house key?

Ele estava com dengue.
He had dengue fever.

► 40.5.2 (p. 297)

(ii) To mean ‘to be’ with ages:

Ela está com quantos anos?
How old is she?

(iii) To mean ‘to have on’ with clothing, etc.:

Ela estava com uma saia vermelha.
She had a red skirt on.

(iv) To mean ‘to be’ in the following expressions: **estar com fome** ‘to be hungry’, **estar com sede** ‘to be thirsty’, **estar com sono** ‘to be sleepy’, **estar com frio** ‘to be cold’, **estar com calor** ‘to be hot’, **estar com medo** ‘to be frightened’, **estar com ciúme(s)** ‘to be jealous’, **estar com vergonha** ‘to be embarrassed’:

Estou com fome. Vamos comer alguma coisa?
I’m hungry. Shall we have something to eat?

**23.8.3 estar sem**

The expression **estar sem** is used as the negative of **estar com** in usages (i), (iii) and some of the expressions in (iv) above:

Estou sem dinheiro.
I have no money (on me).

Ela estava sem sutiã.
She had no bra on.

Tentei comer, mas estava sem fome.
I tried to eat, but I didn’t feel hungry.

**23.8.4 estar para fazer**

This is used for ‘to be about to do, to be meaning to, to be soon to do’:

O bebê está para nascer.
The baby is about to be born.

Estou para te ligar há semanas.
I’ve been meaning to call you for weeks.
estar por fazer
This means ‘to be yet to do’:
- O pior ainda estava por vir.
  The worst was yet to come.
- Muitas dúvidas ainda estão por ser esclarecidas.
  Many doubts are yet to be clarified.

estar fazendo
This is used for ‘to be doing’ (see 17.1.2).

Other meanings and idiomatic uses of ficar

23.9.1 The verb ficar can be used with an adjective following to mean ‘to get, to become, to go’:
- O nosso planeta está ficando cada vez mais quente.
  Our planet is getting hotter and hotter.
- Ele está ficando careca.
  He’s going bald.

23.9.2 It can also mean ‘to stay’ in a location or at someone’s house, a hotel, etc.:
- Fica aqui enquanto eu vou buscar o seu irmão.
  Stay here while I go and pick up your brother.
- Você pode ficar lá em casa.
  You can stay at our place.

23.9.3 It can be used for ‘to turn out’:
- As fotos ficaram ótimas.
  The photos turned out really well.

23.9.4 ficar com
The expression ficar com can be used in the following ways:
(i) To mean ‘to keep (for oneself)’:
- Vou ficar com uma cópia para mim.
  I’m going to keep a copy for myself.
(ii) To mean ‘to get’ with reference to something you are given or an illness:
- Cada um fica com uma porcentagem do lucro.
  Each one gets a percentage of the profit.
- Fiquei com dor de barriga de tanto comer.
  I got stomach ache from eating so much.
(iii) In the expressions in 23.8.2 (iv) to mean ‘get’: ficar com fome ‘to get hungry’, ficar com sede ‘to get thirsty’, ficar com sono ‘to get sleepy’, ficar com frio ‘to get cold’, ficar com calor ‘to get hot’, ficar com medo ‘to get frightened’, ficar com ciúme(s) ‘to get jealous’, ficar com vergonha ‘to get embarrassed’:
- Estou ficando com sono.
  I’m getting sleepy.
**ficar fazendo**

The expression *ficar fazendo* can be used in the following ways:

(i) To mean ‘to keep doing’:

   **Ele fica me ligando sem parar.**
   He keeps calling me non-stop.

(ii) To mean ‘to go on doing’:

   **Ficamos conversando até altas horas da madrugada.**
   We went on talking into the small hours.

(iii) To mean ‘to be/sit/stand there doing’:

   **Quando saí, as crianças ficaram acenando na porta.**
   When I left, the children stood there waving at the door.

   **Ele fica assistindo TV o dia inteiro.**
   He sits there watching TV all day long.

**ficar de fazer**

This can be used for ‘to arrange to do, say you will do’:

**Ficamos de sair na sexta à noite.**
We arranged to go out on Friday night.

**Eles ficaram de me ligar assim que chegasse.**
They said they’d call me as soon as they arrived.
Verbs used in auxiliary, modal and impersonal constructions

24.1 Auxiliary constructions

An auxiliary construction is one in which a ‘helper’ verb is used to give a particular nuance of meaning to a following main verb. In the auxiliary constructions described below, the main verb appears in the infinitive or gerund form.

For the use of the verbs ser, estar and ficar as auxiliaries, see Chapter 23. For the use of ter and haver as perfect tense auxiliaries, see 17.3.

24.1.1 acabar

The verb acabar + gerund or (more formal) acabar por + infinitive ‘end up doing, eventually do’:

Acabamos dormindo no chão.
We ended up sleeping on the floor.

A policia acabou prendendo o ladrão.
The police eventually caught the thief.

O réu acabou por confessar o crime.
The defendant eventually confessed to the crime.

24.1.2 acabar de + infinitive

Although this can mean ‘to finish doing’, the sense is more often ‘to have just done’. In the spoken and less formal written language, the preterite of acabar is used to mean ‘has/have just’ and the pluperfect to mean ‘had just’; in more formal registers, the present and imperfect tenses respectively are used:

Eu acabei de chegar.
I’ve just arrived.

Ele tinha acabado de jantar.
He had just had dinner.

A editora Sol acaba de publicar uma coletânea de suas poesias.
The publisher Sol has just published a collection of his poems.

Brasília acabava de ser construída.
Brasília had just been built.

► 71.6.1 (p. 449)
VERBS USED IN AUXILIARY, MODAL AND IMPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIONS

24.1.3 **andar + gerund**
This is used for ‘have been doing’:

O que é que você anda fazendo?
What have you been doing (lately)?

24.1.4 **haver de + infinitive**
This is used for ‘shall, will’ (emphatic future). This is a very formal/literary usage. The verb *haver* is normally in the future tense:

Se Deus quiser, haveremos de conseguir.
God willing, we shall succeed.

24.1.5 **ir + infinitive**
This is used for ‘be going to do, will do’ (future tense), ‘go to do, go and do’:

Vou me encontrar com ela amanhã.
I’m meeting her tomorrow.

Ele foi ao supermercado comprar café.
He’s gone to the supermarket to buy coffee.

24.1.6 **ir + gerund**
This is used for ‘keep doing, get on with doing, go along doing’:

Pode ir fazendo as malas que nós vamos viajar.
You can get on with packing because we’re going on a trip.

Ela foi fazendo papéis pequenos durante cinco anos.
She went along playing small parts for five years.

Como vai a vida? – Ah, vou levando.
‘How’s life?’ – ‘Oh, I keep jogging along.’

24.1.7 **vir + infinitive**
This is used for ‘come to do, come and do’:

Ele vem nos visitar de vez em quando.
He comes to visit us from time to time.

24.1.8 **vir a + infinitive**
This is used for ‘come to do, end up doing, turn out to do’:

um político que, um dia, viria a ser presidente
a politician who, one day, would end up being president

Isso pode vir a comprometer a imagem da empresa.
This may turn out to damage the company’s image.
Modal constructions

24.1.9 *vir* + gerund

This is used for ‘have been doing’:

- Os alunos vem reclamando já há algum tempo. (The students have been complaining for some time now.)
- O Marco vem vindo. (idiomatic use) (Marco is just coming. / Marco is on his way.)

➤ 71.7.2 (p. 450)

24.1.10 *viver* + gerund

This is used for ‘to always be doing something’:

- Ela vive perdendo as chaves. (She’s always losing her keys.)
- Os dois viviam brigando. (The two of them were always fighting.)

Modal constructions

24.2 *poder*

24.2.1

The verb *poder* + infinitive is used for ‘can, be able to’, referring to possibility, availability and permissibility:

- O tempo pode mudar de uma hora para outra. (The weather can change from one moment to the next.)
- Acho que não vou poder ir. (I don’t think I’ll be able to go.)
- Você não pode levar isso na bagagem de mão. (You can’t take this in your hand luggage.)

Note that, in the spoken language, the third person singular *pode* can be used impersonally:

- Pode estacionar aqui? (Is it OK to park here?)

The verb *poder* can also translate ‘may, might’, referring to both possibility and permissibility:

- Não coloque essas taças na máquina de lavar louça que podem quebrar. (Don’t put those wine glasses in the dishwasher as they may break.)
- Posso sentar aqui? (May I sit here?)
In more formal written language, the future tense of poder is used with the meaning of ‘may, might’:

As Bolsas poderão voltar a registrar altas a partir do mês que vem.
Stock markets may start to go up again from next month.

Take care with the translation of ‘could’:

Você poderia/podia me ajudar um pouco? (conditional or imperfect for conditional, see 18.10.2)
Could you help me a moment?

O tenista estava lesionado e não podia jogar. (imperfect)
The tennis player was injured and could not play.

O tenista se machucou e não pôde terminar o jogo. (preterite)
The tennis player injured himself and could not finish the match.

Here are some examples of poder followed by the perfect infinitive:

Ele pode ter ligado enquanto eu não estava.
He may have called while I was out.

Poderíamos/Podíamos ter sido arrastados pela correnteza.
We could have been swept away by the current.

There is also an idiomatic usage of poder + perfect infinitive meaning ‘should have’:

Você não poderia/podia ter feito isso.
You shouldn’t have done that.

**conseguir**

► 52.1.2 (p. 360)

The verb conseguir + infinitive is used for ‘can, be able to’ (physical ability), ‘manage to, succeed in’:

Não consigo abrir a porta.
I can’t get the door open.

O Jorge queria ser ator e conseguiu.
Jorge wanted to be an actor and succeeded.

Finalmente conseguimos convencê-la.
We finally managed to persuade her.

**saber**

► 43.6 (p. 317); 52.2.1 (p. 361)

The verb saber + infinitive is used for ‘can, be able to’ (learned skills), ‘know how to’:

Ele não sabe nadar.
He can’t swim.

Eu sei contar até dez em alemão.
I can/I know how to count to ten in German.
The verb *querer* + infinitive is used for ‘want to’:

**Você quer jantar com a gente?**
Do you want to have dinner with us?

**Eu sempre quis conhecer Salvador.**
I’ve always wanted to go to Salvador.

**Coma quanto quiser.**
Eat as much as you want.

The imperfect also does duty for the conditional and can mean ‘would like to’:

**Eu queria te pedir um favor.**
I’d like to ask you a favour.

**Eu queria muito ter conhecido a sua mãe.**
I would very much like to have met your mother.

The expression *ter que* + infinitive is used for ‘have to’:

**Temos que estar lá às 9h00.**
We have to be there at 9.00.

**Tiveram que arrombar a porta.**
They had to break the door down.

**Você teria que fazer tudo de novo.**
You would have to do it all again.

---

**desejar**

The verb *desejar* + infinitive means ‘wish to, would like to’, a more formal and polite synonym of *querer*:

**Com quem deseja falar?**
Who do you wish to speak to?

**Novas oportunidades estão se abrindo a todos os que desejarem participar.**
New opportunities are opening up for all those who wish to participate.

---

**57** There is an alternative form *ter de* + infinitive that is only used in more formal written style, e.g.

**Uma mulher teve de ser carregada pelas escadas até uma ambulância.** 'A woman had to be carried down the stairs to an ambulance.'
The third person singular is often used with an impersonal meaning in the spoken language:

Tem que pagar adiantado?
Do you/we have to pay in advance? (= Does one . . . ?)

The imperfect can be used idiomatically to mean ‘should have’:

Você tinha que ver a cara dele!
You should have seen his face!

---

dever

The verb *dever* + infinitive is used for ‘should, must’, expressing obligation or supposition:

Você deve ir ao médico.
You should see a doctor.

Devemos chegar por volta do meio-dia.
We should arrive around midday.

Você não deve mexer no computador.
You must not touch the computer.

Eles não devem terminar hoje.
They’re not likely to finish today.

It can also translate as ‘be expected to, be due to, be to’:

O preço do petróleo não deve cair tão cedo.
The price of oil is not expected to fall any time soon.

O presidente deve fazer uma declaração amanhã.
The president is (due) to make a statement tomorrow.

---

In more formal writing, the future tense of *dever* is commonly used with the above meanings:

A Polícia Federal deverá abrir um inquérito.
The Federal Police is to open an inquiry.

The conditional, or its less formal substitute, the imperfect, can mean ‘ought to, should’ when talking about a moral obligation, or something that ought to happen but does not:

A escola deveria/devia avisar os pais quando isso acontece.
The school ought to notify parents when this happens. (*but they don’t*).

cf. A escola deve avisar os pais quando isso acontece.
The school should/must notify parents when this happens.

Notice the meanings of *dever* followed by the perfect infinitive:

Ela deve ter esquecido.
She must have forgotten. (*supposition*)

Ele não deve ter recebido a mensagem.
He can’t have got the message. (*supposition*)
Impersonal uses of certain verbs

Eu deveria/devia ter telefonado.
I ought to/should have phoned. (unfulfilled obligation)

precisar

45.1.2 (p. 327); 45.5.2 (p. 330); 46.1.1 (p. 331); 46.3.1 (p. 333)

The verb **precisar** + infinitive is used for ‘need to, must, have to’:

**Preciso ir, senão vou atrasar.**
I must go, otherwise I’ll be late.

**Vocês não precisam me esperar.**
You don’t need to wait for me. / You needn’t wait for me.

The imperfect can sometimes be translated ‘should have’:

**Você precisava ver a bagunça naquela cozinha!**
You should have seen the mess in that kitchen!

The third person singular is often used in an impersonal way:

**Precisa marcar hora?**
Is it necessary to make an appointment?

**Um presente para mim? Não precisava!**
A present for me? You shouldn’t have! (= it wasn’t necessary)

Impersonal uses of certain verbs

Impersonal verb constructions are those without a specific subject. In English, the grammatical subject of such constructions is usually ‘it’ as in ‘it’s raining’, ‘it takes four hours to get there’, etc. In Portuguese, such verbs do not have a distinct subject and only occur in the third person singular or infinitive form. The following four verbs have important impersonal uses:

haver

When used impersonally, the verb **haver** can have the following meanings:

(i) ‘There is/are’. In the spoken language, **haver** is usually replaced by **ter** in this meaning (see 24.3.2):

**Há várias formas de alcançar o mesmo objetivo.**
There are several ways of achieving the same objective.

**Se houver algum problema, ligue para este número.**
If there is any problem, call this number.

**É melhor haver um garçom para cada mesa.**
It’s better for there to be. / It’s better to have one waiter for each table.

(ii) The present tense form **há** can also mean ‘for’, denoting a period of time that started in the past and continues in the present. This is combined with a present tense in
Portuguese, although English requires the perfect (see 18.1.2). The verb fazer can also be used with this meaning – see below:

Moramos no Rio há cinco anos. / Há cinco anos que moramos no Rio.
We’ve been living in Rio for five years.

► 69.4.1 (p. 439); 69.4.3 (p. 440)

(iii) The imperfect form havia combines with an imperfect tense to render the English pluperfect (see 18.3.4):

Naquela altura, havia cinco anos que morávamos no Rio.
At that point, we had been living in Rio for five years.

► 71.12 (p. 453)

(iv) With a past tense verb, the meaning of há is ‘ago’. The word atrás ‘back’ is often inserted after the designation of time, especially in the spoken language, but in more formal writing, atrás is considered to be redundant and is therefore left out:

Eles mudaram para os EUA há seis meses atrás.
They moved to the USA six months ago.

A empresa foi fundada há meio século.
The company was founded half a century ago.

► 71.2 (p. 447)

(v) In the written language, havia is used when the point of reference is already in the past:

A casa tinha sido destruída por um incêndio havia três meses.
The house had been destroyed by a fire three months earlier.

24.3.2 ter

In the spoken language, ter is used instead of haver to mean ‘there is/are’:

Vai ter churrasco no domingo.
There’s going to be a barbecue on Sunday.

Tem leite na geladeira.
There’s milk in the fridge.

Tinha uma viatura da polícia parada na frente da casa deles.
There was a police car stopped outside their house.

► 38.1.1 (p. 281)

24.3.3 fazer

The verb fazer is used impersonally as follows:

(i) To mean ‘for’ as a less formal alternative to haver (see 24.3.1 (ii) and (iii)):

Faz anos que eu não vejo a Patrícia.
I haven’t seen Patricia for years. / It’s been years since I saw Patricia.
Impersonal uses of certain verbs

Ele não dorme faz uma semana.
He hasn’t slept for a week.

Fazia seis meses que eles não se falavam.
They hadn’t spoken to each other for six months.

► 69.4.2 (p. 440); 71.12 (p. 453)

(ii) In expressions to do with the weather and temperature:

Fez sol ontem.
It was sunny yesterday.

Não costuma fazer frio aqui.
It doesn’t usually get cold here.

Amanhã vai fazer quarenta graus.
It’s going to be forty degrees tomorrow.

24.3.4 dar

The verb dar is used impersonally with a number of different meanings, especially in the spoken language:

(i) ‘to be possible’, often followed by para + infinitive ‘(for sb) to do’:

Amanhã não vai dar. Tenho compromisso.
Tomorrow’s impossible. I’ve got an appointment.

Dá para você falar um pouco mais alto?
Could you speak up a bit?

Não deu para ver tudo em dois dias.
It wasn’t possible to see everything in two days.

► 52.1.3 (p. 360); 53.1.3 (p. 363)

(ii) ‘to result in’, used in idiomatic expressions:

Eu sabia que ela ia desistir, e não deu outra.
I knew she’d back out, and that’s exactly what happened.

Deu zebra no jogo de ontem.
There was an upset in yesterday’s game.

(iii) dar tempo ‘to be time’:

Você acha que vai dar tempo de fazer tudo?
Do you think there’ll be time to do everything?
25

Prepositions

25.1

Basic prepositions: *a*, *com*, *de*, *em*, *para*, *por*

- 39.3 (p. 288)

25.1.1

*a* ‘to, at’

Remember that the preposition *a* combines with the definite article and the demonstratives *aquele(s)/aquela(s)* and *aquilo* to form the following contractions: *ao(s)*, *à(s)*, *àquele(s)/àquela(s)* and *àquilo* (see 4.1.3, 8.2 (iii) and 8.4.2).

The main uses of the preposition *a* are as follows:

(i) To introduce an indirect object:

- **Uma moradora mostrou aos repórteres os estragos causados pela chuva.**
  A local resident showed reporters the damage caused by the rain.

- **Se tiver alguma dúvida, pergunte a um funcionário.**
  If you have any queries, ask a member of staff.

In informal spoken language, the preposition *para* is preferred in this usage.

(ii) To indicate movement ‘to’:

- **Foram ao banco tirar dinheiro.**
  They went to the bank to get some money out.

- **O ministro será enviado a Washington.**
  The minister will be sent to Washington.

In informal spoken language, the prepositions *para* and *em* are preferred in this usage.

(iii) To indicate position ‘at’:

- **Estavam sentados à mesa.**
  They were sitting at the table.

- **O ônibus parou ao sinal fechado.**
  The bus stopped at the red light.

In informal spoken language, the preposition *em* is preferred in this usage.

- **NOTES**
Basic prepositions: *a, com, de, em, para, por*

(iv) To indicate ‘at’ with clock time and age – note the use of the definite article:

**O show começa às 8h00.**
The show starts at 8.00.

**Ela ganhou sua primeira medalha aos 17 anos.**
She won her first medal at 17.

(v) To indicate ‘in’ with parts of the day – note the use of the definite article:

**Você estuda à tarde?**
Do you go to school in the afternoon?

(vi) To indicate ‘at’ with prices, rates, speeds, etc.

**postais a R$2,00 cada**
postcards at R$2 each

**O dólar está a R$1,50 hoje.**
The dollar is at 1.50 reais today.

**O caminhoneiro andava a 130 km/h.**
The truck driver was going at 130 km/h.

(vii) In expressions of distance, untranslated in English:

**A cidade fica a 200 km da capital.**
The town is 200 km from the capital.

**Você está a que distância da praça?**
How far are you from the square?

(viii) In scores, usually untranslated in English:

**O nosso time ganhou 3 a 0.**
Our team won 3-0.

(ix) In a number of idiomatic expressions:

*a lápis/tinta* ‘in pencil/ink’; *a pé/cavalo* ‘on foot/horseback’; *à mão* ‘by or to hand’; *dia a dia* ‘day by day’; *pouco a pouco* ‘little by little’; *frente a frente* ‘face to face’; *daqui a uma semana/dois dias*, etc. ‘in a week’s/two days’, etc. time’; *falar aos berros* ‘to shout’; *aos prantos* ‘in tears’; *à brasileira/francesa*, etc. ‘Brazilian-/French-style’, etc.

25.1.2 *com* ‘with’

The main uses of the preposition *com* are as follows:

(i) To indicate ‘with’, denoting accompaniment or instrument:

**Quer ir com a gente?**
Do you want to come with us?

**Arrombaram a caixa com um pé de cabra.**
They broke open the box with a crowbar.

(ii) To denote accompanying circumstances, sometimes translated ‘with’:

**Acordei com dor de cabeça.**
I woke up with a headache.
Ela gosta de dormir com a luz acesa.
She likes to sleep with the light on.

Reduza a velocidade com chuva.
Reduce your speed in wet weather.

(iii) To indicate ‘to, towards, at’ when referring to a person’s attitude to someone or something:

Ela sempre foi muito simpática comigo.
She’s always been very nice to me.

O que ele fez comigo não tem desculpa.
There’s no excuse for what he did to me.

Ficamos chocados com a notícia.
We were shocked at the news.

de ‘of, from’

Remember that the preposition de combines with the definite article and the demonstratives este(s)/esta(s), esse(s)/essa(s), aquele(s)/aquela(s), isto, isso, aquilo and the adverbs aqui, aí and ali to form the following contractions: do(s), da(s), deste(s)/desta(s), desse(s)/dessas(s), daquele(s)/daquela(s), disto, disso, daquilo, daqui, dai, dali (see 4.1.3, 8.2 (ii), 8.4.2 and 8.5.1 (i)).

The main uses of the preposition de are as follows:

(i) It is used for ‘of’ in all senses:

a costa do Brasil
the coast of Brazil

um dos melhores romances dos últimos anos
one of the best novels of recent years

um pedaço de bolo e um copo de leite
a piece of cake and a glass of milk.

(ii) The English genitive (’s) must be rendered using de in Portuguese:

o livro do Ricardo
Ricardo’s book

férias de duas semanas
two weeks’ holiday

o jornal de ontem
yesterday’s newspaper

Essas roupas são das crianças.
Those clothes are the children’s. / Those clothes belong to the children.

(iii) The preposition de is also used to indicate other attributes, such as nature, purpose, material, age, size, price, etc.:

um filme de ação
an action movie

uma máquina de lavar roupa
a washing machine
Basic prepositions: *a*, *com*, *de*, *em*, *para*, *por*

- *uma blusa de algodão*  
  a cotton blouse

- *uma menina de 15 anos*  
  a 15-year-old girl

- *um homem de mais de dois metros de altura*  
  a man more than two metres tall

- *um apartamento de três quartos*  
  a three-bedroom apartment.

(iv) It is also used for ‘from’ in all senses:

  *Ele é da Bahia.*  
  He’s from Bahia.

  *O banco abre das 10h00 às 16h00.*  
  The bank opens from 10 a.m. to 4 p.m.

(v) It is used for ‘out of’ and ‘off’:

  *Ela tirou uma caneta da bolsa.*  
  She took a pen out of her bag.

  *Ele caiu da moto e quebrou a perna.*  
  He fell off his motorbike and broke his leg.

(vi) It also means ‘by’ with means of transport:

  *Fica a dez minutos de táxi.*  
  It’s ten minutes away by taxi.

  *Vamos de ônibus ou de avião?*  
  Shall we go by bus or by air?

(vii) It is also used for ‘by’ when referring to authorship:

  *uma peça de Shakespeare*  
  a play by Shakespeare / a Shakespeare play

  *Essa música não é do Caetano?*  
  Isn’t this song by Caetano Veloso?

(viii) It is used for ‘with’ or ‘in’ when describing a person’s appearance or dress:

  *um homem de bigode*  
  a man with a moustache

  *a mulher de chapéu*  
  the woman in the hat

  *Você fica mais jovem de cabelo curto.*  
  You look younger with short hair.

  *Tem que ir de terno e gravata?*  
  Do we have to go in a suit and tie?

(ix) It is used for ‘in’, ‘on’, etc. after a superlative:

  *a maior fábrica da América Latina*  
  the biggest factory in Latin America

  *a melhor faixa do álbum*  
  the best track on the album.
PREPOSITIONS

(x) It is used for ‘in’ with parts of the day, as a less common alternative to a:58

- *de manhã* ‘in the morning’;
- *de tarde* ‘in the afternoon’;
- *de noite* ‘at night’

(xi) It is used for ‘with’, referring to the cause:

- *Eles pulavam de alegria.*
  They were jumping with joy.

- *Ele está tremendo de frio.*
  He’s shivering with cold.

(xii) It is also used in certain idiomatic expressions:

- *de dia* ‘in/during the day(time)’;
- *de frente/costas para* ‘facing/with your back to’;
- *de propósito* ‘on purpose’;
- *de cabeça para baixo* ‘upside down’, etc.

58 ‘in the morning’ is always with *de*: *de manhã*, but with *tarde* and *noite* either preposition can be used.

NOTE

em ‘in, at, on’

Remember that the preposition *em* combines with the definite and indefinite articles and the demonstratives *este(s)/esta(s), esse(s)/essa(s), aquele(s)/aquela(s), isto, isso, aquilo* to form the following contractions: *no(s), na(s), num, nuns, numa(s), neste(s)/nesta(s), nesse(s)/nessa(s), naquele(s)/naquela(s), nisto, nisso, naquilo* (see 4.1.3, 4.2.2, 8.2 (ii) and 8.4.2).

The main uses of the preposition *em* are as follows:

(i) As an all-purpose preposition of location when the exact position is not further specified, *em* can translate as ‘in’, ‘at’ or ‘on’:

- *Na Itália comem muita massa.*
  In Italy they eat a lot of pasta.

- *Ela leciona na Universidade Federal.*
  She teaches at the Federal University.

- *O jantar está na mesa.*
  Dinner is on the table.

(ii) As a preposition of movement, *em* translates ‘into, onto’ in all registers, but in the spoken language only it is also used to mean ‘to’:

- *Ela subiu na bicicleta e saiu pedalando.*
  She got onto her bike and rode off.

- *Quantas vezes por semana você vai na academia? (spoken)*
  How many times a week do you go to the gym?

(iii) In colloquial speech, *no/na* can be used with personal names or the names of professions to mean ‘at/to . . .’s (house)’, ‘at/to the . . .’:

- *Vou dormir na Júlia hoje à noite.*
  I’m going to sleep at Julia’s tonight.

- *Ele vai no dentista amanhã.*
  He’s going to the dentist’s tomorrow.
The preposition *em* is also used for ‘in’ with years, months and seasons:

*em 2010*

in 2010

O ano letivo começa em março.
The school year starts in March.

Faz muito calor no verão.
It’s very hot in (the) summer.

It is used for ‘on’ with days of the week and dates:

Ela volta na sexta.
She’ll be back on Friday.

nos sábados
on Saturdays

Ele nasceu no dia 12 de fevereiro.
He was born on February 12th.

It is also used for ‘by’ when referring to the margin of increase or decrease:

O preço do petróleo aumentou em 50% nos últimos seis meses.
The price of oil has increased by 50 per cent in the last six months.

In more formal speech and writing, the preposition *a* may be used with days of the week when the plural is used to denote a regular occurrence, e.g. Ele trabalha aos sábados. ‘He works on Saturdays.’ In the everyday speech of some regions of Brazil, the preposition *de* is used with the name of the day in the singular to convey this meaning, e.g. Ele trabalha de sábado. As in English, days of the week in the singular are often used adverbially without a preposition in the spoken language, e.g. *Ela volta sexta.* ‘She’ll be back Friday.’

The main uses of the preposition *para* are as follows:

(i) It means ‘for’ when referring to beneficiary, purpose, time limit and frame of reference:

Preciso comprar um presente para minha mãe.
I need to buy a present for my mother.

A maior parte da safra é para exportação.
Most of the crop is for export.

Esse trabalho é para amanhã.
This assignment is for tomorrow.

Ele é muito alto para a idade dele.
He’s very tall for his age.

Although non-standard, the spelling *pra* is often seen in advertisements and very informal writing.
(ii) It also means ‘to’ when referring to permanent destination:

Mudaram para São Paulo.
They moved to São Paulo.

Ela vai embora para Londres.
She’s leaving for London.

(iii) In informal spoken language, para is used for ‘to’ when referring to a temporary destination or introducing an indirect object (in place of the more formal a):

Eles foram para o shopping. *(spoken, para + o pronounced /pru/)*
They went to the mall.

Pergunta para a sua irmã se ela quer ir junto. *(spoken, para + a = /pra/)*
Ask your sister if she wants to come along.

Ela contou tudo para a polícia. *(spoken, para + a = /pra/)*
She told the police everything.

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NOTE 61 In the spoken language, para and em are used more or less interchangeably to mean ‘to’. Before a place name, para is more usual, e.g. Vamos para Brasília amanhã. ‘We’re going to Brasília tomorrow.’

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25.1.6 por ‘by, for, around’

Remember that the preposition por combines with the definite article to form the following contractions: pelo(s), pela(s) (see 4.1.3).

The main uses of the preposition por are as follows:

(i) It is used for ‘by’ when introducing the agent of a passive verb, and for the means or criterion by which something is done, dimensions and the factor in multiplication and division:

O quadro foi pintado por um menino de oito anos.
The picture was painted by an eight-year-old boy.

Vou te mandar as fotos por e-mail.
I’ll send you the photos by e-mail.

O material de reciclagem é separado por tamanho.
The recycling material is sorted by size.

A mesa tem três metros de comprimento por dois de largura.
The table is three metres long by two metres wide.

Temos que dividir o total por quatro.
We have to divide the total by four.

(ii) It is also used for ‘by’ when indicating the part held on to:

Ele me puxou pelo braço.
He pulled me by the arm.

Segure a corda pelas pontas.
Hold the rope by the ends.
(iii) It means ‘for’ when indicating an exchange or substitution, price, cause and past or future periods of time:

Quero trocar essa camiseta por uma branca.
I want to exchange this T-shirt for a white one.

O meu irmão pode assinar por mim?
Can my brother sign for me? (i.e. on my behalf)

Pagaram cinco milhões pela casa.
They paid five million for the house.

Ele foi preso por excesso de velocidade.
He was arrested for speeding.

Temos que lutar pelos nossos direitos.
We must fight for our rights.

Ela vai estudar na França por seis meses.
She’s going to study in France for six months.

(iv) It is used for ‘because of’, ‘over’ or ‘out of’ when indicating a cause:

Eles brigaram por dinheiro.
They argued over money.

Ela matou o marido por ciúmes.
She killed her husband out of jealousy.

(v) It also means ‘per’, ‘a(n)’ when indicating a rate:

cem reais por pessoa
one hundred reais per person

duas vezes por semana
twice a week.

(vi) It means ‘around’ when indicating location or movement around a place:

Tem uma agência do correio por aqui?
Is there a post office around here?

Ele andava pelo escritório, cumprimentando a todos.
He would go around the office saying hello to everyone.

(vii) It is also used in some idiomatic expressions:

por mim ‘as far as I’m concerned’; por mim, tudo bem ‘it’s fine by me’; vai por mim ‘take my word for it’, ‘mark my words’; por aqui/ali ‘this/that way’; por onde? ‘which way?’; por isso ‘so’, ‘that’s why’; por completo ‘completely’; por extenso ‘in full’; por ordem alfabética ‘in alphabetical order’; por sorte ‘luckily’, etc.

Other simple (one-word) prepositions

ante (formal) ‘faced with’, ‘as against’:

ante a ameaça de perderem clientes
faced with the threat of losing clients

Fifteen incidents were recorded in July, as against 25 in the same month last year.
após (written) ‘after’:

após a morte do presidente
after the president’s death
dia após dia
day after day.

até ‘until, by, as far as, up to, to’:

Eles vão ficar até amanhã.
They’re staying until tomorrow.

Temos que terminar até sábado.
We’ve got to finish by Saturday.
Pego um ônibus até Sorocaba e depois um táxi.
I take a bus as far as Sorocaba and then a taxi.

Podem custar até mil reais.
They can cost up to a thousand reais.

Não tivemos nenhum problema até agora.
We haven’t had any problems up to now/so far.

conforme ‘according to’:

conforme o prometido
as promised (= according to what was promised).

contra ‘against’ (all senses):

Votaram contra a proposta.
They voted against the proposal.

o jogo contra a Itália
the game against Italy

Coloquei a escada contra a parede.
I put the ladder up against the wall.

desde ‘since’, ‘(starting/ranging) from’:

Ele trabalha aqui desde 1975. (NB: present tense)
He’s been working here since 1975.

A loja vende tudo, desde clipe até pianos de cauda.
The shop sells everything, from paperclips to grand pianos.

durante ‘during’, ‘for’:

durante a semana
during the week

Tivemos que ficar em pé durante quatro horas.
We had to stand for two hours.

entre ‘between, among’:

entre os melhores restaurantes de São Paulo
among the best restaurants in São Paulo
entre 7h00 e meia-noite
between 7.00 and midnight

Qual a relação entre eles?
What’s the relationship between them?

exceto ‘except’:
a Grã-Bretanha, exceto a Irlanda do Norte
Great Britain, except Northern Ireland.

fora ‘apart from’:
Todo mundo concordou, fora o Sérgio.
Everyone agreed, apart from Sergio.

mediante (formal) ‘through, by means of’:
O candidato pode se inscrever mediante pagamento de uma taxa de R$50,00.
Candidates can register by paying a R$50 fee.

perante (formal) ‘before, in the eyes of’:
igualdade perante a lei
equality before the law
o desgaste do governo perante a opinião pública
the damage to the government’s image in the eyes of public opinion.

salvo (formal) ‘save, barring’:
Salvo mudança de última hora, o show será aberto por Madonna.
Barring a last-minute change, the show will be opened by Madonna.

segundo ‘according to’:
segundo as últimas previsões
according to the latest predictions.

sem ‘without, with no’:
Saí de casa sem dinheiro.
I left home with no money/without any money.

sob ‘under, beneath’ (mainly figurative uses), ‘amid’:
O bar está sob nova direção.
The bar is under new management.
Sob aplausos, o diretor entrou no palco.
Amid applause, the director came out on stage.

sobre ‘on, over’ (physical location), ‘about, on’:
Havia uma colcha vermelha sobre a cama.
There was a red bedspread on the bed.

um documentário sobre tartarugas
a documentary about/on turtles
Eles ganham comissão sobre as vendas.
They earn commission on sales.

visto (formal) ‘in view of, considering’:

visto a representatividade do Brasil no Mercosur
in view of Brazil’s weight within Mercosur.

**Compound prepositions of place**

| 25.3 |

abaixo de ‘below’ (location or degree):

abaixo da superfície do mar
below the surface of the sea

bem abaixo da média
well below average.

acima de ‘above’ (location or degree):

uma pessoa acima de qualquer suspeita
a person above all suspicion

Ele tinha um corte acima do olho esquerdo.
He had a cut above his left eye.

além de ‘beyond’, ‘apart from, in addition to’:

além do horizonte
beyond the horizon

Além de tocar piano, ela fala vários idiomas.
In addition to playing the piano, she speaks several languages.

atrás de ‘behind’, ‘after’:

O menino se escondeu atrás da porta.
The little boy hid behind the door.

A polícia está atrás dela.
The police are after her.

através de ‘across, through’, ‘through (a person)’:

a transmissão de sinais através do espaço
the transmission of signals through space

Ele conseguiu o emprego através de um amigo.
He got the job through a friend.

debaixo de (written) ‘under, beneath’:

debaixo da cama
under the bed.
defronte a (formal/literary) ‘before, in front of’:

As pessoas passavam defronte ao caixão.  
The people filed past before the coffin.

dentro de ‘inside, within’ (space or time):

O caixa eletrônico fica dentro do banco.  
The ATM machine is inside the bank.

O vale-desconto tem que ser usado dentro de seis meses.  
The discount voucher has to be used within six months.

embaixo de ‘under, underneath’:

embaixo da mesa  
under the table.

em cima de ‘on, on top of’:

em cima da geladeira  
on top of the fridge.

em frente de/a (also na frente de/a) ‘in front of’:

Conseguimos uma vaga em frente ao restaurante.  
We found a parking place in front of the restaurant.

‘in front of me/you/us’ is translated na minha/sua/nossa frente.

em meio a ‘amid, in the midst of’ (literal and figurative):

O helicóptero pousou em meio a uma nuvem de poeira.  
The helicopter landed amid a cloud of dust.

O ministro renunciou em meio a boatos de que teria aceito propinas.  
The minister resigned amid rumours that he had taken bribes.

fora de ‘outside’:

Ele mora fora da cidade.  
He lives outside the city.

longe de ‘a long way from, far from’ (literal and figurative):

longe de mim criticar os outros, mas . . .  
far be it from me to criticize other people, but . . .

A sua casa fica longe da estação de metrô?  
Is your house far from the underground station?

perto de ‘near, close to’ (literal and figurative):

O banco é perto da igreja.  
The bank is near the church.

A empresa tem perto de 20 mil funcionários.  
The company has close to 20,000 employees.
**PREPOSITIONS**

**por baixo de** ‘under’ *(suggesting movement or a wide expanse):*

Os canos passam por baixo do piso.
The pipes run under the floor.

**por cima de** ‘over’ *(suggesting movement or a wide expanse):*

O atacante chutou por cima da trave.
The striker’s shot went over the crossbar.

**por trás de** ‘behind’ *(suggesting movement, also figurative):*

A ferrovia passa por trás das casas.
The railway runs along behind the houses.

Ninguém sabe quem está por trás dos atentados.
No one knows who is behind the attacks.

**Compound prepositions of time**

**antes de** ‘before’:

antes do meio-dia
before midday.

depois de ‘after’:

depois do almoço
after lunch.

**quando de** *(written)* ‘at the time of’:

Ela tinha dez anos quando da queda do Muro de Berlim.
She was ten years old at the time of the fall of the Berlin Wall.

**Other compound prepositions**

**acerca de** *(formal)* ‘about, concerning’:

informações acerca do andamento do plano
information about the progress of the plan.

**a favor de** ‘in favour of’:

Alguns brasileiros são a favor da pena de morte.
Some Brazilians are in favour of the death penalty.

**ao invés de** ‘instead of’:

Ao invés de melhorar, o tempo só piorava.
Instead of improving, the weather just kept getting worse.

**a par de** ‘up to date with, aware of’, ‘in addition to, alongside’ *(formal):*

O ministro mantinha o presidente a par dos acontecimentos.
The minister kept the president up to date with developments.

A par de intercâmbios culturais, discutiram assuntos comerciais.
In addition to cultural exchanges, they discussed trade matters.
Other compound prepositions

**apesar de** ‘despite, in spite of’:

**Ele conseguiu, apesar das dificuldades.**
He succeeded, despite the difficulties.

▶ 51.1.6 (p. 356)

**a respeito de** ‘about, concerning’:

**Qual a sua opinião a respeito dessa questão?**
What is your opinion concerning this issue?

**de acordo com** ‘according to’:

**de acordo com as últimas informações**
according to the latest information.

**devido a** ‘due to, owing to’:

**A conta chegou atrasada devido à greve dos carteiros.**
The bill arrived late owing to the postmen’s strike.

**diante de** ‘in the face of, faced with’:

**O governo precisa tomar uma atitude diante dessa situação.**
The government must take action in the face of this situation.

**em direção a** ‘towards’:

**Ela começou a andar em direção à porta.**
She started to walk towards the door.

**em nome de** ‘on behalf of’:

**Em nome de todos, quero agradecer ao nosso anfitrião.**
On behalf of everyone, I would like to thank our host.

**em prol de** ‘in aid of, in the interests of’:

**O cantor lançou uma campanha em prol de crianças carentes.**
The singer launched a campaign in aid of children in need.

**em relação a** ‘in relation to, regarding’:

**Qual é a sua opinião em relação a esses acontecimentos?**
What is your opinion regarding these events?

**em vez de** ‘instead of’:

**Podemos nos encontrar na quinta em vez de quarta?**
Can we meet on Thursday instead of Wednesday?

**em virtude de** (formal) ‘by virtue of, in view of’:

**Em virtude do grande sucesso da peça, a atriz alcançou a fama nacional.**
By virtue of the great success of the play, the actress achieved nationwide fame.
grāças a ‘thanks to’:

A empresa detém 60% do mercado, graças ao sucesso desta marca.
The company has a 60 per cent market share thanks to the success of this brand.

junto a (formal) ‘with, from’:

É preciso solicitar um alvará junto à Prefeitura.
It is necessary to apply for a permit from City Hall.

para com (written) ‘towards’:

a intolerância para com os outros
intolerance towards others.

por causa de ‘because of’:

O aeroporto foi fechado por causa do mau tempo.
The airport was closed because of the bad weather.

‘because of me/you/us’ translates as por minha/sua/nossa causa.

por conta de ‘on account of’:

por conta da greve
on account of the strike

por meio de ‘through, by means of’:

por meio desta (in formal letter)
herewith

Por meio desse processo, é possível conservar os alimentos por mais tempo.
By means of this process, it is possible to keep foods for longer.
26

Conjunctions

26.1

Coordinating conjunctions

26.1.1

Additive conjunctions

e ‘and’:

mãe e filha
mother and daughter

Ele tentou e conseguiu.
He tried and succeeded.

não só . . . mas também or ainda, não só . . . senão também, não só . . . como também
‘not only . . . (but) also’:

Ela não só chegou atrasada, mas ainda me pediu para pagar o táxi.
She not only arrived late, she also asked me to pay her taxi fare.

nem ‘nor, or’ (*after a negative*):

Ele não é inteligente, nem bonito.
He’s not clever, or good-looking.

nem . . . nem ‘neither . . . nor’, ‘not . . . either . . . or’:

Não vou ter tempo, nem nesse fim de semana nem no outro.
I won’t have time, either this weekend or next.

tanto . . . como ‘both . . . and’:

tanto em português como em espanhol
in both Portuguese and Spanish.

26.1.2

Alternative conjunctions

ou ‘or’:

Você prefere chá ou café?
Would you rather have tea or coffee?

ou . . . ou ‘either . . . or’:

Podemos nos encontrar ou na sexta ou no sábado.
We can meet either on Friday or on Saturday.
Adversative conjunctions

mas ‘but’:

Não acho que vou ganhar, mas vou tentar.
I don’t think I’ll win, but I’ll try.

► 51.1.1 (p. 354)

mas sim ‘but’ (signalling a complete contrast after a negative):

Isso não é um luxo, mas sim uma necessidade.
This is not a luxury, but a necessity.

mesmo assim ‘even so’:

A temperatura deve cair. Mesmo assim, não há previsão de chuva.
The temperature is expected to drop. Even so, no rain is forecast.

porém (written) ‘but, however’:

Porém, a realidade é outra.
However, the reality is different.

► 51.1.2 (p. 354)

Other adversative conjunctions used in more formal written language are: contudo, entretanto, no entanto and todavia, all meaning ‘however’, and não obstante ‘nevertheless, notwithstanding’.

► 51.1.3 (p. 355)

Conclusive conjunctions

aí (spoken) ‘so, so then’:

Ela não estava, aí eu deixei um recado.
She wasn’t in, so I left a message.

daí ‘so, so then’; ‘hence’ (in more formal writing):

E daí?
So what?

A dengue pode matar. Daí a importância das medidas de prevenção.
Dengue fever can kill. Hence the importance of preventive measures.

então ‘so, then’:

Temos muito que fazer, então é melhor a gente começar logo.
We’ve got a lot to do, so we’d best get started right away.

por isso ‘so, for this reason, that is why’:

Eu quase não uso meu carro. Por isso decidi vendê-lo.
I hardly ever use my car. That’s why I’ve decided to sell it.
Existem cobras venenosas nesta região, portanto é preciso tomar cuidado.
There are poisonous snakes in this region, so care should be taken.

Other conclusive conjunctions are: consequentemente, por conseguinte (formal) ‘consequently’.

Subordinating conjunctions

Complementizers

 que ‘that’
The word que ‘that’ introduces an indirect statement, in some cases followed by a subjunctive verb (see Chapter 20). Note that the conjunction ‘that’ is frequently omitted in English, whereas que is obligatory in Portuguese:

Eu acho que vai chover.
I think it’s going to rain.

É importante que ela saiba a verdade.
It is important she (should) know the truth.

The que clause is often linked to the main clause with a preposition when the introductory element requires one and the appropriate translation in English is often ‘the fact that’:

Tenho certeza de que ele disse segunda-feira.
I’m sure he said Monday.

O médico insistiu em que a culpa não era do hospital.
The doctor insisted (on the fact) that it was not the hospital’s fault.

Estou acostumado a que as pessoas olhem para mim na rua.
I’m used to the fact that people look at me in the street.

The conjunction que can also be followed by sim and não to mean ‘so’ or ‘not’, or to abbreviate a positive or negative indirect statement:

Espero que sim.
I hope so.

Acho que não.
I don’t think so. / I think not.

Eu perguntei se era para levar roupa de cama, e ela falou que sim.
I asked if we should take bedding, and she said yes. / . . . she said we should.

Você acha que ele vai ligar? Eu aposto que não.
Do you think he’ll call? I bet he won’t.

NOTE

62 In fact, there are cases where omitting que is permissible to avoid repetition of the conjunction and in certain fixed turns of phrase, but such cases are extremely rare and limited to the most formal registers.
se 'if, whether'
The word se ‘if, whether’ introduces an indirect question:

Não sabemos se ele vai ou não voltar.
We don’t know whether he’s coming back or not.

Vou perguntar ao Eduardo se ele quer ir.
I’ll ask Eduardo if he wants to go.

Causal conjunctions

como ‘as, since’:

Como eles não têm carro, fiquei de levá-los no meu.
As they don’t have a car, I said I’d take them in mine.

já que ‘since’:

Já que você não tem nada que fazer, vem me ajudar aqui.
Since you don’t have anything to do, come over here and help me.

pois ‘as, for, because’:

Os médicos não querem trabalhar em hospitais públicos, pois os salários são muito baixos.
Doctors do not want to work in public hospitals as salaries are very low.

porque ‘because’:

Desistimos de ir porque ia ficar muito caro.
We decided not to go because it was going to be too expensive.

que ‘as’. This is a distinct usage from that of the subordinating que described above and is only really used in the spoken language to signal a vague causal connection. It is often impossible to translate into English:

Leva um guarda-chuva que é capaz de chover.
Take an umbrella as it might rain.

Não vai ter aula amanhã que o professor falou.
There’s no class tomorrow, the teacher said so.

uma vez que (written) ‘since, given that’:63

A situação se agrava uma vez que nenhuma das partes está disposta a recuar.
The situation is getting worse given that neither side is prepared to back down.

Other causal conjunctions used in writing are: dado que ‘given that’, visto que ‘seeing that, in view of the fact that’, posto que ‘given the fact that, considering that’.

63 When followed by the subjunctive, uma vez que means ‘provided that’.
Temporal conjunctions

The following temporal conjunctions require the future or imperfect subjunctive when the action of the temporal clause has not yet happened at the time of the main action, and the indicative when it has:

assim que, logo que ‘as soon as’:

Pode pedir para ele me ligar assim que chegar?
Can you ask him to call me as soon as he gets in?

Ele me ligou assim que chegou.
He called me as soon as he got in.

depois que ‘after’:

O comitê se reunirá depois que o presidente voltar de viagem.
The committee will meet after the chairman gets back from his trip.

Depois que construíram o prédio em frente, não tínhamos mais vista.
After they built the building opposite, we no longer had a view.

enquanto ‘while’, ‘as long as’:

O piloto diz que, enquanto estiver motivado, continuará na Fórmula 1.
The driver says that, as long as he’s motivated, he’ll stay in Formula 1.

As mulheres ficaram vendo TV enquanto os homens preparavam o jantar.
The women sat watching TV while the men fixed dinner.

quando ‘when’:

Ela disse que ia me avisar quando chegasse.
She said she would let me know when she arrived.

Quando alguém entra, toca um sino.
When someone comes in, a bell rings.

sempre que ‘whenever’:

Eu vou estar do seu lado sempre que você precisar de mim.
I will stand by you whenever you need me.

Ele me ajuda sempre que eu preciso.
He helps me whenever I need it.

The same applies to expressions such as toda vez que ‘every time (that)’, cada vez que ‘each/every time (that)’, a primeira/segunda, etc. próxim/a/últim/ma vez que ‘the first/second, etc./next/last time (that)”:

Toda vez que arranco, o carro morre.
Every time I move off, the car stalls.

A próxima vez que ele fizer isso, vou chamar a polícia.
Next time he does that, I’m going to call the police.

antes que ‘before’ is always followed by the present or imperfect subjunctive:

Tivemos que fazer várias concessões antes que o acordo fosse firmado.
We had to make various concessions before the agreement was signed.
até que 'until' is followed by the present or imperfect subjunctive when the action of the
‘until’ clause is not yet actual fact, and by the indicative when it is:

Ela tinha que cuidar do irmão até que a mãe voltasse do trabalho.
She had to look after her brother until her mother got back from work.
(i.e. she had been instructed to, or she used to have to, as long as her mother
was not back)

Ela teve que cuidar do irmão até que a mãe voltou do trabalho.
She had to look after her brother until her mother got back from work.
(i.e. on that occasion she looked after him until her mother actually got home)

desde que ‘since’65 is followed by the preterite referring to an action that occurred at a
single point in the past, and by the present or imperfect indicative referring to an action
that started in the past and continues at the time of speaking:

Ela mora sozinha, desde que ficou viúva em 2002.
She has been living alone since she was widowed in 2002.

Desde que ele estuda na faculdade, o inglês dele vem melhorando.
Since he’s been studying at university, his English has been improving.

agora que ‘now (that)’:

Agora que ele aprendeu a nadar, vai à piscina todos os dias.
Now he’s learnt to swim, he goes to the pool every day.

mal ‘no sooner . . . than’, ‘hardly . . . when’:

Mal sentamos para jantar, o telefone tocou.
No sooner had we sat down to dinner than the phone rang.

ora . . . ora (literary) ‘now . . . now’, ‘one moment . . ., the next . . .’, ‘sometimes . . .
sometimes’:

A peça ora faz rir, ora comove.
The play makes you laugh one moment and moves you the next.

Concessive conjunctions

ainda que ‘even if, even though’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:

Ainda que a história não seja muito original, o filme é divertido.
Even though the story is not very original, the film is entertaining.

apesar de que ‘despite the fact that’, followed by the indicative:

Os negócios vão bem, apesar de que o país está em plena recessão.
Business is going well, despite the fact that the country is in the middle of a
recession.

NOTES

64 In expressions such as 'It's the second time I've seen this film', 'This is the first time I've been to
Brazil', Portuguese uses the present tense in place of the English perfect: É a segunda vez que
vejo esse filme. É a primeira vez que venho ao Brasil.

65 desde que meaning 'as long as, provided that' is followed by the subjunctive.
embora ‘although’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:

Estamos otimistas, embora ainda haja vários obstáculos a superar.
We are optimistic, although there are still a number of obstacles to overcome.

Por mais que ‘as much as’, por . . . que ‘. . . as it may’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:

Por mais que eu goste dele, não quero começar um namoro.
As much as I like him, I don’t want to start a relationship.

Por incrível que pareça, ela sobreviveu.
Incredible as it may seem, she survived.

quer . . . quer, quer . . . ou ‘whether . . . or . . .’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:

Quer queira ou não, ela vai ter que arrumar emprego.
Whether she likes it or not, she’ll have to find a job.

se bem que ‘even though, although’, followed by the indicative:

O aluguel é caro, se bem que é razoável para aquele bairro.
The rent is expensive, even though it’s reasonable for that neighbourhood.

In formal written language, se bem que may also be followed by the subjunctive.

seja . . . seja . . . ‘be it . . . or’, ‘whether (it be) . . . or’:

O pagamento tem que ser à vista, seja em reais, seja em dólares.
Payment must be in full, whether in reals or dollars.

sem que ‘without’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:

Seria impossível eles saírem sem que ninguém os visse.
It would be impossible for them to get out without anyone seeing them.

só que ‘only, except (that)’, followed by the indicative:

Eu sei que ela mora nessa rua, só que não lembro que número.
I know she lives in this street, only I can’t remember which number.

enquanto ‘while, whereas’:

Ela optou por Exatas, enquanto a irmã estuda Letras.
She went for sciences, while her sister is studying literature.
ao passo que (written) ‘whereas’:
O desempenho escolar das meninas está melhorando, ao passo que o dos meninos piora a cada ano.
Girls’ academic performance is improving, whereas that of boys gets worse every year.

**Conditional conjunctions**

a não ser que, a menos que ‘unless’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:
Um estrangeiro residente no Brasil não pode votar, a não ser que se naturalize.
A foreigner resident in Brazil cannot vote unless he/she becomes naturalized.
► 50.4.8 (p. 352)

caso ‘if’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:
O candidato promete, caso ele ganhe a eleição, acabar com a corrupção.
The candidate promises to put an end to corruption if he wins the election.
► 50.4.1 (p. 351)

contanto que (formal) ‘provided (that)’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:
Ele concordou em ser entrevistado, contanto que não filmassem o rosto dele.
He agreed to be interviewed, provided they did not film his face.
► 50.4.5 (p. 352)

desde que ‘as long as, providing (that)’, uma vez que ‘once, provided that’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:
Vocês podem continuar assistindo TV, desde que abaixem o volume.
You can carry on watching TV as long as you turn the volume down.
► 50.4.5, 50.4.6 (p. 352)

mesmo que ‘even if, even though’, followed by the present/imperfect subjunctive:
Mesmo que me oferecessem mais dinheiro, não aceitaria as condições.
Even if they offered me more money, I would not accept the conditions.
► 50.4.9 (p. 353); 51.1.5 (p. 355)

se ‘if’, usually followed by the future/imperfect subjunctive (see 20.5):
Se eu precisar, ele vai me ajudar.
If I need it, he will help me.

Se eu precisasse, ele me ajudaria.
If I needed it, he would help me.
► Chapter 50 (p. 348)
Comparative conjunctions

assim como ‘just like/as’, ‘as well as’:

Ele passava as próprias camisas, assim como sua mãe tinha ensinado.
He would iron his own shirts, just as his mother had taught him.

O espaço abriga exposições e palestras, assim como outros eventos.
The venue is home to exhibitions and lectures, as well as other events.

como ‘as, like’:

uma pessoa como eu
a person like me

Tudo aconteceu exatamente como ele descreveu.
Everything happened exactly as he described.

como se ‘as if’, followed by the imperfect subjunctive:

Ela gritou comigo, como se a culpa fosse minha.
She shouted at me, as if it were my fault.

do jeito que (spoken) ‘the way (that)’:

Ele não vai durar muito, do jeito que ele bebe.
He won’t last long the way he drinks.

do que ‘than’:

Foi mais difícil do que imaginávamos.
It was more difficult than we imagined.

feito ‘like’ (colloquial):

Ela estava correndo para todos os lados feito uma barata tonta.
She was running around in all directions like a headless chicken. (literally, a dizzy cockroach)

que nem ‘like’ (informal):

Ele fala português que nem brasileiro.
He speaks Portuguese like a Brazilian.

Que nem minha mãe dizia, tudo se ajeita com o tempo.
Like my mum used to say, time heals all wounds.

tanto como ‘as much as’, tão . . . como ‘as . . . as’:

Eu não malho tanto como meu irmão.
I don’t work out as much as my brother.

Ela canta tão bem como toca violão.
She sings as well as she plays the guitar.
Proportional conjunctions

à medida que ‘inasmuch as’, ‘as’:

Ele é culpado à medida que sabia do complô.
He is guilty inasmuch as he knew about the plot.

À medida que envelhecemos, ficamos mais sábios.
As we get older, we get wiser.

conforme ‘as’:

Conforme você vai jogando, o jogo fica cada vez mais difícil.
As you go on playing, the game gets more and more difficult.

quanto mais . . . mais ‘the more . . . the more’:

Quanto mais ele se dedica à carreira, menos tempo sobra para a família.
The more he devotes himself to his career, the less time is left over for his family.

Conformative conjunctions

conforme ‘in accordance with what, as’:

Fizemos a experiência conforme o professor explicou.
We did the experiment as the teacher had explained.

segundo ‘according to what’:

Segundo dizem, ela é milionária.
According to what people say, she’s a millionaire. / She’s said to be a millionaire.

Final conjunctions

These conjunctions are all followed by present/imperfect subjunctive when they have final meaning:

a fim de que (written) ‘so that, in order that’:

Temos que redobrar os cuidados, a fim de que isso não volte a acontecer.
We must take greater care in order that this does not happen again.

para que ‘in order that’:

É preciso tomar uma atitude para que essas espécies não desapareçam.
Action is needed in order that these species do not disappear.

de forma que, de maneira que, de modo que ‘so that, such that’:

É importante aumentar o consumo de forma que a economia cresça.
It is important to increase consumer spending so that the economy grows.
26.3

Consecutive conjunctions

de forma que, de maneira que, de modo que ‘so that, with the result that’, followed by the indicative:

O consumo aumentou, de maneira que a economia cresceu.
Consumer spending increased with the result that the economy grew.

tão . . . que ‘so . . . that’, tanto que ‘so much that’:

Eu me sentia tão fraco que nem conseguia sair da cama.
I was feeling so weak I couldn’t even get out of bed.

Ele insistiu tanto que eu acabei cedendo.
He insisted so much I ended up giving in.

Explanatory conjunction

sendo que ‘(with) . . . ing’, followed by the indicative:

Dez pessoas foram levadas ao hospital, sendo que duas em estado grave.
Ten people were taken to hospital, two being in serious condition.

As propostas são votadas pelos membros do comitê, sendo que o presidente só vota em caso de empate.
Proposals are voted on by the members of the committee, (with) the chairman only voting in the event of a tie.

Preposition vs. conjunction

The temporal conjunctions antes que ‘before’, depois que ‘after’ and até que ‘until’, the concessive apesar de que ‘despite the fact that’ and sem que ‘without’, and the final conjunction para que ‘in order that’ are replaced by the corresponding preposition (antes de, depois de, até, apesar de, sem and para respectively) when the subjects of the main and subordinate clauses are one and the same:

Comemos um lanche antes de voltar para casa.
We had a snack before we went home.

By employing the personal infinitive, the prepositions can be used instead of the corresponding conjunctions even when the subjects of the two clauses are different, and there is a marked preference for using this prepositional construction, especially in the spoken language:

Vamos arrumar aqui antes dos convidados chegarem.
Let’s clear up here before the guests arrive.

Seria impossível eles saírem sem ninguém vê-los.
It would be impossible for them to get out without anyone seeing them.

Gerund vs. conjunction

The idea of ‘although, even though, even if’ is frequently rendered using mesmo followed by a gerund, especially in the spoken language:

Mesmo indo de táxi, chegamos atrasados.
Even though we went by taxi, we got there late.

Mesmo ele me implorando, eu não vou.
Even if he begs me, I’m not going.
Word order

Word order in statements

The order of words in statements is largely the same as in English, apart from the following cases:

(i) Adverbs of manner cannot be placed between subject and verb as they often are in English. In Portuguese, the neutral position for an adverb of manner (i.e. when it is has no special emphasis on it) is immediately after the verb and preceding any direct object:

Ela abriu cuidadosamente a caixa.
She carefully opened the box.

This rule on adverb placement applies equally to short prepositional phrases that function as adverbials, notably indirect objects introduced by a or para:

O professor deu aos alunos os resultados da prova.
The teacher gave the students the results of the test.

The adverb or adverbial phrase can be placed after the direct object when it is to be given special emphasis. Compare the following:

Ele fala muito bem inglês. (no special emphasis, or emphasis on inglês)
He speaks English very well.

Ele fala inglês muito bem. (emphasis on muito bem)
He speaks English really well.

O João escreveu à namorada uma carta.
João wrote his girlfriend a letter.

O João escreveu uma carta à namorada.
João wrote a letter to his girlfriend.

In the case of the last two examples, the first answers the question ‘What did João do?’ or ‘What did João write to his girlfriend?’, whereas the second answers the question ‘Who did João write a letter to?’.

(ii) When the subject of the sentence is indefinite, the verb can precede it. This has the effect of placing greater emphasis on the subject, and is often equivalent to starting a sentence with ‘There’ in English:

Ligou um tal de Ricardo.
Someone called Ricardo called. / There was a call from a Ricardo.
Word order in questions

Unlike English, subject and verb are not normally inverted in questions in Portuguese. The only difference between a yes–no question and a statement is the question intonation in speech and the question mark in writing:

**Ele fala português.**
He speaks Portuguese.

**Ele fala português?**
Does he speak Portuguese?

However, inversion does occur in the following cases:

(i) When the question is introduced by an interrogative word and the verb is *ser, estar, ficar* or a verb with equivalent meaning. If the subject is a pronoun, inversion is optional:

**Como andam os negócios?**
How’s business?

**Onde ele está? or Onde está ele?**
Where is he?

(ii) In very formal writing:

**Tinha Marx uma teoria sistemática e completa das crises do capital?**
Did Marx have a systematic and complete theory of the crises of capital?

Word order in indirect questions

In indirect questions introduced by an interrogative word, the subject and verb are usually inverted when the subject is a noun and the verb is intransitive or means ‘to be’:

**Você sabe a que horas sai o voo?**
Do you know what time the flight leaves?

**Ele me perguntou onde estava a escritura da casa.**
He asked me where the deeds of the house were.
28

Word formation

28.1

Diminutives

28.1.1

Formation of the diminutive

The diminutive form of nouns and adjectives is formed as follows:

(i) With nouns and adjectives that end in unstressed -o, -a or -e, this final vowel is replaced with the ending -inho or -inha according to the gender of the word:

- *dedo* ‘finger’ > *dedinho* ‘little finger’
- *casa* ‘house’ > *casinha* ‘little house’
- *dente* ‘tooth’ (masc.) > *dentinho* ‘little tooth’
- *fome* ‘hunger’ (fem.) > *fominha* ‘slight hunger’
- *saco* ‘bag’ > *saquinho* ‘little bag, sachet’

*(NB: change of -c- to -qu- to preserve hard c sound)*

- *bonito* ‘handsome, good-looking’ > *bonitinho* ‘cute’
- *bonita* ‘pretty’ > *bonitinha* ‘cute’
- *quento* ‘warm’ > *quentinho/quentinha* ‘nice and warm’
- *brega* ‘tacky, naff’ > *breguinha* ‘slightly tacky, naff’

*(NB: change of -g- to -gu- to preserve hard g sound)*

(ii) The ending -inho/-inha is also added to nouns and adjectives ending in -s or -z:

- *japonês* ‘Japanese man’ > *japonesinho* ‘little Japanese guy’
- *voz* ‘voice’ (fem.) > *vozinha* ‘little voice’.

(iii) With all other nouns, i.e. those ending in a stressed vowel, a nasal vowel, -l, -m, or -r, the ending -zinho/-zinha is added to the word. This also applies to nouns ending in -io or -ia:

- *papel* ‘paper’ (masc.) > *papelzinho* ‘scrap of paper’
- *mão* ‘hand’ (fem.) > *mãozinha* ‘little hand’
- *trem* ‘train’ (masc.) > *trenzinho* ‘little train’

*(NB: change of -m to -n before the diminutive ending)*

- *flor* ‘flower’ (fem.) > *florzinha* ‘little flower’
- *tia* ‘aunt’ > *tiazinha* ‘auntie’
- *melhor* ‘better’ > *melhorzinho/melhorzinha* ‘a little better’.
(iv) As the spoken stress is always on the i of the diminutive ending, any other written accents are dropped:

- café ‘coffee’ > cafezinho ‘small black coffee’
- só ‘alone’ > sozinho ‘all alone’
- pássaro ‘bird’ > passarinho ‘little bird, birdie’.

(v) With nouns ending in -l and those ending in -ão, the plural stem (plural form minus -s) is used before the diminutive ending when the diminutive itself is pluralized:

- animal ‘animal’ > animalzinho ‘little animal’, but
- animais ‘animals’ > animaizinhos ‘little animals’
- pão ‘bread’ > pãozinho ‘bread roll’, but
- pães ‘loaves’ > pãezinhos ‘bread rolls’
- botão ‘button, bud’ > botãozinho ‘little button, little bud’, but
- botões ‘buttons, buds’ > botôezinhos ‘little buttons, little buds’.

### Meaning of the diminutive

The diminutive of a noun is often used simply to denote smallness:

- **Tem uma manchinha nessa camisa.**
  There’s a little stain on this shirt.

- **Ele anota tudo num livrinho.**
  He notes everything down in a little book.

However, it very often connotes cuteness, affection or pleasantness, as does ‘little’ in English:

- **Adoro pezinho de bebê.**
  I love babies’ little feet.

- **Estou com saudades da minha mãezinha.**
  I miss my little old mum.

- **Que tal uma cervejinha gelada?**
  What about a nice cold beer?

Some diminutive nouns have become lexicalized with a specific meaning (although this does not exclude their use as true diminutives):

- carrinho ‘toy car’ (but can also mean ‘little car’)
- cafezinho ‘small black coffee’
- bondinho ‘cable car’.

Diminutive adjectives have the connotation of ‘nice and . . .’ or having a quality to exactly the desirable degree:

- **A roupa já está sequinha.**
  The washing is already good and dry.
Está quentinho ao pé da lareira.
It’s nice and warm by the fire.

Aquela mesa que compramos cabe direitinho ao lado do sofá.
That table we bought fits in exactly next to the sofa.

A roupa estava dobradinha em cima da cama.
The clothes were nicely folded on the bed.

Prontinho!
All done!

The diminutive can also be used to temper the degree of an unpleasant quality:

Está friozinho lá fora.
It’s chilly outside.

A filha deles é feinha.
Their daughter’s rather plain.

A festa foi meio chatinha.
The party was a bit dull.

**Augmentatives**

**Formation of the augmentative**
The augmentative of nouns and adjectives is formed as follows:

(i) With nouns and adjectives that end in unstressed -o, -a or -e, this final vowel is replaced with the ending -ão or -ona according to the gender of the word:

- dedo ‘finger’ > dedão ‘thumb, big toe’
- mesa ‘table’ > mesona ‘big table’
- peixe ‘fish’ (masc.) > peixão ‘big fish’
- bonito ‘handsome, good-looking’ > bonitão ‘very good-looking’
- bonita ‘pretty’ > bonitona ‘gorgeous’
- grande ‘warm’ > grandão/grandona ‘really big’.

(ii) With other nouns, the ending -zão/-zona is added to the word. This also applies to nouns ending in -io or -ia:

- pai ‘father’ (masc.) > paizão ‘dedicated father’
- mãe ‘mother’ (fem.) > mãezona ‘dedicated mother’
- tio ‘uncle’ > tiozão ‘dedicated uncle’
- sol ‘sun’ > solzão ‘hot sun, bright sunshine’.

(iii) Some nouns ending in -l and -r add -ão/-ona:

- papel ‘paper’ (masc.) > papelão ‘cardboard’
- colher ‘spoon’ (fem.) > colherona ‘large spoon(ful)’.
(iv) As the spoken stress is always on the augmentative ending, any other written accents are dropped:

pé ‘foot’ > pezão ‘big foot’.

(v) In some cases, feminine nouns become masculine in the augmentative form:

cabeça ‘head’ > cabeçao ‘big head’
mão ‘hand’ (fém.) > mãozão ‘big hand’
mulher ‘woman’ > mulherão ‘striking woman’.

(vi) In general, the augmentative form is less predictable than the diminutive and there are some irregular augmentatives in frequent use:

casa ‘house’ > casarão ‘mansion, big house’
voz ‘voice’ > vozeirão ‘powerful voice’
homem ‘man’ > homenzarrão or, colloquially, homão ‘imposing man’.

### 28.2.2 Meaning of the augmentative

The augmentative is mainly used for emphasis, when stressing the large size of something or the powerful impression it makes:

Ele tem um narigão!
He has a huge nose!

Aquela estante é pesadona.
That bookcase is really heavy.

Ele bate um bolão.
He plays a mean game of football.

Some augmentatives have become lexicalized with a distinct meaning:

caisa ‘box’ > caixão ‘coffin, casket’
papel ‘paper’ > papelão ‘cardboard’
sacola ‘carrier bag’ > sacolão ‘fruit and vegetable market’
mochila ‘backpack, rucksack’ > mochilão ‘backpacking tour’.

### 28.3 The appreciative suffix -aço

The suffix -aço is added to nouns to express appreciation:

Que golaço!
What a great goal!

Foi um jogaço.
It was a fantastic game.

### 28.4 The depreciative suffix -eco

The suffix -eco is added to a few nouns to express contempt:

um filmeco ‘a really bad film, a turkey’
um jornaleco ‘a low-quality newspaper, a rag’.
Verbal nouns ending in \textit{-ada/-ida}

\subsection*{Formation}
The feminine form of the past participle (see 17.2) can be used as a noun:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{olhar} ‘to look’ \rightarrow \textit{uma olhada} ‘a look’
  \item \textit{ler} ‘to read’ \rightarrow \textit{uma lida} ‘a read’.
\end{itemize}

\subsection*{Usage}
Such nouns are normally combined with the verb \textit{dar} to mean ‘to have a . . .’:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{dar uma olhada} ‘to have a look’
  \item \textit{dar uma deitada} ‘to have a lie-down’
  \item \textit{dar uma dormidinha} ‘to have a little snooze’.
\end{itemize}

If the verbal noun has an object, it is introduced with the preposition \textit{em}:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{Dei uma lida no jornal.}
  I had a read of the newspaper.
  \item \textit{Vou dar uma limpadinha nesses vidros.}
  I’m going to give these windows a bit of a clean.
\end{itemize}

Instrumental nouns ending in \textit{-ada}

\subsection*{Formation}
The ending \textit{-ada} can be added to nouns denoting objects, to mean ‘a blow with a . . .’:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{martelo} ‘hammer’ \rightarrow \textit{uma martelada} ‘a blow with a hammer’
  \item \textit{pedra} ‘stone’ \rightarrow \textit{uma pedrada} ‘a blow with a stone’
  \item \textit{faca} ‘knife’ \rightarrow \textit{uma facada} ‘a wound with a knife’
  \item \textit{pau} ‘stick, club’ \rightarrow \textit{uma paulada} ‘a blow with a stick’.
\end{itemize}

\subsection*{Usage}
Such nouns are mainly used in the following constructions:

\begin{itemize}
  \item (i) \textit{dar uma . . . em alguém/algo} ‘to hit someone/something with a . . .’:

    \begin{itemize}
      \item \textit{O assaltante deu uma coronhada no gerente do banco.}
      The robber pistol-whipped the bank manager.
    \end{itemize}
  \item (ii) \textit{levar uma . . .} ‘to be/get hit with a . . .’:

    \begin{itemize}
      \item \textit{O jogador levou uma bolada na cara.}
      The player got hit in the face with the ball.
    \end{itemize}
  \item (iii) \textit{a . . . s, com uma . . .} ‘with . . .’:

    \begin{itemize}
      \item \textit{Os aldeões mataram a cobra a pauladas.}
      The villagers killed the snake by hitting it with sticks.
      \item \textit{O ator agrediu um fotógrafo com uma cabeçada.}
      The actor head-butted a photographer.
    \end{itemize}
\end{itemize}
Collective nouns ending in -ada

Formation
The ending -ada can be added to nouns denoting living beings to form collective nouns:

- criança ‘child’ > criançada ‘kids’
- mulher ‘woman’ > mulherada ‘women’
- rapaz ‘lad, guy’ > rapaziada ‘lads, guys’ (notice extra i here)
- cachorro ‘dog’ > cachorrada ‘dogs’.

Usage
Such nouns are mainly used with the definite article or as forms of address. They are informal and can sometimes have an overtone of contempt, but not necessarily:

- Levamos a criançada para tomar sorvete.
  We took the kids to get ice cream.
- A mulherada adora filme romântico.
  Women love romantic films.
- Vamos embora, rapaziada.
  Let’s get going, lads.
Part B

Functions
Social contact and communication strategies
Making social contacts

This chapter contains the most useful expressions used by Brazilians to establish social contacts, such as when greeting or introducing people, taking leave, using the phone or writing letters. Many of these are set phrases; others are constructions that vary according to context. Reference is made to register where appropriate, so you will know whether a certain expression is formal or informal, or whether it tends to be used more in the spoken or written language.

### Greeting someone

The most common greetings are:

- **Bom dia.**
  Good morning.

- **Boa tarde.**
  Good afternoon.

- **Boa noite.**
  Good evening.

- **Oi!**
  Hi!

- **Olá!**
  Hello!

- **Tudo bem?**
  Hi! How are you?

The first three greetings are neutral, and can be used in both formal and familiar address. **Oi!** is informal, whereas **Olá!** is neutral. **Tudo bem?** is fairly informal. Some greetings can be combined, such as **Olá, bom dia** ‘Hello, good morning.’

**Bom dia, Boa tarde** and **Boa noite** may also be said when taking leave, especially in more formal situations, in which case they are equivalent to ‘Have a nice day’, ‘Have a nice afternoon’, ‘Have a nice evening / Good night’ respectively.

You will also hear an array of other informal greetings, mainly used by younger people, such as:

- **E ai?**
  What’s up?

- **E ai, beleza?**
  Things OK with you?
Everything OK?

Fala . . . ! (followed by the person’s name or a form of address such as meu or cara, equivalent to ‘man’, ‘mate’ ‘buddy’)
Hey . . . , what’s happening?

In both formal and informal situations, it is customary to shake hands, not only when you are first introduced, but also on subsequent meetings. Between friends and in informal social situations, opposite sexes kiss each other on the cheek (on both cheeks in Rio and further north, on one cheek in São Paulo and the south). On first meeting, opposite sexes may shake hands, particularly when one or both are older. Female friends kiss each other on the cheek, while male friends shake hands while patting each other on the back, or place one arm around the other’s shoulder while patting his chest affectionately. Good friends of both sexes may also embrace, and male relatives (and sometimes good friends) kiss each other, regardless of age.

Conveying greetings
Brazilians are quite assiduous about conveying greetings. To pass on greetings to a third person, use:

Informal:

Manda um abraço para o Ricardo. *(from a man to a man, or to someone you know less well)*
Say hi to Ricardo from me.

Manda um beijo para a Sueli. *(to someone you know very well, not usually used from a man to a man)*
Give my love to Sueli.

More formal:

Dê lembranças aos seus pais.
Give my regards to your parents.

Dê lembranças minhas à sua família.
Give my regards to your family.

Formal:

Estenda meus cumprimentos a todos.
Extend my compliments to all.

To pass on someone else’s greetings, use the following:

Informal:

O Paulo mandou um abraço. *(from a man to a man, or when the relationship is less close)*
Paulo says hi.
A Cristina mandou um beijo. *(between close friends or relatives, not usually between male friends)*

Cristina sends her love.

More formal:

O meu pai mandou lembranças.

My father sends regards.

When conveying a greeting from someone who is with you (e.g. when talking to a third party on the phone), the present continuous is used in the above expressions:

O Vinícius está mandando um abraço. Ele está aqui do meu lado.

Vinicius is saying hi. He’s here next to me.

To respond to a greeting from a third party, you should always say thank you *(obrigado if said by a male, obrigada if said by a female)* and you may return an informal greeting as follows:

Manda outro para ele/ela.

Send him/her mine, too.

**Asking people how they are**

To ask someone how he or she is, use the following expressions:

Informal:

Tudo bem? / Tudo bom?

How’s things?

Tudo bem com você?

You doing OK?

Você está bem?  

Are you well?

Está bom/boa?

Are you OK?

Como é que (você) está?

How are you?

E aí?

What’s up?

More formal:

Como vai?

How are you?

**Note**

Remember that, in informal spoken language, the verb *estar* and all its conjugated forms are pronounced without the initial *es*, so *está* and *estou* are pronounced /ta/ and /to/ respectively.
To reply to the above expressions, use the following:

Informal:

Tudo bem.
Fine.

Estou bem.
I’m OK.

Tudo ótimo.
Really well.

Tudo joia. / (Tudo) beleza. / Tudo em cima. / Tudo certo.
Great.

Formal:

Vou bem, obrigado (male speaker) / obrigada (female speaker).
I’m fine, thanks.

Any of these expressions can be followed by E você? ‘And you?’ ‘How about you?’ If things are not so good, you can use one of the following expressions:

Mais ou menos.
So so.

Vou levando.
I’m getting by.

Não posso me queixar.
Can’t complain.

Está indo.
OK, I suppose.

To ask how someone else is, use:

Como vai a sua mãe?
How’s your mother?

Como vão os seus filhos?
How are your children?

E o seu irmão?
How about your brother?

E as gêmeas?
What about the twins?

Introducing yourself and others

Introducing yourself

Standard expressions are:

Sou . . .
I’m . . .
Introducing yourself and others

Meu nome é . . .
My name is . . .

Or formally:

Apresento-me. Meu nome é . . .
I’ll introduce myself. My name is . . .

Deixe eu me apresentar.
Allow me to introduce myself.

Introducing others

Using the neutral register you can say:

Essa é a minha esposa.
This is my wife.

Esse é o Tiago.
This is Tiago.

Você já conhece a Ana?
Have you met Ana? / Do you know Ana?

Deixe eu apresentar meu pai.
Let me introduce my dad.

Quero te apresentar o meu primo, Bruno.
I’d like to introduce you to my cousin, Bruno.

If you have already met the person you are being introduced to, you can say:

Informal:

A gente já se conhece.
We’ve already met / We already know each other.

A gente já foi apresentado.
We’ve already been introduced.

Formal:

Já nos conhecemos.
We’ve already met.

Já fomos apresentados.
We’ve already been introduced.

The standard greetings in an introduction are:

Informal:

Oi, tudo bem?
Hi, how are you?

Neutral register:

Prazer.
Nice to meet you.
Formal:

Como vai?
How do you do?

Muito prazer.
Very nice to meet you.

Prazer em conhecer-lo (to a male) / conhecer-la (to a female).
It's a pleasure to meet you.

When taking leave of someone you have just met for the first time, you can say:

Foi um prazer.
It was nice meeting you.

To which the standard response is:

O prazer foi meu.
The pleasure was mine.

Taking leave

Common leave-taking expressions are:

Tchau.
Bye.

Até logo. (slightly formal)
Goodbye.

Boa noite. (when leaving for the night or going to bed)
Goodnight.

A gente se vê. (informal)
Be seeing you.

A gente se vê amanhã. (informal)
See you tomorrow.

A gente se vê por aí. (informal)
See you around.

The preposition até can be combined with an expression of time corresponding to ‘see you . . .’:

Até amanhã.
See you tomorrow.

Até a semana que vem.
See you next week.

Até sábado.
See you Saturday.

Até já.
See you shortly.

Até daqui a pouco.
See you in a bit.
Expressing wishes

Expressing wishes

Wishing someone a good trip

Boa viagem!
Have a good trip!

Aproveite!
Have a good time!

Divirta-se! / Divirtam-se!
Enjoy yourself! / Enjoy yourselves!

Wishing someone well

Boa sorte!
Good luck!

Tudo de bom!
All the best!

Te cuida (aí)!
Take care (of yourself)!

Felicidades! / Muita felicidade!
Be happy!

Muita saúde!
Be healthy!

Wishing someone a good sleep or rest

Bom descanso!
Have a good rest!

Durma bem!
Sleep well!

Durma com os anjos!
Sweet dreams!

Wishing someone better

Melhoras!
Get well! / Get better!
Drinking a toast and telling someone to enjoy their meal

- **Saúde!**
- **Cheers!**
- **À nossa!**
- **Here’s to us!**
- **Aos noivos!**
- **To the bride and groom!**
- **Bom apetite!** *(said when encountering someone who is eating or by waiting staff when serving food)*
- **Enjoy your meal!**

More examples of wishes with *bom*/*boa*

- **Bom fim de semana!**
- **Have a nice weekend!**
- **Bom trabalho!**
- **Hope work goes OK!**
- **Boa aula!**
- **Have a good lesson!**
- **Bom passeio!**
- **Have a nice day out!**

To return the good wishes, say:

**Informal:**

- *(Para) você também.*
  - You too.

**More formal:**

- **Igualmente.**
  - Likewise. / The same to you.

Congratulating somebody

The general word for congratulating is:

- **Parabéns!**
- **Congratulations!**

More formally, you can say:

- **Meus parabéns!**
- **My congratulations!**

Other informal expressions that can be used when congratulating someone are:

- **Você merece!**
- **You deserve it!**
Using the phone

Que máximo!
Fantastic!

Toca aqui!
Give me five!

Você arrasou! / Você arrebentou!
You were awesome! / You rocked!

Mandou bem!
Good one!

Muito bem!
Well done! / Good job!

Specific expressions used on special occasions are:

Feliz Natal!
Merry Christmas!

Feliz Ano Novo!
Happy New Year!

Feliz Páscoa!
Happy Easter!

Parabéns! / Feliz aniversário!
Happy Birthday!

Note that Parabéns! is much more common than Feliz Aniversário! as a formula for wishing someone a happy birthday. This is borne out in the expressions dar os parabéns a alguém ‘to wish someone a happy birthday’ and cantar parabéns ‘to sing happy birthday’.

Using the phone

Answering the phone

The word for ‘hello?’ on the phone is alô?:

Alô? Quem fala?
Hello? Who’s speaking?

Asking to speak to someone

Informal:

A Karina está, por favor?
Is Karina there, please?

O Fábio está por aí?
Is Fabio around?

Me passa a sua irmã.
Put your sister on, would you?
Formal:

Queria falar com o gerente, por favor.
I’d like to speak to the manager, please.

Poderia falar com o Dr. Sérgio, por favor?
Could I speak to Dr Sérgio, please?

**29.8.3 Asking who is calling**

To ask callers to identify themselves, use:

Quem fala?
Who’s speaking?

Com quem eu falo?
Who am I speaking to?

De onde fala?
Who’s speaking? (when it is a business call)

Quem quer falar?
Who shall I say is calling?

Quem gostaria? / Quem deseja? (more formal)
Who shall I say is calling?

**29.8.4 Identifying yourself**

To identify who is calling say:

É o Pedro.
It’s Pedro.

Quem fala é a Sandra.
This is Sandra speaking.

Sou eu.
That’s me.

É ele/ela.
Speaking.

**29.8.5 Asking callers if they wish to leave a message**

Quer deixar recado?
Would you like leave a message?

Posso dar um recado para ele/ela?
Can I give him/her a message?

Algum recado?
Any message?

**29.8.6 Leaving a message**

Posso deixar um recado para ele/ela? (polite)
Can I leave him/her a message?
Using the phone

Poderia dar um recado para ele/ela? (more formal)
Could you give him/her a message?

Faça o favor de dizer a ele/ela que . . . (more formal)
Please would you tell him/her that . . .

Você pode falar para ele/ela que . . . (neutral)
Can you tell him/her that . . .

Fala para ele/ela que . . . (informal)
Tell him/her that . . .

O senhor / Você pede para ele/ela me ligar? (polite)
Would you ask him/her to call me?

Fala para ele/ela me ligar. (informal)
Tell him/her to call me.

Asking for an extension number or department

Ramal 596 (cinco nove meia), por favor.
Extension 596, please.

Poderia me passar o departamento de vendas, por favor?
Could you put me through to the sales department, please?

Asking the caller to hold on

Informal:

Só um minutinho. / Momentinho.
Just a minute.

Formal:

Momento, por favor.
Just a moment, please.

Aguarde na linha.
Hold the line.

Vou passar a ligação (para . . .).
I’ll put you through (to . . .).

Vou passar a Dra. Maira.
I’m putting you through to Dr Maira.

Talking to an operator

Quero fazer uma ligação interurbana/internacional.
I want to make a long-distance/international call.

Como é que eu faço para fazer uma ligação para fora?
How do I go about making an external call?

O número é o 2577 8901.
The number is 2577 8901.
Qual é o DDD/DDI de . . . ?
What’s the area code/country code for . . . ?

Qual o número da operadora?
What’s the number of the long-distance carrier?

Quero fazer uma ligação a cobrar.
I want to make a collect call/a reverse-charge call.

Problems

Não consigo completar a ligação.
I can’t get through.

Toca, toca, mas ninguém atende.
There’s no answer.

Está dando ocupado.
I get the busy signal/engaged tone.

Está ocupado.
It’s busy/engaged.

É uma gravação.
It’s a recorded message.

Para falar com um dos nossos atendentes, digite 9.
To speak to one of our operators, press 9.

Estava falando com . . . , e a ligação caiu.
I was speaking to . . . , and I/we got cut off.

Não estou te ouvindo.
I can’t hear you.

A ligação está ruim/péssima.
It’s a bad/terrible line.

Se cair, é porque minha bateria está fraca.
If we get cut off, it’s because my battery’s dying.

In Brazil, phone numbers are read in single figures, pairs, or a combination of both, so a number like 2539 2680 could be read dois-cinco-três-nove – dois-meia-oito-zero, or vinte e cinco – trinta e nove – vinte seis – oitenta, or dois-cinco-três-nove – vinte e seis – oitenta, or vinte e cinco – trinta e nove – dois-meia-oito-zero. Note that, when read as a single digit, 6 is always meia and 0 zero. Three-digit numbers may be read as a single number, e.g. ramal 479 (quatrocentos e setenta e nove or quatro-sete-nove) ‘extension 479’. Area codes are read as single numbers preceded by 0, e.g. 011 (zero onze), and you will often hear, for example, zero operadora onze, zero operadora vinte e um, etc., which means that you should insert the two-digit code of the long-distance carrier of your choice between the zero and the area code.

Arranging to meet someone

Common expressions are:

Vamos nos encontrar hoje à noite/na quinta?
Shall we meet tonight/on Thursday?
Que tal nos encontrarmos mais tarde?
What about meeting up later?

A gente podia se encontrar no shopping. (informal)
We could meet at the mall.

Oito horas/segunda-feira está bom para você?
Is eight o’clock / Monday okay with you?

De manhã não dá, tem que ser à tarde.
The morning’s no good, it’ll have to be in the afternoon.

Qualquer coisa, te ligo/me liga.
If there’s any problem, I’ll call you/call me.

Saying goodbye on the phone

The same expressions shown in 29.5 can be used to say goodbye on the phone, tchau being the most common.

At the end of a social phone call, it is customary to say um abraço (between male friends and to people you don’t have a very close friendship with) or um beijo (between close friends and family members, except between male friends). The standard response to both expressions is:

Outro.
Same to you.

At the end of business calls, it is customary to say bom dia/boa tarde/boa noite ‘have a nice day/afternoon/evening’ according to the time of day, and you may also hear:

Disponha!
Any time! / At your service! / It’s a pleasure to help you.

Obrigado/a pela preferência.
Thank you for choosing us. / Thank you for your custom.

Writing letters

Date

It is usual practice to put the name of the place where the writer is before the date, although this may be dispensed with when writing on headed notepaper:

Rio de Janeiro, 5 de fevereiro de 2009

Notice the format of the date and the lower-case initial letter in the names of the months.

Salutation

The most common forms of salutation in formal and business correspondence are:

Very formal:

Senhores  (to a company or collective recipient)
Dear Sirs
Prezados senhores (to a company or collective recipient)
Dear Sirs

Senhor
Dear Sir

Prezado Senhor
Dear Sir

Senhora
Dear Madam

Prezada Senhora
Dear Madam

Senhor(a)
Dear Sir/Madam

Formal:

Prezado Sr. Ricardo Teixeira
Dear Mr Teixeira

Prezada Sra. Raquel Maia
Dear Ms Maia

Prezado cliente
Dear Customer

Less formal:

Prezado Sr. Ricardo
Prezada Sra. Raquel

NOTE 69 See 34.1.1 on the use of names in Brazil.

In formal business correspondence, the salutation is usually followed by a colon (:) or no punctuation. In less formal correspondence (see below), the salutation is followed by a comma. Notice the abbreviations Sr. (= senhor) ‘Mr’ and Sra. (= senhora) ‘Ms’. These may be substituted by other titles as appropriate, e.g. Dr (= Doutor), Dra. (= Doutora) and Professor(a) for a teacher.

Neutral level (to someone you do not know well in a business letter):

Prezado Ricardo
Dear Ricardo

Prezada Raquel
Dear Raquel

Prezada Professora Lúcia
Dear Lúcia (to a teacher).

Once you have established a personal relationship with the addressee, use caro/a ‘dear’:

Caro Ricardo
Dear Ricardo
Cara Raquel
Dear Raquel.

In informal letters to family or friends, use querido/a ‘Dear’:

Querido tio
Dear Uncle

Querida Ângela
Dear Angela

Queridos amigos
Dear friends.

In e-mails, even business e-mails, less formal greetings may be used, such as:

Bom dia, Ricardo
Hi Ricardo

Olá, Raquel
Hi Raquel

Oi, Carlos
Hi Carlos.

Common phrases used in formal and business correspondence

Acknowledging receipt of a letter

Acuso/Acusamos recebimento de sua carta de 9 de março.
I/We acknowledge receipt of your letter of March 9th.

Agradecemos sua carta de 24 de novembro último.
Thank you for your letter dated 24 November.

Em resposta/Em atenção à sua carta de 19 de julho último, . . .
In response to/Further to your letter of July 19th, . . .

Stating the purpose of a letter

Venho pela presente pedir a V.Sa. que . . .
I am writing to ask you to . . .

Dirigimo-nos a V.Sas. para perguntar-lhes se . . .
We are writing to inquire whether . . .

Tomo a liberdade de escrever a V.Sa. para . . .
I am taking the liberty of writing to you to . . .

Temos a satisfação de informar-lhes que . . .
We are pleased to inform you that . . .

NOTE
In formal letters, ‘you’ is translated as V.Sa. (= Vossa Senhoria) when addressing an individual, and as V.Sas. (= Vossas Senhorias, plural) when addressing a collective recipient, such as a company. These forms of address require a third person verb and are considered to be masculine for purposes of agreement unless the recipient is known to be female. V.Sa. may be replaced in direct object function by the unstressed pronouns o (for a male), a (for a female) and in indirect object function by lhe; V.Sas. may be replaced by os (direct object) or lhes (indirect object). The corresponding possessive is seu(s)/sua(s).
Expressing regret for something

Lamentamos informar que . . .
We are sorry to inform you that . . .

Infelizmente, não poderemos . . .
Unfortunately, we are unable to . . .

Expressing pleasure at something

Tenho/Temos a satisfação de informar-lhes que . . .
I/We are pleased to inform you that . . .

É com muito prazer que anunciamos . . .
We are very pleased to announce . . .

Requesting something

Peço a gentileza de me enviar . . .
Please send me . . .

Solicitamos o obséquio de nos enviarem . . .
Please send us . . .

Agradeceria/Agradeceríamos se me/nos fornecessem . . .
I/We would be grateful if you could supply me/us with . . .

Enclosures

Anexo/Anexamos . . .
I/We enclose . . . (in letter) or I/We attach . . . (in e-mail)

Segue anexa uma cópia do contrato.
Please find enclosed/attached a copy of the contract.

Note that anexo must agree in gender and number with the noun denoting the enclosure, and the verb seguir must agree in number, e.g. Seguem anexas as informações solicitadas. ‘Please find enclosed the information requested.’ Alternatively, you can use em anexo, which is invariable:

Uma cópia do contrato segue em anexo.
A copy of the contract is enclosed.

Closing a letter

To wind up a formal or business letter, the following phrases may be used:

Aguardo/Aguardamos seu contato.
I/We look forward to hearing from you.

Aguardamos uma breve resposta.
We look forward to hearing from you soon.

Agradeço/Agradecemos a atenção.
Thanking you for your attention

Agradeço/Agradecemos antecipadamente.
Thanking you in advance.

Coloco-me/Colocamo-nos à disposição para qualquer esclarecimento.
I/We would be happy to provide you with any further information.
For formal closures, use the following:

Atenciosamente,
(Yours) sincerely, / Yours faithfully,

Cordialmente,
(Yours) sincerely, (slightly less formal than the above).

Atenciosamente is often abbreviated to Att in short e-mails.

To wind up a personal letter, use the following:

É isso aí por enquanto.
All for now.

To close a personal letter, use the following:

Um abraço, (between male friends, or to a personal or business acquaintance)
Regards / All the best

Um beijo, (to close friends and family members)
Love.

Both the above closures may be pluralized: Abraços / Beijos. In e-mails and text messages, the following abbreviations are used:

Abç / Abs
Bjo / Bjs
Basic strategies for communication

In any language, there are a number of words and phrases that serve simply to initiate conversation, to keep it going and to structure it. The sections below list and give information about the most common such words and phrases used by Brazilians in everyday communication.

**Attracting someone’s attention and responding to a call for attention**

The words most commonly used to attract someone’s attention are:

- **Por favor.** ‘Excuse me.’
- **Alô!** ‘Hey!’
- **Moço!** ‘Excuse me!’ *(to a young man or male in a service role, e.g. a waiter)*
- **Moça!** ‘Excuse me!’ *(to a young woman or female in a service role)*
- **Senhor!** ‘Excuse me, sir!’ *(to an older man or male customer)*
- **Senhora!** ‘Excuse me, madam!’ *(to an older woman or female customer)*
- **Senhorita!** ‘Excuse me, miss!’ *(respectful address to teenage girl)*

The most versatile of these is **por favor** *(literally, ‘please’) which can be used to address a stranger in the street, attract the attention of a waiter or sales assistant, begin an inquiry at an information desk, etc. **Alô**, like its English equivalent ‘hey!’, should be used with care as it can sound rude.

- **Por favor, a senhora sabe onde fica a rua Samambaia?**
  Excuse me, do you know where Samambaia Street is, please?

- **Por favor, traz o cardápio para a gente.**
  Excuse me, could you bring us the menu?

- **Por favor, esse livro está a quanto?**
  Excuse me, how much is this book?

- **Moça, vê dois chopes, por favor.**
  Waitress, two draft beers, please.

- **Senhor! Esqueceu o guarda-chuva!**
  Excuse me, sir! You forgot your umbrella!
The most common ways of responding to a call for attention are:

More formal:

- Pois não? ‘Yes, sir/madam?’ / ‘Can I help you?’
- Diga. ‘Yes?’
- O que é que você manda? ‘What can I do for you?’
- Pode falar. ‘Go ahead.’

Informal:

- Fala. ‘Yes?’
- Oi. ‘Yes?’

Starting up a conversation

When starting up a conversation, it is customary to begin with the person’s name, usually preceded by the interjection ô:

- Ô Geraldo, tenho um assunto para falar com você.
  Geraldo, there’s something I want to talk to you about.
- Ô Laura, deixa eu te perguntar uma coisa.
  Laura, let me ask you something.

Alternatively, you can open the sentence with escuta ‘listen’ or vem cá (literally, ‘come here’) ‘listen’:

- Escuta, eu queria te perguntar uma coisa.
  Listen, I wanted to ask you something.
- Vem cá, deixa eu te falar uma coisa.
  Listen, let me tell you something.

Requesting repetition and responding

To ask someone to repeat something you haven’t heard properly, use one of the following expressions:

- Como? ‘Pardon?’ / ‘Sorry?’
- O que é que foi? ‘What was that?’
- O que foi que você disse? ‘What did you say?’ (more polite)
- O que é que falou? ‘What did you say?’ (informal)
- Como é que é? ‘I beg your pardon?’ (expresses shock or impatience)

In informal conversation, you may also hear o que? ‘what?’ but, like its English equivalent, this can sound rude so should be used with care. Of the expressions listed above, como? is the most versatile.
To answer a request for repetition, speakers will either repeat the exact words said previously or use a paraphrase, but this may be introduced by:

- **Eu disse que . . .** ‘I said (that) . . .’
- **Falei que . . .** ‘I said (that) . . .’
- **Eu estava dizendo/falando que . . .** ‘I was saying (that) . . .’

A yes–no question may be repeated by introducing it with **se** ‘if, whether’ or with **Perguntei se** . . . ‘I asked whether . . .’:

- **Quer mais suco?**
  ‘Would you like some more juice?’
- **O que é que foi?**
  ‘What was that?’
- **Se você quer mais suco. or Perguntei se você quer mais suco.**
  ‘I asked if you wanted some more juice.’

An imperative may be repeated by using **para você** followed by the personal infinitive. This can be preceded by **Eu disse/falei . . .** ‘I told you . . .’:

- **Apaga a luz.**
  ‘Turn the light off.’
- **Como?**
  ‘Pardon?’
- **Para você apagar a luz. or Falei para você apagar a luz.**
  ‘I told you to turn the light off.’

### Making sure you understand and are understood

The following phrases may be used when you do not understand:

- **Desculpe, não entendi.**
  Sorry, I don’t understand.
- **Desculpe, mas não falo muito bem português.**
  Sorry, but I don’t speak Portuguese very well.
- **Dá para repetir, por favor?**
  Could you repeat that, please?
- **Pode falar mais devagar, por favor?**
  Can you speak more slowly, please?
- **Não peguei a primeira parte.**
  I didn’t get the first part.

To ask the meaning of a word or phrase say:

- **O que quer dizer . . . ?**
  What does . . . mean?
- **O que significa a palavra . . . ?**
  What does the word . . . mean?
Signalling that you understand the speaker

O que significa essa palavra?
What does this word mean?

O que é que você quer dizer com . . . ?
What do you mean by . . . ?

Como é que é ‘paquerar’ em inglês?
What’s ‘paquerar’ in English?

If you are lost for a word, you can use the impersonal phrase Como se diz . . . ? ‘How do you say . . . ?’:

Como se diz ‘webcam’ em português?
How do you say ‘webcam’ in Portuguese?

To check whether people have understood what you have said, you can use the following phrases, which people will also ask you:

Entendeu?
Do you understand?

Deu para entender?
Were you able to understand?

Signalling that you understand the speaker and are following what is being said

You can signal that you are following what someone is saying to you by using the following expressions:

É. ‘Yes.’

Pois é. ‘Yes, that’s right.’ / ‘Yes, I know.’

É isso. ‘That’s it.’

(Mas) é isso aí. ‘(But) that’s just the thing.’

Ai é que está. ‘That’s the point.’

Com certeza. ‘Quite right.’ / ‘Sure.’ / ‘Definitely.’

Sem dúvida. ‘Definitely.’

De fato. ‘Indeed.’ / ‘Certainly.’

Certo. ‘Right.’

Exato. ‘Exactly.’

Lógico. ‘Of course.’

Entendi. ‘I understand.’

Sei. ‘I know.’

É mesmo? ‘Really?’

Que bom. ‘That’s good.’

Legal. ‘That’s nice (of/for you).’

Ótimo! ‘Great!’
You can also use more emotive expressions, such as:

- **Mentira!** ‘You’re kidding!’
- **Jura?** ‘Really?’
- **Não!** ‘No!’
- **Ai, que horror!** ‘Oh, how awful!’
- **Não acredito!** ‘I don’t believe it!’
- **Não me diga!** ‘You don’t say!’
- **Puxa!** ‘Gosh!’
- **Caramba!** ‘Damn!’
- **Que coisa!** ‘What a thing to happen!’

### Asking how to pronounce or spell a word

#### 30.6

#### 30.6.1 To ask how to pronounce a word, use the phrase **Como se pronuncia . . . ?** ‘How do you pronounce . . . ?’:

- **Como se pronuncia o seu sobrenome?**
  How do you pronounce your surname?

#### 30.6.2 To ask someone to spell a word, you can use the phrase **Como se escreve?** ‘How do you spell it?’ or a sentence containing the verb **soletrar** ‘to spell’:

- **Como se escreve o seu nome?**
  How do you spell your name?

- **Pode soletrar, por favor?**
  Can you spell that, please?

> 22.4 (p. 154)

### Interrupting a speaker

To interrupt someone during the course of a conversation, use one of the following expressions with **desculpar** ‘to excuse’:

- **Desculpe (formal)/Desculpa (informal), mas . . .**
  Excuse me, but . . .

- **Desculpe/Desculpa interromper, mas . . .**
  Sorry to interrupt, but . . .

- **Desculpa eu te cortar, mas . . .**
  Sorry to cut in on you, but . . .

- **Desculpe/Desculpa, cortei você.**
  Sorry, I interrupted you.

> Chapter 21 (p. 150)
Fillers

Fillers are short words or phrases that are used to fill gaps in the conversation, when you are hesitating, pausing for thought, trying to remember something, deciding what to say next, etc. In English, we use words like ‘well’, ‘well then’, ‘you know’, ‘right’, etc. Brazilians use the following words and expressions:

- **bom** ‘well’, ‘right’, ‘now then’
- **então** ‘so’, ‘yes, well . . .’, ‘now’
- **é que** ‘it’s just that’
- **é o seguinte** ‘the thing is’
- **o negócio é o seguinte** ‘the thing is’ (*informal*)
- **olha** ‘look’
- **sabe** ‘you know’
- **veja bem** ‘well, you see’ (*more formal*)
- **ou seja** ‘in other words’
- **quer dizer** ‘I mean’
- **aliás** ‘in fact’, ‘actually’
- **na verdade** ‘actually’
- **para falar a verdade** ‘to tell the truth’, ‘to be honest’
- **tipo** ‘like’, ‘sort of’ (*very informal*)
- **tipo assim** ‘so like’ (*very informal*)

The word **bom** can be used as an opening or to express hesitation:

- **Bom, deixe eu esclarecer a situação.**
  Well, let me clarify the situation.

- **Bom, vamos começar?**
  Right, shall we start?

- **O que é que você acha? – Bom, não sei.**
  What do you think? – Well, I don’t know.

The word **então** can mean ‘so’ but may also be used as an opening, ‘well so . . .’:

- **Então, meu nome é Valdir, sou o gerente de vendas.**
  Well, so my name is Valdir and I’m the sales manager.

The expression **é que** is used to introduce a reason or explanation:

- **É que eu estava pensando no que você falou.**
  The thing is, I was thinking about what you said.

- **É que temos que tomar uma atitude.**
  The thing is, we have to do something.
The phrases **é o seguinte** and, more informally, **o negócio é o seguinte** can also be used in this way, or as general openers:

**É o seguinte: você vai querer viajar com a gente esse fim de semana?**
The thing is this: do you want to go away with us this weekend?

**O negócio é o seguinte: onde é que nós vamos?**
The thing is, right, where are we going to go?

The terms **olha** ‘look’, **sabe** ‘you know’, **entende?/entendeu?** ‘you see?’ ‘know what I mean?’ are used as follows:

**Olha, não posso prometer nada.**
Look, I can’t promise anything.

**Olha, eu não achei tão ruim assim.**
I didn’t find it that bad, if you really want to know.

**Eu gosto dela, sabe, mas às vezes me irrita.**
I like her, right, but sometimes she gets on my nerves.

The expression **veja bem** ‘well, you see’ introduces an explanation and sounds slightly more formal:

**Veja bem, o Brasil é um país imenso, muito maior do que a Inglaterra.**
Well, you see, Brazil is a huge country, much bigger than Britain.

The phrase **ou seja** ‘in other words’, ‘which means’ is used as follows:

**A empresa quebrou, ou seja, estamos todos na rua.**
The company’s gone bust, which means we’re all out of a job.

The expression **quer dizer** ‘I mean’ introduces a correction, qualification or further explanation:

**Ele chega no sábado, quer dizer, domingo.**
He gets here on Saturday, I mean, Sunday.

**Vou terminar o trabalho essa semana, quer dizer, vou tentar.**
I’m going to finish the job this week, well, at least, I’m going to try.

**O dono vai vender a casa, quer dizer, temos que arranjar outro lugar para morar.**
The owner is going to sell the house, which means we have to find somewhere else to live.

The word **aliás** has four uses: (1) to introduce an incidental comment ‘by the way, actually’; (2) to qualify what you have just said ‘in fact, actually’; (3) to expand on what you have just said ‘what’s more’; and (4) to correct a mistake ‘or rather, I mean’:

**Quero aprender francês. Aliás, você não conhece algum professor?**
I want to learn French. By the way, you don’t know any teachers, do you?

**Não comprei a passagem ainda. Aliás, nem sei se vou mais.**
I haven’t bought the ticket yet. In fact, I don’t know if I’m going to go any more.

**Ela é simpática. Aliás, ela é muito inteligente também.**
She’s nice. What’s more, she’s really clever, too.
Ele faz aniversário em março, aliás, em abril.
His birthday’s in March, or rather, April.

The expressions **na verdade** ‘actually’ and **para falar a verdade** ‘to be honest’ are used as follows:

- **Na verdade, não sou daqui. Nasci em Curitiba.**
  Actually, I’m not from here. I was born in Curitiba.

- **Nós preferíamos sentar lá dentro, na verdade.**
  We’d prefer to sit inside, actually.

- **Para falar a verdade, não gosto muito de futebol.**
  To be honest, I don’t like football very much.

The expressions **tipo** ‘like, sort of’ and **tipo assim** ‘I mean like’ are frequently heard, especially in the speech of young people, but would sound strange coming from a foreign learner:

- **Ele falou para a gente estar lá tipo nove horas.**
  He said for us to be there, like, at nine.

- **Ela me olhou, tipo, quem é você?**
  She looked at me, like, who are you?

- **Vamos comprar umas coisinhas, tipo salgadinhos, queijo, frios . . .**
  Let’s buy some little things, like snacks, cheese, cold meats . . .

- **Eu acho, tipo assim, se ele fez isso, é porque ainda gosta de você.**
  I think, like, if he did that, it’s because he still likes you.

- **Mas, tipo assim, fiquei chateado, sabe?**
  But I mean, like, it pissed me off, you know?

### Changing the subject

**Common expressions are:**

- **Por falar nisso . . .**
  By the way . . .

- **Por falar em . . .**
  Talking about . . . / On the subject of . . .

- **Isso me lembra . . .**
  That reminds me . . .

- **Mudando de assunto, . . .**
  Changing the subject, . . .

- **Voltando ao que eu/a gente/você falava antes, . . .**
  Going back to what I was/we were/you were saying before, . . .

- **Voltando à vaca fria, . . . (informal)**
  Going back to the previous subject, . . .
**Formal development of a topic**

**Opening remarks**

To present a new topic formally, in the course of a lecture, talk or a very formal discussion, there are a number of expressions that can be used as opening remarks. Among these are:

- Em primeiro lugar . . . ‘First of all . . .’
- Primeiramente . . . ‘Firstly . . .’
- Para começar . . . ‘To start with . . .’
- Antes de mais nada . . . ‘First of all . . .’
- Quero/Queria mencionar . . . ‘I want to/I’d like to mention . . .’
- Quero falar sobre . . . ‘I want to talk about . . .’
- Quero examinar . . . ‘I want to look at/consider . . .’

**Introducing further points**

- Além disso ‘In addition’, ‘Besides . . .’
- Também . . . ‘Also . . .’
- Pois bem . . . / Ora bem . . . ‘Well now . . .’
- Vejamos agora . . . ‘Now let’s look at . . .’
- Vamos tratar agora de . . . ‘Let us now deal with . . .’

**Establishing a sequence**

The following words are used to establish a sequence between various points:

- Em primeiro lugar . . . ‘First of all . . .’
- Primeiro/Segundo/Terceiro, . . . ‘Firstly/Secondly/Thirdly, . . .’
- Por último, . . . ‘Lastly, . . .’
- Aí . . . ‘Then . . .’
- Depois . . . ‘Then . . .’
- A seguir . . . ‘Next . . .’
- Prosseguindo . . . ‘Moving on . . .’
- Mais adiante vamos ver . . . ‘Further on we shall see . . .’

**Establishing references**

To establish references between part of an argument or between information shared between the speaker and listener with a related point, the following phrases are used:

- No que se refere a . . . ‘With reference/regard to . . .’
- No que diz respeito a . . . ‘As far as . . . is/are concerned’
- Com referência a . . . ‘With reference to . . .’
Em relação a . . . ‘With respect to . . .’
Quanto a . . . ‘As for . . ., as regards . . .’

The expressions listed above are also encountered in formal letters:

Com referência a sua carta de 20 de novembro, . . .
With reference to your letter of 20 November, . . .

Em relação à sua proposta . . .
With regard to your proposal . . .

No que se refere à forma de pagamento . . .
With regard to the form of payment . . .

**30.10.5 Giving examples**

To give examples and illustrate a point, use the following:

Por exemplo . . . ‘For example . . .’
Para dar/citar um exemplo . . . ‘To give-quote an example . . .’
Vejamos o exemplo de . . . ‘Let us take the example of . . .’
Para exemplificar, . . . / Para ilustrar, . . . ‘To illustrate (what I mean), . . .’
A título de ilustração, . . . ‘By way of an illustration, . . .’
Assim . . . ‘Thus . . .’
Assim, por exemplo . . . ‘Thus, for example . . .’
Como . . . ‘Like . . .’
Tais como . . . ‘Such as . . .’

**30.10.6 How to explain yourself**

To indicate you are about to explain something again, in new terms, use the following:

Isto é . . . ‘That is to say . . .’
Ou seja . . . ‘Or, in other words . . .’
Isso quer dizer que . . . ‘That means that . . .’
Isso significa que . . . ‘That means that . . .’
Em outras palavras . . . ‘In other words . . .’
Você explicar. ‘I’ll explain.’ / ‘Let me explain.’
Você esclarecer. ‘I’ll clarify that.’ / ‘Allow me to clarify.’
O que quero dizer é que . . . ‘What I mean is that . . .’

**30.10.7 How to ask for and give the floor**

To ask to speak in the course of a formal meeting, you can use the following expressions:

Com licença. ‘Excuse me.’
Se vocês permitirem . . . ‘If you’ll allow me . . .’
Peço a palavra. ‘May I say something?’
A palavra está com . . . ‘(Name) has the floor.’
Dou/Cedo a palavra a . . . ‘I give the floor to (name).’
Pediu a palavra . . . ‘(Name) has asked to speak.’

Summarizing and concluding
To summarize and abbreviate different points in an argument and to conclude a presentation, use the following expressions:

- **Resumindo** . . . ‘Summing up . . .’
- **Em resumo** . . . ‘In short . . .’ / ‘To sum up . . .’
- **Em poucas palavras** . . . ‘To sum up in a few words . . .’
- **Concluindo . . . / Para concluir . . .** ‘To conclude . . .’
- **Em conclusão . . .** ‘In conclusion . . .’
- **Finalmente . . .** ‘Finally . . .’
- **Por último . . .** ‘Lastly . . .’
- **Como último ponto . . .** ‘As a final point . . .’
- **Só quero acrescentar que . . .** ‘I’d just like to add that . . .’
- **Não posso deixar de dizer que . . .** ‘I should just say that . . .’.
Giving and seeking factual information
31

Asking questions and responding

31.1 Yes–no questions

Yes–no questions are formulated in the same way as statements, the only difference being the question intonation in speech and the question mark in writing. There is no subject-verb inversion as happens in English and some other languages:

Ele é italiano.
He’s Italian. (statement)

Ele é italiano?
Is he Italian? (question)

31.1.1

When replying to yes–no questions, the main verb of the question is repeated in the appropriate person and negated with não if necessary:

Do you speak Portuguese? – Yes.

Você fala chinês? – Não falo.
Do you speak Chinese? – No.

31.1.2

Although não ‘no’ can be used on its own to answer a question, sim ‘yes’ is not normally used in this way. But both não and sim can be added to the repeated verb to add emphasis or to make the answer sound less abrupt:

Você é americano? – Não, não sou. / Não sou não. / Não.
Are you American? – No, I’m not. / I’m not, no. / No.

Você foram para a festa? – Fomos sim. / Fomos.
Did you go to the party? – Yes, we did. / Yes.

31.1.3

When an auxiliary verb occurs in the question, it is the auxiliary that is repeated in the answer:

Posso usar seu telefone? – Pode.
Can I use your phone? – Yes.

Are you going to tell him? – Yes.
When you simply want to endorse something that has been said or move the conversation
along, the equivalent to ‘yes’ is é (literally, ‘it is’):

Os brasileiros comem muita carne. – É, com certeza.
Brazilians eat a lot of meat. – Yes, they certainly do.

É, então, vamos começar a aula.
Yes, so, let’s start the lesson.

### Content questions

Content questions are those that contain a question word, such as ‘what’, ‘where’, ‘who’,
etc. These can be formed in Portuguese in the same way as in English, with the question
word in initial position, but there is no inversion of subject and verb when the subject is
a pronoun:

Onde você foi ontem à noite?
Where did you go last night?

Quantas vezes por semana ele vai para São Paulo?
How many times a week does he go to São Paulo?

Por que não jantamos fora?
Why don’t we go out for dinner?

When the subject is a noun, inversion can take place and usually does when the verb means
‘to be’ (ser, estar, ficar, etc.) or with the verb ter ‘to have’:

Como vai o seu irmão?
How is your brother?

Quantos anos tem a sua irmã?
How old is your sister?

When a question word is accompanied by a preposition, the preposition is placed at the
beginning of the sentence, not the end:

De que vocês estão falando?
What are you talking about?

Com quem ela vai casar?
Who’s she going to marry?

Para quem você deu a chave?
Who did you give the key to?

In the spoken language, it is common to insert ... é que ... (literally, ‘is it that’) after
the question word, especially in the case of o que ‘what’ and quando ‘when’:

O que é que você falou?
What did you say?

Quando é que ela volta?
When is she coming back? / When is it she’s coming back?

**NOTE**
In colloquial speech, o que é que ... is pronounced /kiki/, so, for example, o que é que foi? ‘what’s
the matter?’ is pronounced /kiki foi/.
When the main verb is in the preterite tense, . . . é que . . . is often replaced by . . . foi que . . . (literally, ‘was it that’):

O que foi que você falou?
What did you say? / What was it you said?

In colloquial speech, the question word can be inserted in the position where the missing information would be in a statement, and this is the norm when you want repeated confirmation of something you have already been told. In the latter case, the question word would be more heavily stressed, as in English:

Ela volta quando?
When is she coming back?

Você é de que cidade nos Estados Unidos?
What town are you from in the USA?

Você combinou com eles a que horas mesmo?
What time did you arrange to meet them again?

Follow-up questions

Follow-up questions can be introduced with e (literally, ‘and’), which, in this case, means ‘and/but what about . . .?’:

Como vai? – Eu estou bem. E você?
How are you? – I’m fine. And you?

E seu pai? Ele já melhorou?
And how about your dad? Is he better now?

E o Pedro? Ele vai dormir onde?
But what about Pedro? Where’s he going to sleep?

Rhetorical questions

Rhetorical questions are introduced with Será que . . . , which can be thought of as meaning ‘I wonder if . . .’:

Será que ela esqueceu?
I wonder if she’s forgotten?

Será que você pode me ajudar um pouco?
I wonder if you can help me a minute?

The expression será que can also be used in combination with question words:

Aonde será que ele foi?
I wonder where he’s gone? / Where do you suppose he’s gone?

Quanto tempo será que vamos ter que esperar?
How long will we have to wait, I wonder? / How long do you suppose we’ll have to wait?
**Tag questions**

The most versatile tag question is **não é?**[^70], which can be appended to any statement when you expect an affirmative answer:

- **Você é americano, não é?**
  You’re American, aren’t you?

- **Ele chegou ontem, não é?**
  He arrived yesterday, didn’t he?

- **Você deve ir no médico, não é?**
  You should go to the doctor, shouldn’t you?

[^70]: Often shortened to **né?** in colloquial speech.

It can also be appended to negative statements:

- **Você não falou nada para ninguém, não é?**
  You didn’t tell anyone anything, did you?

- **Ela não é brasileira, não é?**
  She’s not Brazilian, is she?

The positive tag **é?** has the sense of ‘so . . . , is it?/are you?/did they?’, etc.:

- **Você é americano, é?**
  So you’re American, are you?

- **Ele chegou ontem, é?**
  So he arrived yesterday, did he?

- **Ela sabe ler chinês, é?**
  So she can read Chinese, can she?

In colloquial speech, tag questions are formed in a similar way to English, i.e. the finite verb of the sentence is repeated and changed from positive to negative or negative to positive:

- **Você tem carro, não tem?**
  You have a car, don’t you?

- **Ele não vai voltar, vai?**
  He’s not coming back, is he?

- **Você pode pegar o trem, não pode?**
  You can take the train, can’t you?

**Negative questions**

As in English, a negative question usually expects a negative answer, but can sometimes be used to convey surprise or annoyance:

- **Você não entende português?**
  Don’t you understand Portuguese?

- **Você não terminou ainda?**
  Haven’t you finished yet? (= you should have)
Polite questions

A question to a stranger can always be introduced with *por favor* ‘excuse me’ (see 30.1.1) and then *o senhor/a senhora pode me dizer . . . ?* ‘Can you tell me . . . ?’ when addressing an older person, or *você pode me dizer . . . ?* ‘Can you tell me . . . ?’ when addressing someone of the same age or younger:

Por favor, você pode me dizer onde fica o Teatro Municipal?
Excuse me, can you tell me where the Municipal Theatre is, please?

Por favor, a senhora sabe que ônibus vai até a Praça da República?
Excuse me, do you know which bus goes to the Praça da República?

Other ways of answering questions

Affirmative responses

As pointed out in 31.1.3, *sim* is not usually used on its own as an affirmative response. The following are other ways of answering in the affirmative:

Claro. ‘Of course.’

Claro que (+ repeated verb), e.g.:

Você gosta dela? – Claro que gosto. ‘Do you like her? – Of course I like her.’

Claro que sim. ‘Yes, of course.’

Lógico. ‘Of course.’

Com certeza. ‘Definitely.’ / ‘Certainly.’

Sem dúvida. ‘Definitely.’

Negative responses

The most common negative responses are:

Claro que não. ‘Of course not.’

Lógico que não. ‘Of course not.’

De jeito nenhum. ‘Not at all.’ / ‘No way.’ / ‘Certainly not.’

Imagina! ‘You must be joking!’

Que nada! ‘Not at all!’ / ‘You’re kidding, aren’t you?’

Deus (que) me livre! ‘Heaven forbid!’

Examples:

Você se importa se eu sentar aqui? – Claro que não.
Do you mind if I sit here? – Of course not.

Did I upset you? – Not at all.
Você vai convidar o Cláudio? – De jeito nenhum!
Are you going to invite Claudio? – No way! / Certainly not!

Devolveram o seu dinheiro? - Imagina!
Did they give you your money back? – You must be joking!

A obra já terminou? – Que nada! Falta muito ainda.
Is the building work finished? – Not at all! There’s still a long way to go.

Você está a fim da Tatiana? – Deus me livre!
Do you have a thing for Tatiana? – God, no!
Negating

See Chapter 14 for negative words and how to use them.

See Chapter 31 on how to give negative answers.

32.1 Negating adjectives

32.1.1 Negative prefixes

The two most frequent negative prefixes for adjectives are in- (which becomes im- before b and p, i- before l and ir- before r, as in English) and des-. Of these, des- is still productive in that it is occasionally used to create new adjectives:

in-:
- incapaz: incapable
- impossível: impossible
- ilógico: illogical
- irrelevante: irrelevant

des-:
- desconhecido: unknown
- desconfortável: uncomfortable
- desocupado: unoccupied
- despreocupado: unworried, unconcerned.

32.1.2 Other negativizers

When there is no negative adjective beginning with in- or des-, the usual device is to use pouco as a negativizer:

- pouco convincente: unconvincing
- pouco original: unoriginal
- pouco interessante: uninteresting
- pouco atraente: unattractive.
Negating nouns

não is also used to negate certain nouns,72 corresponding to ‘non’ in English:

- não fumante  non-smoker
- não proliferação  non-proliferation
- não violência  non-violence.

Negating verbs

The prefix des- negates the meaning of a verb, and is often used productively, corresponding to the English ‘un-’:

- desfazer  to undo
- desamarrar  to untie
- deszipar  to unzip (a file)
- desconvidar  to ‘uninvite’ (someone you have already invited).
33

Reporting

33.1 Direct vs. indirect speech

An important function in language is to report what other people have said. This may be done by reproducing the exact words expressed by the speaker (direct speech) or, more often, by reporting his or her words in an indirect way (indirect speech). Direct speech, introduced by a verb such as *dizer* ‘to say’, is commonly found in fiction writing in the form of dialogue:73

> Vamos para casa – disse Antônia.
> ‘Let’s go home,’ said Antonia.

But particularly in the spoken language, it is much more common to use indirect speech.

73 For the punctuation of dialogue in Portuguese, see 1.10.

33.2 Indirect speech

There are basically three types of indirect speech: indirect statements, indirect questions and indirect commands/requests. An indirect statement reports a statement made by another person, usually introduced with a reporting phrase such as *ele disse que* ‘he said that’; an indirect question reports a question asked by another person, usually introduced by a reporting phrase such as *ela perguntou se* ‘she asked if/whether’; and an indirect command/request reports an instruction or request made by another person, usually introduced with a reporting phrase such as *ele nos mandou* ‘he told us to’ or *ela me pediu* ‘she asked me to’.

In Portuguese, as in English, the tense of the verb used in indirect speech may differ from that used in direct speech, depending on the time relations and continued validity of the indirect speech. Consider the following examples:

*Her actual words:* *Eu gosto de chocolate.* ‘I like chocolate.’
*Ela disse que gosta de chocolate.*
She said she likes chocolate.
*Ela disse que gostava de chocolate.*
She said she liked chocolate.

*His actual words:* *Eu vou ligar para você.* ‘I’ll call you.’
*Ele falou que vai ligar para mim.*
He said he’ll call me.
*Ele falou que ia ligar para mim.*
He said he’d call me.
As the conversion of eu ‘I’ to ele ‘he’ and você ‘you’ to mim ‘me’ in the above example shows, other elements of the sentence may also change when reporting in indirect speech, but the same changes, including the choice of verb tense, are made in both Portuguese and English.

### Reporting statements

#### Verbs used to introduce reported statements

The verb dizer ‘to say’ is probably the verb most commonly used to introduce a reported statement, although, in the spoken language, the verb falar (literally, ‘to speak’) is also used in the sense of ‘to say’ and is more frequent than dizer. Among other verbs used to introduce reported statements are acrescentar ‘to add’, afirmar ‘to state’, alegar ‘to claim, allege’, comentar ‘to comment’, explicar ‘to explain’, mencionar ‘to mention’, as well as others that reveal the intention of the statement, such as esperar ‘to hope’, garantir ‘to assure’, negar ‘to deny’, prometer ‘to promise’, etc.

#### Conjunction used to introduce reported statements

The conjunction used to introduce reported statements is que ‘that’ and, unlike in English, it can never be omitted in Portuguese:

- A Patricia falou que vinha.
  Patricia said she was coming.
- Ele me garantiu que ia devolver a bicicleta antes do meio-dia.
  He assured me he’d return the bike before midday.

#### Use of tenses in reported statements

As pointed out in 33.2, Portuguese and English follow the same rules regarding the use of tenses in indirect speech. But note the following:

(i) The English ‘would’ is expressed in Portuguese using the conditional, the imperfect or the imperfect of the auxiliary verb *ir* plus the infinitive. The conditional itself (other than that of the verb *ser*) sounds ponderous and formal and is usually avoided in speech and informal writing. In these registers, the imperfect is used instead (see 18.3.5) or the imperfect of *ir* followed by an infinitive:

- Ele disse que voltaria. *(more formal)*
- Ele disse que voltava. *(informal and speech)*
- Ele disse que ia voltar. *(neutral)*
  He said he’d be back.

(ii) When the reporting verb is past tense, and the action of the indirect speech happened at an earlier time still, English requires the pluperfect where Portuguese usually uses the simple preterite:

- Alegaram que o computador foi roubado.
  They claimed that the computer had been stolen.

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74 A fourth possibility may be encountered in the written language: the conditional of the verb *ir* followed by an infinitive, e.g. **Ele disse que iria voltar.** ‘He said he would be back.’
Mood in reported statements

Some reporting verbs require the use of the subjunctive in the reported statement, e.g. duvidar ‘to doubt’, esperar ‘to hope’, negar ‘to deny’, etc. (see 20.3.2, 20.3.4):

- O governo negou que tivesse chegado a um acordo com os terroristas.
  The government denied that it had reached an agreement with the terrorists.

- O técnico espera que o time se classifique para a final.
  The coach hopes that the team gets through to the final.

Notice that the sequence of tenses rule (20.2) can be broken after negar when the reported statement is still valid:

- O ministro negou que o governo vá revogar a lei. (not fosse revogar)
  The minister denied that the government is going to repeal the law.

Reporting questions

In the case of indirect questions, the reporting verb is usually perguntar ‘to ask’, or a synonymous word or expression, such as querer saber ‘want to know’, and the conjunction se ‘if, whether’ or another interrogative word (see Chapter 11). The same rules on verb tenses apply as in indirect statements:

- Ele perguntou se queríamos sair com ele.
  He asked if we wanted to go out with him.

- Ela queria saber a que horas a festa vai começar.
  She wanted to know what time the party’s going to start.

Note that, in reported questions, a noun subject is normally placed after the finite verb if the latter would otherwise fall at the end of the sentence. This rule does not apply if the subject is a personal pronoun:

- Ela perguntou onde era o banheiro.
  She asked where the bathroom was.

- Ele queria saber quantos anos tinha a minha mãe.
  He wanted to know how old my mother was.

- Ela perguntou onde você estava.
  She asked where you were.

Reporting yes and no answers

The conjunction que is used before sim and não to report a yes or no answer. Notice that, in English, this often corresponds to the repetition of an affirmative or negative auxiliary:

- Ele disse que não.
  He said no.

- Ela respondeu que sim.
  She answered yes.
Ele quer ir? – Ele diz que não.
Does he want to go? – He says he doesn’t.

Quando perguntei a ela se ia voltar logo, ela respondeu que sim.
When I asked her if she would be back soon, she replied that she would.

### Reporting commands and requests

The most common verbs used for reporting commands are *mandar* ‘to order, instruct, tell’ and *dizer/falar* ‘to tell’. The constructions used with these verbs are *mandar alguém fazer* and *dizer/falar para alguém fazer*:

- **Ele falou para a gente esperar aqui.** *(spoken)*
  - He told us to wait here.

- **Ela disse para você ligar mais tarde.**
  - She said for you to call her later.

- **Eles me mandaram sair da sala.**
  - They instructed me to leave the room.

#### 19.5 (p. 137)

Other reporting verbs require a subjunctive construction, e.g. *exigir que alguém faça* ‘to demand that someone do’, *insistir que alguém faça* ‘to insist that someone do’, *ordenar a alguém que faça* ‘to order someone to do’, *querer que alguém faça* ‘to want someone to do’:

- **Ele exigiu que eu pedisse desculpas.**
  - He demanded that I apologize.

- **Ordenaram à polícia que reviste todos os torcedores que entrarem no estádio.**
  - They have ordered the police to search all fans entering the stadium.

- **Ele quer que você ligue para ela.**
  - She wants you to call her.

#### 20.3.2 (p. 159)

Indirect requests are usually introduced by the reporting verb *pedir* ‘to ask’. *Pedir* forms a number of different constructions depending on the meaning and degree of formality:

- **(i) pedir para fazer** ‘to ask to do’:
  - **Ele pediu para usar o telefone.**
    - He asked to use the phone.

- **(ii) pedir a alguém para fazer** *(neutral level)*, **pedir para alguém fazer** *(informal speech)* and **pedir a alguém que faça** *(formal)* ‘to ask someone to do’:
  - **Ela me pediu para comprar leite.** *(neutral)*
    - She asked me to buy milk.

  - **Ela pediu para eu comprar leite.** *(informal spoken)*
    - She asked me to buy milk.

  - **Ela pediu ao assistente que entregasse a carta em mãos.** *(formal)*
    - She asked her assistant to deliver the letter by hand.
Other verbs that introduce a reported command/request are: *aconselhar que alguém faça* ‘to advise that someone should do’, *solicitar que alguém faça* ‘to request that someone does’, *sugerir que alguém faça* ‘to suggest that someone should do’:

**Ele aconselhou que eu não andasse sem capacete.**
He advised that I shouldn’t ride without a helmet.

**Ela sugeriu que voltemos amanhã.**
She suggested that we come back tomorrow.

Observe, as in the second example above, that, after reporting verbs such as *exigir*, *ordenar* and *sugerir*, the sequence of tense rules (see 20.2) are broken if the indirect command/request is still valid.

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75 You will also hear native speakers say *Ela pediu para mim comprar leite*, which is considered non-standard and incorrect.
Asking and giving personal information

In this chapter you will learn different ways of asking and giving personal information, such as name, nationality, place of origin, occupation, marital and professional status, religious, political and other types of affiliation. You will also learn how to say your age and when and where you were born, and to ask similar information from others.

Name

Use of names in Brazil

The traditional Portuguese practice of including the mother’s maiden name before the father’s family name, and the subsequent addition of the husband’s family name, means that, over the course of several generations, a Brazilian’s family name can become quite long and complex, with two, three, four or even more separate elements. On the other hand, some people opt for a single family name, and waves of immigrants of various nationalities have brought with them their own naming traditions. Thus, to simplify matters, given names are used far more widely than in the English-speaking world. For example, in Brazil, you would refer to and address a doctor with the title Doutor(a) followed by the doctor’s given name rather than the family name, e.g. Dr Ricardo, Dra. Márcia. Note also that you do not address a married woman using her husband’s surname. Similarly, when asked your name, you are usually expected to give only your first name unless otherwise specified.

A single family name may be the preferred form of address in the work environment, especially when a person has a very common given name. In such cases, the person is addressed and referred to only by the family name, but this is for convenience rather than formality, and is not perceived to be any more formal than addressing someone by their given name.

When respect is to be shown, e.g. to an older person and/or someone you would address as o senhor/a senhora (see 7.2), it is customary to precede the person’s given name with senhor (usually abbreviated in speech to seu) for males and dona for females:

- Pode entrar, senhor/seu Pedro.
  You may go in, Mr . . . (family name would be used here in English)

- Bom dia, dona Sandra.
  Good morning, Mrs/Ms . . . (family name would be used here in English).
These titles may be replaced by others, such as doutor(a) for medical doctors and other liberal professionals, e.g. lawyers, or professor(a) for teachers. In direct address, the title alone can be used:

**Professor, vai ter prova hoje?**
Sir, will we be having a test today?

Young children address their teachers as tio/tia (*literally*, ‘uncle/aunt’) and also use this form of address for all unrelated adults:

**Tia, você viu a minha mãe?**
Miss, have you seen my mum?

### 34.1.2 Giving and asking names

To say your name, use the expression *(o) meu nome é . . .* ‘my name is . . .’. By changing the possessive pronoun (see Chapter 9) you can ask and give other people’s names:

**O meu nome é Carla.**
My name is Carla.

**Qual (é) o seu nome?**
What’s your name? (*neutral*)

**Qual (é) o nome do senhor?**
Can I have your name please, sir? (*formal*)

**O nome dela é Bianca.**
Her name’s Bianca.

Notice that the verb *é* can be omitted after *qual*.

► Chapter 9 (p. 75)

There is also the reflexive verb *chamar-se* ‘to be called’, which may be used in giving and asking people’s names:

**Eu me chamo Antônio.**
I’m called Antonio.

**O pai dela se chama Eduardo.**
Her father’s called Eduardo.

► Chapter 22 (p. 152)

### 34.1.3 Other expressions to do with names

**O nome da senhora?**
Your name please, madam? (*formal*)

**Qual o seu sobrenome?**
What’s your surname/family name?

**O sobrenome dele é Ferreira.**
His surname is Ferreira.

**O nome completo, por favor.**
Your full name, please.
Como se escreve?
How do you spell that?

Pode soletrar, por favor?
Could you spell that, please?

**Nationality and place of origin**

16.3.8 (p. 121); 23.2 (p. 157)

To state your own or someone else’s nationality, use the verb *ser* with the appropriate adjective of nationality. Note that adjectives of nationality are written with a lower-case initial letter in Portuguese:

Sou americano.
I’m American.

O Luís é argentino.
Luís is Argentinian.

Note also:

Você é de que nacionalidade?
What nationality are you?

Sou de nacionalidade brasileira.
I am Brazilian by nationality. / My nationality is Brazilian.

To say where you or others come from, use the verb *ser* followed by the preposition *de* ‘from’:

Sou do Texas.
I’m from Texas.

A Sara é de Londres.
Sara is from London.

To ask where someone comes from, use *de onde . . . ?* with the verb *ser*:

De onde você é? (*neutral*)
Você é de onde? (*informal*)
Where are you from?

De onde eles são? (*neutral*)
Eles são de onde? (*informal*)
Where are they from?

**Marital status**

16.3.8 (p. 121); 23.2 (p. 157)

When simply stating or inquiring about marital status, use the verb *ser*:

Sou solteiro.
I’m single.

Ela é casada?
Is she married?
The verb *estar* can also be used with adjectives denoting marital status, but refers to a much more temporary situation and/or subjective assessment of the situation:

- **Estou solteiro no momento.**
  I’m single at the moment.

- **Eles estão casados.**
  They’re in a committed relationship.

In official situations, you may be asked:

- **Estado civil?**
  Marital status?

To which you may reply with a single word, for example:

- **solteiro**/**a** ‘single’, **casado**/**a** ‘married’, **divorciado**/**a** ‘divorced’, **separado**/**a** ‘separated’, **desquitado**/**a** ‘legally separated’, **viúvo**/**a** ‘widowed’.

### Age

► 16.3.5 (p. 120); 16.3.11 (p. 122)

To refer to someone’s age, Portuguese uses the verb *ter* ‘to have’ or, more colloquially, *estar com* (literally, ‘to be with’):

- **Quantos anos você tem?** *(neutral)*
- **Você tem quantos anos?** *(informal)*
- **Você está com quantos anos?** *(informal)*

  How old are you?

- **Tenho trinta anos.**
  I’m thirty years old.

- **Quantos anos tem sua irmã?**
- **Sua irmã tem quantos anos?**
- **Sua irmã está com quantos anos?**

  How old is your sister?

- **Minha mãe tem cinquenta e cinco.**
  My mum’s fifty-five.

Alternative ways of asking someone’s age are:

- **Que idade você tem?**
- **Você tem que idade?**
- **Você está com que idade?**

  What age are you?

When talking about turning a particular age, the verb to use is *fazer*:

- **Você fazer trinta e cinco esse ano.**
  I’m going to be thirty-five this year.

- **Ela fez oitenta em janeiro.**
  She turned eighty in January.
O Vitor faz anos em junho.
Vitor’s birthday is in June.

Other age expressions:

Ele deve ter uns quarenta anos.
He must be about forty.

Ela está na casa dos cinquenta.
She’s in her fifties.

A filha deles está com vinte e poucos anos.
Their daughter is in her early twenties.

Ele está beirando os setenta.
He’s pushing seventy.

34.5 Date and place of birth
Reference to date and place of birth is made with the verb *nasc..., normally in the preterite tense.

34.5.1 Date of birth

Em que data você nasceu?
Você nasceu em que data?
What date where you born?

Nasci no dia 8 de novembro de 1975.
I was born on November 8th, 1975.

In official situations, you are more likely to be asked:

Qual a sua data de nascimento?
What’s your date of birth?

Or just:

Data de nascimento?
Date of birth?

34.5.2 Place of birth

Onde você nasceu?
Você nasceu onde?
Where were you born?

Nasci na Inglaterra.
I was born in England.

In official situations, you are more likely to be asked:

Lugar de nascimento?
Place of birth?
Occupation, status or rank, religious, political and other affiliations

To say what your or someone else’s profession is, use the verb **ser**:

- **Sou engenheiro.**
  - I’m an engineer.

- **A Sandra é médica.**
  - Sandra is a doctor.

Note that the indefinite article is not used in Portuguese when stating a person’s profession.

To ask what someone’s occupation is, say:

- **Qual (é) a sua profissão?**
  - What job do you do?

- **Em que você trabalha?**
  - What work do you do?

- **Que trabalho você faz?**
  - What job do you do?

- **O que você faz como trabalho?**
  - What do you do as a job?

- **O seu pai trabalha em quê?**
  - What does your father do?

You can also ask: **O que você faz na vida?** ‘What do you do for a living?’

To say that someone works as something, use **trabalhar de** or **como**:

- **Ele está trabalhando de garçom numa pizzaria.**
  - He’s working as a waiter in a pizza restaurant.

- **Trabalho como assessora de um político.**
  - I work as an aide to a politician.

Notice that no indefinite article is used in Portuguese after **de** or **como** in this sense.

To ask and give information about status and rank, religion and political and other affiliations, use **ser**:

- **Ela é chefe da Contabilidade.**
  - She’s the head of the Accounts department.

- **Ele é oficial da Marinha.**
  - He’s an officer in the Navy.

- **O João é budista.**
  - João is a Buddhist.
A Sônia é petista.
Sonia is a supporter of the Workers’ Party (PT).

Eles são flamenguistas.
They are Flamengo supporters (fans of Flamengo football club).

Notice that the articles are not used in Portuguese in all such cases.
35

Identifying people and things

16.3.8 (p. 121); 23.2 (p. 157)

35.1 Identifying yourself and others

To say who you are or who someone is, use the verb *ser* ‘to be’:

- **Sou Leandro Ferreira.**
  I’m Leandro Ferreira.

- **Ela é Marta Penteado.**
  She is Marta Penteado.

- **Eles são os meus pais.**
  They are my parents.

If the purpose of the identification is to introduce somebody, then *ser* is usually preceded by a demonstrative pronoun:

- **Essa é a minha esposa.**
  This is my wife.

- **Esse é o meu irmão.**
  This is my brother.

- **Esses são os meus filhos.**
  These are my children.

To ask who someone is, use *quem* followed by *ser*:

- **Quem é ele?**
  Who’s he?

- **Quem são aquelas pessoas?**
  Who are those people?

Note that the verb *ser* agrees in person and number with what follows it.

If you think you know who someone is and you simply want to make sure, you can say:

- **Você é a Susana?**
  Are you Susana?

- **O senhor é o seu Rafael?**
  Are you Mr . . . ? *(formal: surname would be used here in English)*
Identifying things

To identify something, use the verb *ser* and the interrogative pronoun *qual?* ‘which (one)’ or *quais?* ‘which (ones)’:

- **Qual é a sua bolsa?**
  Which is your bag?
  
  *(É) a preta.*
  *(It’s) the black one.*

- **Quais são as xícaras de café?**
  Which are the coffee cups?
  
  *(São) aquelas ali.*
  *(They’re) the ones over there.*

- **O que é isso?**
  What’s this/that?
  
  *É um saca-rolhas.*
  *It’s a corkscrew.*

- **Essa é a sua chave?**
  Is this/that your key?
  
  *(É) uma bicicleta dobrável.*
  *(Is) a folding bicycle. (= This object is a bicycle that folds up.)*

Remember that, in spoken Portuguese, the demonstratives *esse(s)/essa(s)/isso* are used to mean both ‘this/these’ and ‘that/those (near you)’ (see 8.3). Notice that *isso* is used when you are not yet sure what something is, and *esse(s)/essa(s)*, with gender and number agreement, when the nature of the thing is already clear. Compare:

- **Isso é uma bicicleta dobrável.**
  *This is a folding bicycle. (= This object is a bicycle that folds up.)*

- **Essa é uma bicicleta dobrável.**
  *This is a folding bicycle. (= This bicycle is one that folds up.)*
Describing

36

36.1

Referring to a subject’s nature or identity

ser + adjective

16.3.8 (p. 121); 23.2 (p. 157)

When referring to a subject’s inherent nature or identity, as in ‘The Earth is round’, ‘Paula is intelligent’, ‘This is a portable cooking stove’, we use the verb ser ‘to be’, with an adjective (words like redondo ‘round’, inteligente ‘intelligent’, portátil ‘portable’, which tell us what a noun is like). Remember that adjectives must agree in gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural) with the noun they refer to:

A Terra é redonda.
The Earth is round.

A Paula é inteligente.
Paula is intelligent.

Isso é um fogão portátil.
This is a portable cooking stove.

São Paulo é muito grande.
São Paulo is very big.

Esse livro é interessante.
This book is interesting.

Esse é o Vinícius. Ele é o meu irmão.
This is Vinicius. He’s my brother.

É um filme de terror.
It’s a horror movie.

36.1.2

Position of the adjective

5.1 (p. 38); 5.2 (p. 38); 5.3 (p. 39)

When an adjective is used in combination with a noun, it is usually placed after the noun in Portuguese. However, some short descriptive adjectives regularly precede the noun and, with some adjectives, there is a difference of meaning depending on whether the adjective is placed before or after the noun (see 5.1):

um homem grande ‘a big man’

um grande homem ‘a great man’
uma oportunidade única ‘a unique opportunity’
uma única oportunidade ‘a single opportunity’.

With most other adjectives, placement after the noun is the norm, especially when the adjective serves to differentiate the noun. It follows that certain types of adjective, which differentiate by virtue of their meaning, will always be placed after the noun, e.g. those of nationality, colour, shape, nature, purpose, etc.:

- um navio francês ‘a French ship’
- uma enfermeira australiana ‘an Australian nurse’
- roupa branca ‘white clothes, whites’
- um rosto oval ‘an oval face’
- políticas sociais ‘social policies’
- um brinquedo educativo ‘an educational toy’.

Some kinds of descriptive adjectives may be placed before the noun for stylistic reasons. In general, an adjective placed before the noun refers to an inherent, rather than distinctive, characteristic of the noun, or to a subjectively perceived quality. Often, the same noun is further qualified by a distinctive adjective or defining expression:

- as famosas praias do Rio de Janeiro
  Rio de Janeiro’s famous beaches (i.e. all Rio’s beaches are famous)
  cf. As praias famosas do Rio são Copacabana e Ipanema.
  Rio’s famous beaches are Copacabana and Ipanema. (distinctive meaning)

Tomamos um excelente vinho francês.
We drank an excellent French wine. (exelente is not used to differentiate here, but rather as a subjective comment on the wine)

- um vasto deserto de areia branca
  a vast desert of white sand (‘vastness’ is an inherent quality of deserts)

- uma divertida comédia de Woody Allen
  an amusing comedy by Woody Allen (most comedies are amusing).

Except in the case of adjectives that are always placed before the noun (see 5.2) or that change meaning according to their position (see 5.3), it is advisable always to place the adjective after the noun until you have acquired a good feel for the language.

Other verbs used in descriptions

Of course, as in English, there are a large number of other verbs that may be used to describe people, places and things. The verb ter ‘to have’ is perhaps one of the most common:

- Ele tem olhos azuis.
  He has blue eyes.

- A cidade tem um clima ameno.
  The town has a mild climate.

- A pousada tem muito charme.
  The guest house has a lot of charm.
36.2 Enquiring about a subject’s nature or appearance

To ask what someone or something is like, use the construction como + ser + noun:

Como é a sua namorada?
What’s your girlfriend like?

Como eram os seus pais?
What were your parents like?

Como era o hotel?
What was the hotel like?

Como é o vestido que você comprou?
What’s the dress like that you bought?

Note that, como é/são . . . can refer to a subject’s appearance, nature or both. If you want to specify, you can say:

Como é o seu irmão fisicamente?
What does your brother look like?

Como era sua avó como pessoa?
What was your grandmother like as a person?

Como se parece um tamanduá?
What does an anteater look like?

Que aspecto tem um abacate maduro?
What does a ripe avocado look like?

Another useful expression is Que tipo de . . . ‘what kind/sort/type of . . .’:

Que tipo de pessoa é o seu chefe?
What’s your boss like?

Que tipo de filme é?
What kind of film is it?

Questions about the size, colour or shape of things must include the preposition de in Portuguese:

De que cor é o seu carro?
What colour is your car?

De que tamanho era o apartamento?
What size/How big was the apartment?

A mesa é de que formato?
What shape is the table?
Describing a state or condition

To refer to a subject’s temporary state or condition, rather than its inherent properties, use the verb **estar** ‘to be’:

- **A Ana está feliz.**
  Ana is happy.

- **O ônibus estava lotado.**
  The bus was packed.

- **Esse sapato está novo.**
  These shoes are as good as new.

- **O Celso está doente.**
  Celso is ill.

- **Meus pais estão bem.**
  My parents are well.

Sometimes **estar** is used to emphasize a state or condition of the subject that may also be considered to be an inherent property:

- **Ela está bonita.**
  She looks pretty.

- **Ela é bonita.**
  She is pretty.

- **O pai deles está jovem ainda.**
  Their father is still youthful.

- **O pai deles é jovem ainda.**
  Their father is still young.

You sometimes hear sentences such as:

- **A novela não está chata, é chata.**
  The soap opera is not just going through a boring patch, it’s boring full stop.

To ask about someone’s general well-being, use **como** + **ir**:

- **Como vai a sua mãe?**
  How’s your mother?

- **Como vão as crianças?**
  How are the kids?

If there is some question about the person’s state of health, use **como** + **estar**:

- **Como está a sua mãe?**
  How’s your mother? *(i.e. is she better?)*

- **Como estava o Zé?**
  How was Zé? *(i.e. when you saw him or spoke to him)*
Describing events

Compare these three sentences:

Como é o seu irmão?
What’s your brother like?

Como vai o seu irmão?
How’s your brother? (i.e. what’s he doing these days?)

Como está o seu irmão?
How’s your brother? (since his accident, illness, divorce, etc.)

36.4 Descriptions involving an unspoken comparison

► 16.3.11 (p. 122); 23.3 (p. 159)

estar is also used when the sentence implies a comparison with other moments in time:

O filho dela está grande.
Her son’s big. (bigger than when I last saw him)

A cidade estava muito suja.
The city was very dirty. (it used to be clean or cleaner)

Estou gordo, preciso emagrecer.
I’m fat, I need to lose weight. (I’ve gained weight recently)

36.5 Asking and saying what something is made of

► 16.3.8 (p. 121); 23.2 (p. 157)

36.5.1 To ask someone what material something is made of, use sentences such as:

O anel é de quê?
What’s the ring made of?

De que são feitas essas esculturas?
What are those sculptures made (out) of?

São de ouro?
Are they (made of) gold?

36.5.2 To describe what something is made of, use ser followed by the preposition de:

O bracelete é de prata.
The bracelet is (made of) silver.

São de plástico.
They’re (made of) plastic.

É feito de couro.
It’s made out of leather.

36.6 Describing events

To say what an event was like, either ser or estar can be used. Ser gives the description a more objective tone, while estar refers much more to the speaker’s subjective impression. It follows that estar can only be used if the speaker has had first-hand experience of the event. In addition, when a one-off past event is being described, ser is used in the preterite,
while *estar* is normally used in the imperfect because it is conveying the background ‘feel’ of the event:

*A aula foi interessante.*  
The lesson was interesting. *(Anybody would have found it interesting)*

*A aula estava interessante.*  
The lesson was interesting. *(I found it interesting)*

*A noite foi divertida.*  
The evening was fun. *(Everybody enjoyed themselves)*

*A noite estava divertida.*  
The evening was fun. *(I enjoyed myself)*

When asking someone about a past event, it is more common to use *ser*:

**Como foi a festa?**  
How was the party?

When the event described is less clear-cut, the preposition *de* is inserted before the noun:

**Como foi de viagem?**  
How was your trip?

**Como foi de Natal?**  
How was your Christmas?

An alternative way of asking about an event is to use *que tal . . . ?* without a verb:

**Que tal o casamento?**  
How was the wedding?

**Que tal a viagem?**  
What was your trip like?

### Describing facts or information

► 16.3.8 (p. 121); 23.2 (p. 157)

Facts and information are described using *ser*, even when it is the speaker’s own subjective opinion:

**Isso é muito interessante.**  
That’s very interesting. *(e.g. what you just told me)*

**O que aconteceu com eles foi horrível.**  
What happened to them was awful.

### Describing a person’s character and attitude

► 16.3.8 (p. 121); 23.2 (p. 157)

A person’s character is inherent and therefore described using *ser*:

**Ela é muito delicada.**  
She’s very thoughtful.
Ele é um cavalheiro.
He’s a gentleman.

The verb *ser* is also used to describe a person’s attitude at a particular point in time:

Ele foi muito gentil conosco.
He was very kind to us.

Não precisa ser grosso comigo.
There’s no need to be rude to me.

**Describing the weather**

To describe the weather, Portuguese uses either *estar* ‘to be’ or *fazer* (*literally*, ‘to do’), followed by a noun (e.g. *frio, calor, sol, bom tempo*) when talking about a particular point in time:

Amanhã vai fazer/estar sol.
It’s going to be sunny tomorrow.

Está (fazendo) um dia lindo.
It’s a lovely day.

When talking in general terms about the climate, only *fazer* can be used with nouns:

Faz muito calor aqui no verão.
It’s very hot here in the summer.

To describe the weather at a particular point in time, *estar* + adjective can also be used:

Está abafado hoje.
It’s humid today.

Ontem estava mais quente.
It was hotter yesterday.

Está nublado.
It’s cloudy.

To make more general statements about the climate, use *ser* + adjective:

É quente na Amazônia.
It’s hot in the Amazon.

As noites são frias na serra.
The nights are cold in the mountains.

To ask what the weather or climate is like, use phrases such as the following:

Como está o tempo hoje?
What’s the weather like today?

Que tempo está fazendo lá fora?
What’s the weather like outside?

Como é o tempo/clima no Japão?
What’s the weather/climate like in Japan?
Que tempo faz na Escócia?
What’s the weather like in Scotland?

Está (fazendo) muito frio?
Is it very cold? (at the moment)

Faz muito calor?
Is it very hot? (in general)
Making comparisons

This chapter presents the most common constructions used by Brazilians to compare things. For ease of reference, these have been grouped into three main categories: comparisons of inequality, those of equality and comparisons involving more than two objects.

### Comparisons of inequality

**mais + adjective + do que; menos + adjective + do que**

Comparisons of inequality, as in ‘taller than’, ‘more expensive than’, ‘less interesting than’, are expressed in Portuguese with the word *mais* ‘more’, for superiority, or *menos* ‘less’ for inferiority. ‘Than’ is translated *do que* or, less commonly, just *que*:

- **O Leo é mais alto do que o irmão.**
  Leo is taller than his brother.

- **O meu computador foi mais caro do que o seu.**
  My computer was more expensive than yours.

- **O terceiro livro da série é muito menos interessante do que os outros dois.**
  The third book in the series is much less interesting than the other two.

As in English, if the context makes it clear, there is often no need to express the whole comparison:

- **O Leo é mais alto.**
  Leo is taller.

- **O terceiro livro da série é menos interessante.**
  The third book in the series is less interesting.

**mais + adverb + do que; menos + adverb + do que**

The same constructions are used to compare adverbs:

- **Meu pai anda mais devagar do que eu.**
  My dad walks more slowly than I do.

- **Ela fala português menos fluentemente do que o irmão.**
  She speaks Portuguese less fluently than her brother.
Irregular comparisons

Remember that some adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparative forms. The most common are:

- bem ‘well’, bom ‘good’
- mal ‘badly’, mau/ruim ‘bad’
- grande ‘big, large, great’
- pequeno ‘small’
- melhor ‘better’
- pior ‘worse’
- maior ‘bigger, larger, greater’
- menor ‘smaller’

Ela canta melhor do que eu.
She sings better than me.

O tempo estava pior do que no dia anterior.
The weather was worse than on the previous day.

O Brasil é muito maior do que a Argentina.
Brazil is much larger than Argentina.

Meu novo carro é menor.
My new car is smaller.

37.1.4 mais + noun + do que; menos + noun + do que

Both mais and menos can be used as invariable adjectives preceding nouns:

- Ela tem mais dinheiro do que a irmã.
  She has more money than her sister.
- Ele sabe mais português do que eu.
  He knows more Portuguese than I do.
- Este ano houve menos assaltos do que no ano passado.
  This year there were fewer muggings than last year.

37.1.5 Verb + mais do que; verb + menos do que

Both mais and menos can also be used to qualify verbs:

- Meu irmão come mais do que eu.
  My brother eats more than me.
- Gastamos menos em roupa do que em comida.
  We spend less on clothes than on food.

37.1.6 mais/menos + adjective/adverb/noun + do que + clause

The second element of the comparison may be a clause:

- Foi mais barato do que eu achava.
  It was cheaper than I thought.
- Vieram menos pessoas do que nós esperávamos.
  Fewer people came than we expected.
- Ela está falando inglês melhor do que falava antes.
  She’s speaking English better than she did before.
Comparisons of equality

Ele é mais velho do que aparenta.
He’s older than he looks.

37.1.7 mais/menos de + numerals
In comparisons involving numerals, use mais/menos de:

Ela tem menos de trinta anos.
She’s less than thirty years old.

Faz mais de um ano que não vejo os meus pais.
It’s more than a year since I saw my parents.

Comparisons of equality

37.2 tão + adjective/adverb + quanto/como
Comparisons of equality involving adjectives and adverbs are expressed with the construction tão . . . quanto/como ‘as . . . as’:

O irmão do Bruno é tão bonito quanto ele.
Bruno’s brother is as good-looking as he is.

Esse apartamento é tão grande como o outro.
This apartment is as big as the other one.

Ela dança tão graciosamente quanto a irmã.
She dances as gracefully as her sister.

Você fala espanhol tão bem como você fala português?
Do you speak Spanish as well as you do Portuguese?

The construction tão . . . quanto may also be used colloquially without a second element, meaning ‘just as . . .’:

Já provei xampus caros, mas esse barato é tão bom quanto.
I’ve tried expensive shampoos, but this cheap one is just as good.

37.2.2 tanto + noun + quanto/como
Comparisons of equality involving a noun require this construction with tanto . . . quanto/como, in which tanto agrees in gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural) with the noun it refers to. In this construction, quanto is more frequent than como:

Como ator, ele fez tanto sucesso quanto o irmão.
As an actor, he has had as much success as his brother.

Hoje tinha tantos clientes como ontem.
Today there were as many customers as yesterday.

37.2.3 Verb + tanto quanto/como
When comparing two subjects in terms of an action (i.e. a verb), use tanto quanto/como ‘as much as’. In this construction, quanto is more frequent than como:

Ela bebe tanto quanto o marido.
She drinks as much as her husband does.
Nunca ri tanto como hoje à noite.
I’ve never laughed as much as I have tonight.

37.2.4 tão and tanto in non-comparative expressions
Without the second element of the comparison, tão means ‘so’ and tanto ‘so much’:

Eu não sabia que ela falava inglês tão bem.
I didn’t know she spoke English so well.

O filhinho deles é tão bonitinho!
Their little boy is so cute!

Eu já liguei para ele tantas vezes!
I’ve already called him so many times!

Rimos tanto!
We laughed so much!

Both can be followed by a que clause expressing a consequence:

Ele fala tão rápido que não entendo nada.
He talks so fast (that) I can’t understand a word.

O voo atrasou tanto que perdemos a conexão.
The flight was delayed so much we missed our connection.

Eu estava com tanta sede que tomei um litro de água de uma vez só.
I was so thirsty (that) I drank a litre of water in one go.

Note also another type of construction with a similar meaning using the preposition de:

Ele não conseguia falar de tão bêbado.
He was so drunk he couldn’t speak.

Fiquei sem ar de tanto rir.
I was laughing so much I couldn’t catch my breath.

37.2.5 Other ways of expressing equality
Comparisons of equality may also be expressed with:

(i) igual (a) ‘the same (as), identical (to)’:

Elas se vestem igual.
They dress the same.

Os homens não pensam igual às mulheres.
Men don’t think the same way as women.

Ele é igual ao pai.
He’s just like his father.

Meu tênis é igual ao seu.
My trainers are the same as yours.

As duas casas são iguais.
The two houses are the same.
Comparing more than two objects

(ii)  *o mesmo (que) / a mesma coisa (que)* ‘the same (as), the same thing (as)’:

> Perguntei a várias pessoas, mas todas falaram o mesmo.
> I asked several people, but they all said the same.

> Pedir ajuda não é a mesma coisa que desistir.
> Asking for help is not the same as giving up.

(iii) *igualmente* ‘just as, equally’:

> As duas coisas são igualmente importantes.
> The two things are equally important.

> O segundo romance dela é igualmente envolvente.
> Her second novel is just as gripping.

(iv)  *do mesmo jeito* ‘the same way’:

> Se jogarmos do mesmo jeito na final, vamos ganhar com certeza.
> If we play the same way in the final, we’ll definitely win.

> Você pode comprar o livro online, mas, com o frete, vai ficar caro do mesmo jeito.
> You can buy the book online, but with the shipping it’ll be just as expensive.

(v)  *parecer-se* ‘to be/look alike’, *parecer-se com / parecer* ‘to be/look like’:

> Os gêmeos se parecem muito, mas não são idênticos.
> The twins look very much alike, but they are not identical.

> O novo modelo não se parece em nada com o antigo.
> The new model is nothing like the old one.

> Ele parece o Brad Pitt.
> He looks like Brad Pitt.

(vi)  Common expressions of equality:

> burro que nem porta
> as thick as two short planks

> suar igual a um porco
> to sweat like a pig.

37.3 Comparing more than two objects

▶ 4.1 (p. 32)

37.3.1 Definite article + *mais/menos* + adjective

To express superlatives such as ‘the highest’, ‘the most expensive’, ‘the least interesting’, when comparing more than two objects, Portuguese uses the definite article followed by the comparative form of the adjective:

> O Monte Everest é a montanha mais alta do mundo.
> Mount Everest is the highest mountain in the world.

> Esse relógio é o mais caro da loja.
> This watch is the most expensive one in the shop.
É um dos melhores restaurantes de São Paulo.
It’s one of São Paulo’s best restaurants.

Os dois últimos livros da série são os menos interessantes.
The last two books in the series are the least interesting.

Notice that the frame of reference is introduced with the preposition de in Portuguese, whereas English normally uses ‘in’ or another preposition:

a melhor faixa do álbum
the best track on the album.

The definite article may be replaced by a possessive in superlative expressions:

Ele é o meu melhor amigo.
He’s my best friend.

Esse é o nosso modelo mais vendido.
This is our best-selling model.

Omission of the definite article
The definite article is omitted in some sentences of this type, particularly:

(i) With adverbs:

Quem cantou melhor foi a primeira.
It was the first girl who sang best.

Dos três irmãos, o Carlos se parece mais com o pai.
Of the three brothers, Carlos looks most like his father.

(ii) Following estar or ficar:

Em casa quem está mais interessado em esportes é a minha mãe.
In our house the person most interested in sports is my mum.

Eu é que fiquei mais decepcionado.
I was the most disappointed.
Expressing existence and availability

This chapter deals with the ways of saying ‘there is/are . . .’, ‘there was/were . . .’, ‘do you have . . .?’, etc. in Portuguese.

### 38.1 Asking and answering questions regarding existence

**tem, tinha, vai ter . . .**

In everyday speech and some informal writing, the word for ‘there is/are . . .’ is *tem*. This is the third person singular of the verb *ter*, which in this meaning is used impersonally and always in the singular.

- **Tem uma farmácia por aqui?**
  Is there a pharmacy around here?

- **Tem duas na outra rua.**
  There are two in the next street.

- **Não tem.**
  No, there isn’t.

Notice that, in negative sentences such as ‘there aren’t any, there isn’t one’, ‘any’ and ‘one’ are not translated in Portuguese unless there is particular emphasis:

- **Eu ia comer pão, mas não tem.**
  I was going to eat bread, but there isn’t any.

- **Eu procurava uma livraria, mas não tem nenhuma por aqui.**
  I was looking for a bookshop, but there’s not (a single) one around here.

Examples using other tenses of *tem*:

- **Tinha muita fila no banco?**
  Was there much of a queue at the bank?

- **Teve uma briga feia na boate.**
  There was a nasty fight at the club.

- **Vai ter churrasco no domingo.**
  There’s going to be a barbecue on Sunday.

- **Compre salame italiano, se tiver.**
  Buy Italian salami if there is any.
In more formal speech and writing, ‘there is/are . . .’ is translated há. This is the third
person singular of the verb haver, which, like tem, is used impersonally and always in the
singular in this meaning:

Há vários problemas a serem resolvidos.
There are various problems to be resolved.

Há quantos candidatos por vaga?
How many applicants are there for each place?

Não há nenhuma possibilidade de ganhar.
There is no possibility of winning.

Examples in other tenses and forms:

É possível que haja uma reunião no mês que vem.
It is possible that there will be a meeting next month.

Se houver algum problema, ligue para este número.
If there is any problem, call this number.

Houve um debate acalorado no Senado.
There was a heated debate in the Senate.

Havia mais de 30.000 pessoas no jogo de ontem.
There were more than 30,000 people at yesterday’s game.

Deve haver uma solução.
There must be a solution.

The verb existir can also be used in pre-subject position to mean ‘there is/are’. Unlike
tem and há, existir has to agree in number (singular or plural) with what follows. Existir
refers to the existence of something in general and is not used to refer to a specific location
or event:

Existe um departamento específico que trata desses assuntos.
There is a specific department that deals with these matters.

Existem pessoas que acreditam em reencarnação.
There are people who believe in reincarnation.

Existe a possibilidade de ter sido um engano?
Is there the possibility that it was a mistake?

Não existe carro voador.
There’s no such thing as a flying car.

Given the semantic restrictions mentioned above, existir is only really used in the present
and imperfect in this meaning, although the subjunctive tenses may also be encountered:

Existiam poucos lugares onde se sentia seguro.
There were few places where it felt safe.
Expressing availability

Não existia polícia na época.
The there was no police force at the time.

Duvido que exista outra cidade igual.
I doubt there's any other city like it.

ser

When talking about how many people there are in a group, the verb used is *ser*:

**Quantos somos?**
How many of us are there?

**Somos seis.**
There are six of us.

The preposition *em* is sometimes inserted before the number in this usage:

**Lá em casa éramos em seis irmãos.**
There were six of us children in my family.

The verb *ser* can be used in other numerical expressions to mean ‘there are . . .’:

**Eram 200 candidatos para uma vaga.**
There were 200 applicants for one vacancy.

**São 500 ligações por hora.**
There are 500 phone calls an hour.

Describing facilities

To ask and say what facilities there are in a place, use either impersonal *tem* or *há*, meaning ‘there is/are . . .’, or the verb *ter* ‘to have’:

**O hotel tem piscina?**
Does the hotel have a pool?

**Tem dois bares no hotel.** *(spoken)*
**Há dois bares no hotel.** *(written)*
There are two bars in the hotel.

**Todos os apartamentos têm ar-condicionado.**
All the rooms have air conditioning.

**Tem cofre no quarto?**
Is there a safe in the room?

Expressing availability

*tem*

To ask or say whether something is available or not, use *tem* *(see 38.1.1)*:

**Tem quarto com vista para o mar?**
Are there any rooms with a sea view?
Sinto muito, mas não tem.
I’m very sorry, but there aren’t any.

Não tinha nada.
There was nothing.

Notice that, when asking how much of something is available, the preposition de is used:

Quanto tem de leite?
How much milk is there?

The personal verb ter ‘to have’ may also be used to talk about availability, but, in the singular, it only differs from the impersonal tem if you include the subject pronoun você:

Tem café descafeinado?
Do you have/Is there decaffeinated coffee?

Você tem trocado?
Do you have any small change?

When talking about availability in a shop, hotel, etc. the plural of ter may also be used:

Vocês têm protetor solar?
Do you have sunblock?

In more formal contexts, dispor de, contar com, and possuir are often used with the meaning of ‘to have’:

O Brasil dispõe de um dos mais modernos sistemas bancários do mundo.
Brazil has one of the world’s most modern banking systems.

O hotel conta com quatro quadras de tênis.
The hotel has four tennis courts.

O carro possui câmbio manual de cinco marchas.
The car has a five-gear manual transmission.
Expressing location and distance

This chapter examines all the various expressions used in Portuguese to refer to location and distance, including verbs such as *estar*, *ser* and *ficar*, all meaning ‘to be’, prepositions and other less common forms.

### Expressing location

#### estar

- **Onde está a Júlia?**
  Where is Julia?

- **Ela está em casa.**
  She’s at home.

- **Onde vocês estavam?**
  Where were you?

- **Estávamos no jardim.**
  We were in the garden.

- **Onde está o seu cachorro?**
  Where’s your dog?

- **Ele está lá fora, no quintal.**
  He’s out in the yard.

- **Onde estão as chaves do carro?**
  Where are the car keys?

- **Estão em cima da mesa.**
  They’re on the table.

---

**NOTE**

In colloquial speech, you will often hear *aonde* in this usage, but formal grammar only allows *aonde* when motion is involved, i.e. it is supposed to mean ‘where . . . to?’ and not ‘where . . . at?’.
In colloquial speech, ‘where is/are . . .?’ is often expressed using cadê . . . ? Note that cadê incorporates the verb, so is followed immediately by the subject:

Cadê o controle remoto?
Where’s the remote control?

Cadê os outros?
Where are the others?

Cadê ele?
Where is he?

The word cadê is more often used to refer to living beings and objects that can be moved around, although it can be used with reference to permanent location when the sense is ‘I’m not managing to locate . . .’. Note that it cannot be followed by an indefinite noun:

Cadê o correio?
Where’s the post office? (*I know there’s one around here somewhere*)

ser, ficar

To ask or talk about the location of an object that does not normally move around, use the verbs ser or ficar. Of the two, ficar tends to be used more with buildings and geographical features, but ser can always be substituted in such cases:

Onde é fica o banco mais próximo?
Where is the nearest bank?

É Fica na praça principal.
It’s on the main square.

Onde são ficam as cataratas de Iguaçu?
Where are the Iguaçu Falls?

São Ficam no sul, na fronteira com a Argentina.
They’re in the south, on the border with Argentina.

O banheiro é lá em cima.
The bathroom is upstairs.

encontrar-se

This verb is often used to mean ‘to be’ in more formal contexts, usually in writing. It more often refers to temporary location, though it may also refer to permanent location in the sense of ‘be found, can be found’:

Atualmente, o presidente se encontra em Nova York.
The president is currently in New York.

A bola já se encontrava fora da linha.
The ball was already over the line.

No centro da cidade encontram-se os melhores restaurantes.
The best restaurants are found in the centre of the city.
**estar situado/localizado**

The expressions *estar situado/localizado* ‘to be situated/located’ and their more formal alternatives, *situar-se* and *localizar-se*, are also used to describe location. Note that *situado* and *localizado* have to agree in gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural) with the subject:

- A cidade está situada num vale.
  The town is situated in a valley.

- O hotel está localizado a cinco minutos do aeroporto.
  The hotel is located five minutes from the airport.

**em que lugar (de) . . . ?**

To ask whereabouts in a country or city, use *em que lugar de...*:

- Você nasceu em que lugar da Inglaterra?
  Whereabouts in England where you born?

- Você mora em que lugar do Rio?
  Whereabouts do you live in Rio?

**em que altura (de) . . . ? / na altura de**

To specify the exact location in a street or along a road, use the noun *altura*:

- A livraria fica em que altura da Paulista?
  Whereabouts along the Avenida Paulista is the bookshop?

- Eu estava na altura da igreja quando dei por falta da carteira.
  I’d got as far as the church when I noticed I was missing my wallet.

- Houve um acidente na Via Dutra, na altura de Lorena.
  There has been an accident on the Dutra Highway outside Lorena.

**Asking and saying where an event will take or took place**

To ask or say where an event, such as a meeting or party, will take or took place, use the verb *ser*:

- Onde vai ser a reunião?
  Where is the meeting going to be?

- Vai ser na diretoria.
  It’ll be in the boardroom.

- A festa foi na minha casa.
  The party was at my house.
Indicating precise location

Chapter 25 (p. 176), especially 25.3 (p. 186)

To indicate precise location, we need the Portuguese equivalent of words like ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’, ‘under’, ‘behind’, etc. These words are called prepositions, and they sometimes combine with other words to form phrases that express location or some other notion, for example distance (see 39.4). Following are some of the most important.

**39.3.1 a**

The preposition *a* is used in a number of set phrases and complex prepositions:

- *a quinze quilômetros daqui* ‘fifteen kilometres from here’ (see 39.4)
- *à esquerda/direita* ‘on/to the left/right’
- *ao lado* ‘next door; nearby’
- *ao lado de* ‘next to’.

Note that ‘at’, as in ‘at the library’, ‘at the bank’, is usually translated with the preposition *em* in Portuguese: *na biblioteca, no banco*. When expressing close proximity, the preposition *a* is used in more formal style, while *em* is used in colloquial speech: *Eles estavam sentados à (colloquially, na) mesa.* ‘They were sitting at the table’.

**39.3.2 abaixo de**

The preposition *abaixo de* ‘below’ is normally found in more formal registers and figurative senses:

- *a legenda abaixo da foto*
  the caption below the photo.

**39.3.3 acima de**

The preposition *acima de* ‘above’, is normally found in more formal registers and figurative senses:

- *Ele sofreu um corte acima do olho esquerdo.*
  He suffered a cut above his left eye.

**39.3.4 atrás de**

This means ‘behind’:

- *A casa deles fica atrás da igreja.*
  Their house is behind the church.

**39.3.5 de**

The preposition *de* can be used as follows:

- *ao lado de* ‘next to’
- *atrás de* ‘behind’
The word **em** serves as a kind of default preposition of location in Portuguese and may translate ‘at’, ‘in’ or ‘on’:

- **Comprei isso na farmácia.**
  I bought this at the pharmacy.

- **O jantar está na mesa.**
  The dinner is on the table.

- **A chave estava no meu bolso.**
  The key was in my pocket.

The prepositions **no**/**na** are also used in colloquial speech before the name of a person or profession to mean ‘at . . .’s (house)’, ‘at the . . .’s’:

- **Eu estive na Sônia ontem.**
  I was at Sonia’s yesterday.

- **O Paulo está no dentista.**
  Paulo’s at the dentist’s.

The preposition **em** is also used in the following compound prepositions:

- **em cima de** on top of, on, above
- **em frente de**/**a** in front of, opposite
- **na frente de** in front of.

**NOTE**

77 Note that ‘in front of me/you/us’ is translated **na minha/sua/nossa frente.**

### 39.3.7 **embaixo de**

This means ‘under, underneath’:

- **O cachorro estava dormindo embaixo da mesa.**
  The dog was asleep under the table.
When expressing location, entre translates into English as 'between' or 'among', depending on the context:

Arujá fica entre São Paulo e São José dos Campos.
Arujá is between São Paulo and São José dos Campos.

Pequenas flores brotavam entre as árvores.
Small flowers were sprouting among the trees.

The basic meaning of sobre is 'on', but it can also translate 'on top of', 'over' and 'above':

A fatura estava sobre uma pilha de outros papéis.
The bill was on top of a pile of other papers.

Pequenas flores brotavam entre as árvores.
Small flowers were sprouting among the trees.

To indicate distance from something, use estar, ser, ficar or another verb as appropriate (see 39.1), followed by the preposition a and phrase signalling distance:

Feira de Santana fica a 116 km de Salvador.
Feira de Santana is 116 km from Salvador.

O hotel é a cinco minutos da praia.
The hotel is five minutes from the beach.

Estamos a mais ou menos uma hora do Rio.
We're about an hour away from Rio.

Note also the question a que distância...? 'how far'?
The preposition a is not required with perto ‘near, close by’ and longe ‘far away’:

**O supermercado é perto/pertinho.**
The supermarket is close by/really near.

**Estamos perto da praia?**
Are we near the beach?

**Não, a praia é longe daqui.**
No, the beach is a long way from here.

To ask how far a place is, you can also ask questions such as these:

**São quantos quilômetros daqui a Parati?**
How many kilometres is it from here to Parati?

**São quantos minutos de carro de Copacabana até o centro?**
How many minutes is it by car from Copacabana to the centre?

**Dá quanto daqui até Porto Alegre?**
How far is it from here to Porto Alegre?

**É longe?**
Is it far?

**É perto?**
Is it nearby?

**Dá para ir a pé?**
Is it within walking distance?
Expressing possessive relations

This chapter examines the forms used by Brazilians to express possession and to enquire about possession. The notes below explain the uses of possessive adjectives and pronouns and a range of other constructions associated with this function.

Chapter 9 (p. 75)

Expressing ownership and possession

Using possessives

**meu(s)/minha(s), seu(s)/sua(s), nosso(s)/nossa(s)**

The words *meu(s)/minha(s)* ‘my’, *seu(s)/sua(s)* ‘your’ and *nosso(s)/nossa(s)* ‘our’ are followed by a noun or noun phrase and must agree in gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural) with the thing possessed:

- Minha chave, por favor.
  My key, please.

- Os seus óculos estão na mesa.
  Your glasses are on the table.

- Nosso carro enguiçou.
  Our car has broken down.

These three possessive adjectives may be preceded by the definite article with no change of meaning. The definite article is optional except after the prepositions *a, de, em, para* and *por*, when it is always included in informal registers: 78

- a chave do meu quarto
  the key to my room

- as fotos da nossa viagem
  the photos of our trip

- Coloca isso na sua bolsa.
  Put this in your bag.

---

78 These are the prepositions that form phonetic contractions with the definite article (see 4.1.3). Note that, in more formal writing, it is considered good style to omit the definite article, even after these prepositions.
Expressing ownership and possession

40.1.2 dele, dela, deles, delas, de vocês
In the spoken language and often in writing too (see 40.1.6), ‘his’, ‘her’, ‘their’ and ‘your’ (referring to more than one person), are expressed by placing the definite article before the noun and dele, dela, deles/delas or de vocês respectively after it:

Conheci a esposa dele.
I met his wife.

Gostei da roupa dela.
I like her outfit.

É o carro deles?
Is it their car?

as minhas irmãs e os filhos delas
my sisters and their children

Vamos à casa de vocês?
Shall we go to your house?

40.1.3 um ... meu/umas ... dele, etc.
When the noun is preceded by an indefinite article, as in ‘a friend of mine’, ‘some letters of his’, etc., the possessives are placed after the noun. The words meu, seu and nosso must agree in gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural) with the noun:

Encontrei um amigo meu na rua.
I met a friend of mine in the street.

Uma prima deles morreu no acidente.
A cousin of theirs was killed in the accident.

Achei umas cartas dele numa gaveta.
I found some letters of his in a drawer.

40.1.4 o meu, o seu, o dele...
The possessives may be used without a noun referring back to something that has already been mentioned. In this case, the possessives must be preceded by the definite article, which has to agree in gender and number with the noun being referred back to. The possessives meu, seu and nosso must also agree in gender and number with this noun:

Gosto da minha bicicleta, mas prefiro a sua.
I like my bike, but I prefer yours.

O nosso quarto é maior do que o de vocês.
Our room is bigger than yours.

Sua redação está ótima. A minha está horrível.
Your composition is really good. Mine is awful.

Coloquei a minha bolsa, a sua e a dela no meu carro.
I’ve put my bag, yours and hers in my car.

As passagens não estão na minha bolsa, estão na sua.
The tickets aren’t in my bag, they’re in yours.

40.1.5 ser meu, ser dele, etc.
The possessives can be used after the verb ser (without the definite article) to mean ‘to be mine, to be his’, etc. The words meu, seu and nosso have to agree in gender and number with the noun they refer back to:
Essa caneta é dele.
This pen is his.

O apartamento é alugado, mas os móveis são nossos.
The apartment is rented, but the furniture is ours.

Essas coisas são suas?
Are these things yours?

When you want to describe ownership of different items of the same type, the definite article is included before the possessive to emphasize the contrast:

Essa é a sua caneta e essa é a minha.
This is your pen and this is mine/my one.

Essas são as nossas toalhas e aquelas são as de vocês.
These are our towels and those are yours/your ones.

**40.1.2**

**ser de + noun**

The phrase *ser de* can also be used before a noun to express possession. In this case, the English noun usually has an ‘apostrophe s’:

Aquele carro é do Júlio.
That car is Julio’s.

O gato preto é da vizinha.
The black cat is the neighbour’s.

Esse quarto é das crianças.
This room is the children’s.

**40.1.3**

**de + noun**

When the possessor is a noun or noun phrase, it is introduced with the preposition *de* in Portuguese. Although this *de* is equivalent to ‘of’ in English, the possessive phrase often corresponds to an ‘apostrophe s’ genitive or a noun placed before another in English:

Conheci a mãe do meu namorado ontem.
I met my boyfriend’s mother yesterday.

A economia do Brasil não para de crescer.
Brazil’s economy / The economy of Brazil just keeps growing.

Abri a janela do quarto.
I opened the bedroom window.

**40.1.4**

**pertencer a**

Ownership may also be expressed with the verb *pertencer a* ‘to belong to’, which is used in more formal language:

O terreno pertence à Prefeitura.
The land belongs to the City.

Ninguém sabe a quem pertence o carro abandonado.
Nobody knows who the abandoned car belongs to.
ser propriedade de

In formal written language, ownership is sometimes expressed with the phrase ser propriedade de or ser de propriedade de ‘to be the property of, to be owned by’:

A empresa é de propriedade de um inglês.
The company is owned by an Englishman.

Os museus são propriedade do Estado.
The museums are owned by the State.

seu(s)/sua(s)

In the written language, seu(s)/sua(s) is regularly used to mean ‘his’, ‘her’, ‘its’ or ‘their’, usually without the definite article before it. It is only used in this meaning when there is no possible ambiguity about who it refers to; otherwise it is replaced by dele, dela or deles/delas as appropriate (see 40.1.1.2):

O ministro e sua esposa jantaram com o presidente.
The minister and his wife had dinner with the president.

Os donos da empresa fizeram tudo em seu poder para evitar a falência.
The owners of the company did everything in their power to avoid bankruptcy.

É importante controlar a inflação em sua origem.
It is important to control inflation at its origin.

In speech, seu(s)/sua(s) is always understood to mean ‘your’ and this is so firmly engrained that the spoken media (TV, radio) avoid using seu(s)/sua(s) meaning ‘his/her/its/their’ even though the written media (newspapers, magazines) do so.

Emphasizing possessive relations

Possessive relations can be emphasized with the adjective próprio ‘own’. This can be placed between a possessive and the noun:

Eu não podia acreditar nos meus próprios olhos.
I couldn’t believe my own eyes.

Você não prefere dormir na sua própria cama?
Wouldn’t you rather sleep in your own bed?

A própria mãe dele o entregou à polícia.
His own mother turned him over to the police.

The adjective próprio can also be placed after an indefinite noun with the meaning of ‘... of one’s own’. In this case, no possessive is used:

o sonho da casa própria
the dream of owning your own home

Nenhum dos amigos tem carro próprio.
None of the friends has a car of his own.
Expressing possessive relations involving parts of the body, personal effects and close family members

In sentences such as ‘I washed my face’, ‘he stood there with his hands in his pockets’, ‘she took her lipstick out of her bag’, ‘they adore their father’, etc., where the possessive refers back to the subject of the sentence and occurs before a noun denoting a part of the body or clothing, a personal effect or a close family member, Portuguese normally uses the definite article (o, a, os or as ‘the’) instead of a possessive:

- **Lavei o rosto.**
  I washed my face.
-
- **Ele ficou parado com a mão no bolso.**
  He stood there with his hands in his pockets.
-
- **Ela tirou o batom da bolsa e retocou os lábios.**
  She took her lipstick out of her bag and redid her lips.
-
- **Eles adoram o pai.**
  They adore their father.

Asking whose something is

To ask whose property something is, as in ‘whose is this?’, use the construction **de quem** + ser + noun/noun phrase/pronoun:

- **De quem é isso?**
  Whose is this?
-
- **De quem é esse celular?**
  Whose mobile phone is this? / Whose is this mobile phone?
-
- **De quem são aqueles livros?**
  Whose books are those? / Whose are those books?
-
- **De quem será essa caneta?**
  I wonder whose pen this is?
-
- **Você sabe de quem são essas chaves?**
  Do you know whose keys these are?

Questions about ownership can also be asked using a possessive:

- **Essa bolsa é sua?**
  Is this bag yours? (*when there is one bag*)
-
- **Essa bolsa é a sua?**
  Is this bag yours? (*when there are several bags; see 40.1.1.5*)
-
- **A mala vermelha é sua, não é?**
  The red suitcase is yours, isn’t it?
Other ways of expressing possession

40.5 Other ways of expressing possession

40.5.1 *ter*

► 16.3.5 (p. 120)

To ask and answer questions regarding possessions as in ‘Have you got a . . .?’, ‘I have one/two . . .’, etc., Portuguese normally uses the verb *ter* ‘to have’:

Você tem cinco reais?
Do you have five reais?

Não tenho nada de dinheiro.
I haven’t got any money.

Quantos filhos vocês têm?
How many children do you have?

Temos três.
We have three.

40.5.2 *estar com, estar sem*

► 16.3.11 (p. 122); 23.3 (p. 159)

Temporary possession, as in having something on you, may also be expressed with *estar com* ‘to have’:

Você está com as chaves de casa?
Do you have the house keys (on you)?

Estou com vinte reais no bolso.
I’ve got twenty reais in my pocket.

Não estou com meu passaporte.
I don’t have my passport on me.

The opposite meaning can be expressed with *estar sem* ‘to have no . . .’:

Estou sem relógio.
I don’t have a watch on.

Você está sem documento?
Don’t you have any ID on you?

Ele estava sem um tostão.
He didn’t have a penny on him.

40.5.3 *ser dono/a de, possuir*

Another way to denote possession is to use *ser dono/a de* ‘to own’ and, in more formal contexts, *possuir* ‘to have, possess, own’:

Ela é dona de quatro apartamentos em Santos.
She owns four apartments in Santos.

A empresa possui laboratório próprio na Alemanha.
The company has its own laboratory in Germany.
Expressing changes

In English, transformations are expressed in a number of ways, which are not always interchangeable. Consider, for example, the following sentences:

- *He got* furious with me.
- *Our movements* become slower with age.
- *We were* devastated by the news.
- *The prince turned into* a frog.
- *What he said* made me sad.
- *The film turned* him into a star.

Portuguese also uses different verbs to express ideas such as these. As in English, these verbs are not always interchangeable, as you will see from the examples below.

### Talking about changes of state and appearance

**ficar + adjective**

Changes of state and appearance are normally expressed using the verb *ficar* ‘to get, to become, to go, to turn’, followed by an adjective. These changes may be sudden, as in:

- **Ele ficou furioso comigo.**
  He got furious with me.

Or they may be gradual, as in:

- **O tempo está ficando mais quente a cada dia.**
  The weather’s getting hotter every day.

Or habitual, as in:

- **Sempre que falamos nisso, eu fico deprimido.**
  Whenever we talk about this, I get depressed.

Note that the idea expressed by *ficar + adjective* is closely linked to the one conveyed by *estar + adjective*, with the first emphasizing the transformation itself and the second stressing the result of the transformation:

- **Ele ficou animado com a ideia.**
  He got enthusiastic about the idea.
Ele está animado com a ideia.
He is enthusiastic about the idea.

The verb **ficar** + adjective points to a change in the subject’s state or condition as a direct result of an action or event. When talking about the past or future, English often uses the verb ‘to be’ even though a change of state or condition has or will take place. In such cases, Portuguese uses **ficar**. This is particularly true when expressing changes in a person’s emotional state as a result of an event:

**Quando ela souber disso, ela vai ficar muito feliz.**
When she hears about this, she’ll be really happy.

**Ficamos arrasados com a notícia.**
We were devastated by the news.

**O novo estádio vai ficar pronto ano que vem.**
The new stadium will be ready next year.

As Portuguese focuses on the transformation and English on the result, the preterite of **ficar** will often be translated with the present tense of ‘to be’ in English:

**Fiquei contente que você tenha vindo.**
I’m glad you came.

**Essa foto ficou ótima.**
This photo is really good.

When describing the appearance of something, the verb ‘to look’ will often be more appropriate in English than ‘to be’:

**Essa saia ficou ótima em você.**
That skirt looks great on you.

**Ele ficou horrível com a cabeça raspada.**
He looks horrible with his head shaved.

**A sala ficou muito melhor depois de pintada.**
The lounge looks much better now it’s been decorated.

**ficar com**

The verb **ficar** is used idiomatically with the preposition **com** and a series of nouns, such as **fome, sede, sono, medo, raiva**, etc., to express a change of state:

**Estou ficando com sono.**
I’m getting sleepy.

**Se você ficar com sede, pega água na geladeira.**
If you get thirsty, get some water from the fridge.

**Eles ficaram com medo e saíram correndo.**
They got scared and ran off.

**tornar-se + adjective**

The verb **tornar-se** ‘to become’ is interchangeable with **ficar** in many cases, but, as well as being more formal than **ficar**, it implies a certain degree of human intervention and
cannot therefore be used to describe spontaneous changes in mood and appearance. The meaning is often ‘to be made’:

Com a idade, os movimentos se tornam mais lentos.
Our movements become slower with age.

Este tipo de crime tem se tornado frequente ultimamente.
This type of crime has become frequent lately.

Com a abertura do mercado, o consumidor se tornou mais exigente.
As the market has opened up, consumers have become more demanding.

O acordo não se tornou público.
The deal was not made public.

tornar + noun/pronoun + adjective

When talking about changing the state or appearance of something else, use the verb tornar ‘to make’ with a noun or pronoun object and an adjective:

A correnteza forte torna a travessia ainda mais perigosa.
The strong current makes the crossing all the more dangerous.

O jornal contém muitas fotos, tornando-o mais atraente.
The newspaper contains a lot of pictures, making it more attractive.

The adjective is usually placed before the noun object when the latter is complex or emphasized:

O piloto soma 95 pontos, tornando remota a chance de ser alcançado.
The driver has a total of 95 points, making the chances of being caught remote.

A vitória esmagadora tornou desnecessário um segundo turno.
The landslide victory has made a second round of voting unnecessary.

Notice that, in sentences such as the following, ‘it’ is not translated in Portuguese:

A tecnologia tornou possível piratear longas-metragens em DVD.
Technology has made it possible to pirate feature films on DVD.

deixar + noun/pronoun + adjective

Literally meaning ‘to leave’, deixar focuses on the effect that something has on someone or something. In this sense deixar is less formal-sounding than tornar, and can also be used with reference to the effect on someone’s emotional state:

O que ele falou me deixou triste.
What he said made me sad.

Esse novo sabão deixa as toalhas muito macias.
This new soap powder makes the towels really soft.

O novo projeto promete deixar o metrô mais rápido e confortável.
The new project promises to make the subway faster and more comfortable.
Other verbs denoting a change of state

There are many verbs derived from adjectives that denote a change of state, e.g. **melhorar** ‘to get better’, **piorar** ‘to get worse’, **engordar** ‘to get fat, put on weight’, **emagrecer** ‘to get thin/slim, lose weight’, **envelhecer** ‘to get old(er)’, **esquentar** ‘to get warm(er)/hot(ter)’, **esfriar** ‘to get cold’, **resfriar** ‘to get colder’, etc.:

- **Toma o seu café que vai esfriar.**
  Drink your coffee or it’ll get cold.

- **A situação está piorando cada vez mais.**
  The situation is getting worse and worse.

- **Conforme vou envelhecendo, vou engordando.**
  As I get older, I’m getting fatter.

There are also many reflexive verbs that denote a change of emotional state, e.g. **surpreender-se** ‘to be surprised’, **animar-se** ‘to get enthusiastic’, **decepcionar-se** ‘to be disappointed’, **espantar-se** ‘to be amazed’ etc.:

- **Nós nos surpreendemos com o que ela disse.**
  We were surprised at what she said.

- **Não adianta você se exaltar.**
  It’s no use you getting worked up.

This type of reflexive verb is often substituted in the spoken language by **ficar** followed by the relevant past participle, e.g. **ficar surpreso**, **ficar animado**, **ficar decepcionado**, **ficar espantado**, etc.

Similarly, there are many verbs used with a noun or pronoun object that denote a change made to someone or something else, e.g. **melhorar** ‘to improve’, **aperfeiçoar** ‘to perfect’, **decepcionar** ‘to disappoint’, **animar** ‘to encourage’, etc.

Talking about changes of status, nature and identity

**tornar-se + noun**

The verb **tornar-se** ‘to become’ can also be followed by a noun indicating a change of status. Like ‘to become’ in English, **tornar-se** has a slightly formal tone:

- **Ela se tornou a primeira tenista a ganhar uma medalha de ouro olímpica.**
  She became the first tennis player to win an Olympic gold medal.

- **O livro vendeu bem, tornando-se um best seller nos Estados Unidos.**
  The book has sold well, becoming a bestseller in the USA.

When the noun following is indefinite, the word for ‘a’ or ‘an’ is omitted in Portuguese:

- **Ele se tornou padre.**
  He became a priest.

However, **um/uma** is included if the noun is further qualified by an adjective or other phrase:

- **Ela se tornou uma cirurgiã famosa.**
  She’s become a famous surgeon.
The film has become a classic of Italian cinema.

**virar + noun**

Although sometimes interchangeable with tornar-se, virar ‘to become, turn into’ is used in all registers and focuses on the outcome of the change as perceived by the speaker, rather than the process of change as undergone by the subject. Note that, as with tornar-se, the noun following virar is not preceded by the indefinite article (um/uma) in Portuguese unless it is further qualified:

Ela virou budista.
She’s become a Buddhist. (*i.e. so I’ve heard*)

cf. Ela se tornou budista.
She’s become a Buddhist. (*i.e. she went through the process*)

The verb virar can also indicate a total change of nature or identity, which tornar-se cannot:

**A antiga estação ferroviária virou museu.**
The former railway station has become a museum.

**O príncipe virou sapo.**
The prince turned into a frog. (*literally, a toad*)

**Se você tocar no carro dele, ele vira bicho.**
If you touch his car, he goes wild. (*literally, becomes an animal*)

**ser + noun**

In sentences referring to career aspirations, such as ‘He wants to become a professional footballer’, ‘She’s studying to become a lawyer’, ‘I’m thinking of becoming a doctor’, etc., where ‘become’ can be replaced by ‘be’ in English, Portuguese uses ser ‘to be’:

**Ele quer ser jogador profissional.**
He wants to become/be a professional footballer.

**Ela está estudando para ser advogada.**
She’s studying to become/be a lawyer.

**Estou pensando em ser médico quando crescer.**
I’m thinking of becoming/being a doctor when I grow up.

**transformar-se em; transformar + noun/pronoun + em**

To express a change of nature or identity from one thing to another, you can also use transformar-se em ‘to turn into, be turned into’. It is sometimes interchangeable with virar, but focuses more on the process rather than the result:

**Depois das 11 horas, o restaurante se transforma em boate.**
After 11 o’clock, the restaurant turns into a nightclub.

**O jogo se transformou numa acirrada batalha.**
The game turned into a hard-fought battle.

**O vilão do filme se transformava em lobisomem.**
The villain of the film would turn into a werewolf.
Similarly, the construction transformar + noun/pronoun + em ‘to turn someone/something into’ expresses a change made to someone or something else:

Eles transformaram o quarto de hóspedes em estúdio de gravação.
They turned the guest room into a recording studio.

The actor’s new movie should turn him into a Hollywood star.

fazer de + noun/pronoun + noun
Instead of ‘to make A into B’, Portuguese says fazer de A B. The meaning is similar to transformar above:

Fizeram da caixa uma cama para o cachorrinho.
They made the box into a bed for the puppy.

Essa proeza fez dele um mito.
This feat made him a legend.

Other verbs that express change
In more formal and literary contexts, you may also come across the verbs transfigurar-se em ‘to be transformed into’, transfigurar + noun/pronoun + em ‘to transform something into’, converter-se em ‘to become, turn into, convert into’ and converter-se a ‘to convert to’:

No filme, a cidade se transfigura num mundo onírico.
In the movie, the city is transformed into a dreamlike world.

O escritor transfigura realidade em poesia.
The writer transforms reality into poetry.

A obra de J.K. Rowling se converteu em mina de ouro.
J.K. Rowling’s work has turned into a goldmine.

Ele resolveu se converter ao islamismo.
He decided to convert to Islam.
Expressing cause, effect and purpose

As in English, there are many different ways of expressing cause, effect and purpose in Portuguese. Some of the constructions are simple and not unlike those in English. Others are more complex and may require more detailed study.

42.1 Enquiring about cause

To enquire about the cause or reason for something, Portuguese uses a number of expressions, the most common of which are:

- **por que . . . ?** ‘why . . . ?’
- **como . . . ?** ‘how . . . ?’, ‘how come . . . ?’
- **como é que . . . ?** ‘how . . . ?’, ‘how come . . . ?’
- **por que motivo/razão?** ‘for what reason?’
- **qual (é) o motivo/a razão?** ‘what’s the reason?’

Of these, **por que . . . ?** is the most common and neutral:

Por que você falou isso?
Why did you say that?

Por que ele chegou tão cedo?
Why did he get here so early?

Você não foi por quê?
Why didn’t you go?

Note that **quê** is spelt with a circumflex accent when it falls at the end of the sentence and that **por que . . . ?** ‘why . . . ?’ is spelt as two words to differentiate it from **porque** ‘because’.

42.1.2 The expressions **como . . . ?** and **como é que . . . ?** usually convey surprise and disapproval, the longer form being more emphatic:

Como você faz uma coisa dessas?
How could you do something like that?

Como é que você sabe?
How do you know?

Como é que não convidaram a gente?
How come they didn’t invite us?
The expression *por que motivo/razão?* is more formal and less commonly used. Notice that, in speech, *motivo* is more common as a translation of ‘reason’ than *razão*:

- **Por que motivo ela saiu da empresa?**
  For what reason did she leave the company?

- **O governo introduziu essas medidas por que razão?**
  For what reason did the government introduce these measures?

In the expression *qual (é) o motivo/a razão?* the verb *é* is optional after *qual*. The word *motivo* can be followed by the preposition *de*, *razão* by *de* or *para*:

- **Qual o motivo de ele ter perdido o jogo?**
  What is the reason he lost the game?

- **Qual a razão para tanto auê?**
  What is the reason for so much fuss?

### 42.2 Giving reasons and expressing relationships of cause and effect

To give reasons and explain relationships of cause and effect, Portuguese uses expressions such as the following:

- **porque** ‘because’
- **por . . .** ‘because of . . .’, ‘for . . .’
- **por causa de . . .** ‘because of . . .’
- **devido a . . .** ‘due to, owing to . . .’
- **dever-se a . . .** ‘to be due to’
- **como . . .** ‘as, since . . .’
- **já que . . .** ‘as, since . . .’
- **visto que . . .** ‘seeing that . . .’
- **dado que . . . / posto que . . .** ‘given that . . .’
- **pois** ‘as, because’
- **é que . . .** ‘the thing is . . .’
- **o negócio é que . . .** ‘the thing is . . .’
- **o negócio é o seguinte** ‘the thing is this’.

Of these, **porque** is the word most commonly used for giving reasons and establishing links between cause and effect:

- **Porque eu não quero.**
  Because I don’t want to.

- **Porque sim.**
  Because I say so.

- **Ele não foi porque não tinha dinheiro.**
  He didn’t go because he didn’t have any money.
The expression **por . . .** can be used with a noun to signal a causal relationship in some contexts, but it is also frequently used with an infinitive, which may be a personal infinitive when the subject of the infinitive is different from that of the main verb. This construction is more common in writing than speech and usually requires the translation ‘because’ with a clause in English:

- **Todos acabam se dando mal por alguns baderneiros.**
  Everyone ends up suffering because of a few troublemakers.

- **Ele não quis gravar entrevista por medo de represálias.**
  He did not want to be interviewed for fear of reprisals.

- **Este projeto foi escolhido por ser o mais barato.**
  This project was chosen because it is the cheapest.

- **O país está em melhor situação hoje por o governo ter pago a dívida externa.**
  The country is better off today because the government paid off the foreign debt.

The expressions **por causa de . . .** and **devido a . . .** are used in similar contexts, but the first is more colloquial and more common in the spoken language. Like the English ‘due to, owing to’, **devido a . . .** is more formal:

- **Não pudemos ir por causa da chuva.**
  We couldn’t go because of the rain.

- **O aeroporto foi fechado devido ao mau tempo.**
  The airport was closed owing to the bad weather.

The expression **dever-se a** is used in more formal contexts, predominantly in writing:

- **O sucesso das medidas se deve ao apoio do público.**
  The success of the measures is due to public support.

- **Isso se deve ao fato de que as empresas não têm acesso à informação.**
  This is due to the fact that companies do not have access to information.

The expression **como . . .** introduces a reason that is then followed by a clause explaining the consequence, and is placed at the beginning of the sentence:

- **Como quinta é feriado, as pessoas vão viajar na quarta à noite.**
  As Thursday is a holiday, people will travel on Wednesday evening.

- **Como ele não falava português, tínhamos que arranjar um intérprete.**
  Since he didn’t speak Portuguese, we had to get hold of an interpreter.

The expression **já que . . .** ‘as, since . . .’ is similar in meaning to **como . . .**, but the **já que** clause can also be placed after the main sentence:

- **Já que você vai ao supermercado, compra papel higiênico.**
  Since you’re going to the supermarket, buy toilet paper.

- **Vou aproveitar para perguntar, já que vou estar com eles.**
  I’ll take the opportunity to ask as I’m going to be seeing them.
Other ways of expressing relationships of cause and effect

Relationships of cause and effect can be expressed in several other ways, such as the following:

By using particular verbs such as causar, provocar, ocasionar ‘to cause’, dar origem a, originar ‘to give rise to’, acarretar ‘to bring (with it)’, desencadear ‘to spark, trigger’:

O cigarro pode causar câncer.
Smoking can cause cancer.
As chuvas provocaram 14 mortes.
The rains have caused 14 deaths.

O incêndio foi ocasionado por um curto-circuito.
The fire was caused by a short circuit.

Essas observações deram origem às primeiras inquietações sobre o efeito estufa.
These observations gave rise to the first concerns about the greenhouse effect.

O motivo pelo qual ela renunciou continua desconhecido.
The reason why she resigned is still unknown.

Ele não pode comparecer por motivos de saúde.
He was unable to attend for health reasons.

O aeroporto foi fechado por razões de segurança.
The airport was closed for security reasons.

O Brasil atrai investidores em razão do tamanho de seu mercado.
Brazil attracts investors because of the size of its market.

Conseguimos graças à sua ajuda.
We succeeded thanks to your help.

By using noun phrases such as a razão pela qual/o motivo pelo qual . . . ‘the reason (that) . . .’, a razão/o motivo por que . . . ‘the reason why . . .’, por razões/motivos + adjective, por razões/motivos de + noun ‘for reasons (of)’, em razão de ‘because of’, ‘on the grounds of’, graças a ‘thanks to’:

By using linking words and phrases such as:
por isso (que) ‘so’, ‘that is why’
assim ‘so’, ‘thus’
sendo assim / assim sendo ‘so’, ‘therefore’
aí ‘so’
daí ‘so then’, ‘hence’
portanto ‘therefore’
pois ‘therefore’
consequentemente, por conseguinte ‘consequently’
de modo/maneira/forma que ‘so’, ‘with the result that’
de tal modo/maneira/forma que ‘to such an extent that’, ‘in such a way that’.
These expressions can be used in the following ways:

**Eu estava sem celular, por isso que não te liguei.**
I didn’t have my mobile phone on me, that’s why I didn’t call you.

**Não tínhamos dinheiro para sair, e assim ficamos em casa.**
We couldn’t afford to go out, and so we stayed at home.

**O jogador foi suspenso por 180 dias. Sendo assim, ele não pode ser convocado para a seleção.**
The player was suspended for 180 days. Therefore, he cannot be selected for the national squad.

**Eu não sabia o que fazer, aí eu liguei para você.**
I didn’t know what to do, so I called you.

**Eu passei dois anos no Canadá, daí eu decidi dar aula de inglês.**
I spent two years in Canada, so then I decided to give English lessons.

**A situação se agrava a cada dia. Daí a urgência de tomar uma atitude.**
The situation is getting worse by the day. Hence the urgent need to take action.

**Faz frio no inverno, portanto as casas têm calefação.**
It is cold in winter, therefore houses are heated.

**São muitos os perigos. É preciso, pois, precaver-se.**
There are many hazards. It is necessary, therefore, to take precautions.

**Os ingressos já se esgotaram. Consequentemente, a bilheteria está fechada.**
Tickets have already sold out. Consequently, the ticket office is closed.

**O carro quebrou, de forma que tiveram que voltar de ônibus.**
The car broke down, so they had to come back by bus.

**A moda pegou de tal maneira que as fabricantes não conseguem suprir a demanda.**
The fashion has caught on to such an extent that manufacturers are unable to meet demand.

### Enquiring about purpose

Purpose is often associated in Portuguese with the preposition *para*, just as cause is sometimes associated with *por*. To enquire about purpose, the most common phrase is *para que* . . . ? ‘what . . . for?’:

**Para que você precisa de tanto dinheiro?**
What do you need so much money for?

**Para que ele fez isso?**
What did he do that for?

**Você quer que eu te empreste o carro para quê?**
What do you want to borrow the car for?

Note that *quê* is spelt with a circumflex accent when it falls at the end of the sentence.
Expressing purpose

To express purpose, Portuguese uses a number of constructions, the most common of which involve the preposition *para*.

### para + infinitive

The preposition *para* is followed by the ordinary infinitive when the subjects of the infinitive and main verb are the same:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Vou ao banco para tirar dinheiro.} & \quad \text{I’m going to the bank to take out some money.} \\
\text{Tivemos uma reunião para acertar os detalhes.} & \quad \text{We had a meeting to agree on the details.}
\end{align*}
\]

When the subject of the infinitive is different from that of the main verb, a personal infinitive is used. An infinitive is made personal simply by placing a noun or pronoun subject before it, but in the first and third persons plural, the flectional endings *-mos* and *-em* respectively must also be appended to it, either in addition to, or instead of, a pronoun subject:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Vou trazer as fotos aqui para você ver.} & \quad \text{I’ll bring the photos here for you to see.} \\
\text{Fecha a porta para o cachorro não entrar.} & \quad \text{Close the door so the dog doesn’t come in.} \\
\text{Fomos a São Paulo para eu conhecer os pais dela.} & \quad \text{We went to São Paulo for me to meet her parents.} \\
\text{Ele trouxe o tabuleiro para (nós) jogarmos xadrez.} & \quad \text{He brought the board for us to play chess.} \\
\text{Saí de casa na ponta dos pés para meus pais não perceberem.} & \quad \text{I tiptoed out of the house so my parents wouldn’t notice.}
\end{align*}
\]

### para que + subjunctive

In more formal written language, *para* + personal infinitive is often replaced by *para que* + subjunctive:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Desligue o freezer para que descongele.} & \quad \text{Turn off the freezer so that it defrosts.} \\
\text{Para que isso aconteça, é preciso arrecadar fundos.} & \quad \text{In order that this should happen, funds must be raised.}
\end{align*}
\]

Remember that the rules on sequence of tenses (see 20.2) require that the imperfect subjunctive is used after *para que* if the main verb is preterite, imperfect or conditional:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{O técnico desligou o freezer para que descongelasse.} & \quad \text{The technician turned off the freezer so that it would defrost.} \\
\text{Para que isso acontecesse, era preciso arrecadar fundos.} & \quad \text{In order that this should happen, funds had to be raised.}
\end{align*}
\]
Expressing purpose

42.5.3 para + noun

When followed by a noun or pronoun, para indicates the beneficiary of the action or its purpose:

Preciso comprar um presente para a minha mãe.
I need to buy a present for my mother.

Ele ama os filhos, e tudo que ele faz é para eles.
He loves his children, and everything he does is for them.

O melhor café é cultivado para exportação.
The best coffee is grown for export.

42.5.4 de modo/maneira/forma que + subjunctive

These expressions are synonymous with para que and are predominantly used in the written language to mean ‘so that’:

O governo comprou dólares de modo que a cotação da moeda subisse.
The government bought dollars so that the price of the currency would go up.

Compare the use of these conjunctions with the subjunctive, as here, and with the indicative as shown in 42.3.3. With the subjunctive they express the purpose; with the indicative they express the actual result. Compare:

O governo comprou dólares de modo que a cotação da moeda subiu.
The government bought dollars with the result that the price of the currency went up.

42.5.5 a fim de + infinitive/a fim de que + subjunctive

These are more formal synonyms of para + infinitive/para que + subjunctive. They are used almost exclusively in formal writing to mean ‘in order to’/‘in order that’:

Vacinaram as crianças a fim de protegê-las da doença.
They vaccinated the children in order to protect them from the illness.

Ele escondeu a arma do crime a fim de que a polícia não a descobrisse.
He hid the murder weapon in order that the police would not find it.

42.5.6 com o objetivo de + infinitive; com o propósito de + infinitive; com o intuito de + infinitive; com a intenção de + infinitive

The expressions com o objetivo de ‘with the aim of’ and com o propósito de ‘with the purpose of’ are used with an infinitive to express the objective of an action. Intent is expressed by com o intuito de and com a intenção de ‘with the intention of’. These two are synonymous, but the first is only found in formal writing:

Vieram ao Brasil com o objetivo de comprar um terreno na Bahia.
They came to Brazil with the aim of buying a plot of land in Bahia.

Ela saiu da empresa com a intenção de montar um negócio próprio.
She left the company with the intention of setting up a business of her own.
Putting events into a wider context
Expressing knowledge

To express knowledge, Portuguese uses two different verbs, saber and conhecer, ‘to know’. Their uses are clearly differentiated by native speakers, as you will see from the examples below.

43.1 Expressing knowledge of a fact

To express knowledge or ignorance of a fact and, generally, to say that one has or does not have information about something, the verb to use in Portuguese is saber. Remember that saber is irregular in the first person singular of the present: eu sei ‘I know’:

Você sabe onde está o Bernardo?  
Do you know where Bernardo is?

Não sei.  
I don’t know.

Eu sei disso.  
I know that.

Você sabia que a Cristina casou?  
Did you know that Cristina got married?

Sabia, sim.  
Yes, I knew.

Não sei o nome dele.  
I don’t know his name.

In more formal written language, ‘not to know, be unaware of’ can be expressed using the verbs desconhecer or ignorar:

A policia desconhece a identidade do assassino.  
The police do not know the identity of the murderer.

Muitos ignoram que é proibido vender bebida alcoólica a menores.  
Many are unaware that selling alcohol to minors is forbidden.

NOTE

The verb ignorar is only used with the meaning of ‘not to know’ in formal writing. It is more commonly used in all registers to mean ‘to ignore’.
Note also the following more colloquial expressions:

**Sei lá.**
How should I know? / I don’t know (emphatic).

**Sei lá onde ele foi.**
How should I know where he went?

**Sei lá, acho que estou ficando velho.**
I don’t know, I must be getting old.

**Não tenho a mínima ideia.**
I haven’t the slightest idea.

**Você saber?**
How am I supposed to know? (*expressing annoyance*)

**Nunca se sabe.**
You never know.

**Quem sabe?**
Who knows?

**Quem sabe ele não te liga mais tarde?**
You never know, he might call you later.

---

### 43.2 Saying that one knows a person, a place or an object

To say that you know or do not know a person, place or an object, the verb to use in Portuguese is *conhecer*. This verb is a regular -er verb, but remember that the second *c* must take a cedilla before *o* or *a* to preserve the soft *c* sound, e.g. *eu conheço*.

**Você conhece a Marta?**
Do you know Marta?

**Conheço ela muito bem.** *(spoken)*
I know her very well.

**A gente se conhece há anos.**
We’ve known each other for years.

**Você conhece Paris?**
Do you know Paris? *or* Have you ever been to Paris?

**Não conheço essa fruta.**
I don’t know that fruit. (= *I’ve never tried or seen it*)

---

### 43.3 Cases in which both *saber* or *conhecer* can be used with a difference of meaning

The verb *saber* can be used with a person, place or thing when the meaning is ‘do you know the one I’m talking about?’:

**Sabe a Cristina? Então, ela casou.**
You know Cristina? Well, she got married.
There are also a few cases where *saber* or *conhecer* can both be used with a difference in meaning:

- **Você sabe o caminho até a casa deles?**
  Do you know the way to their house? (*i.e. which way you have to go*)

- **Você conhece o caminho até a casa deles?**
  Do you know the way to their house? (*i.e. have you been that way before?*)

### Expressing knowledge of a subject

To say that you know or do not know about a subject, for example computers, physics, etc., use the verb *entender* (*literally*, ‘to understand’) followed by the preposition *de*:

- **Você entende de computadores?**
  Do you know about computers?

- **O Pedro entende de física.**
  Pedro knows all about physics.

### Expressing knowledge of a language

To say that you know or don’t know a language, use *saber*:

- **Você sabe francês?**
  Do you know French?

- **Ele não sabe nada de português.**
  He doesn’t know any Portuguese.

### Expressing knowledge of a skill

To say that you know or don’t know how to do something, use *saber* followed by an infinitive:

- **Ela não sabe costurar.**
  She doesn’t know how to sew.

- **Você sabe nadar?**
  Do you know how to swim? / Can you swim?

- **Ele nem sabe ligar o computador.**
  He doesn’t even know how to turn the computer on.

### Getting to know, becoming acquainted with or meeting someone

These ideas are expressed in Portuguese using *conhecer*:

- **Eu a conheci em 2003.**
  I met/got to know her in 2003.

- **Foi uma oportunidade de conhecê-los melhor.**
  It was an opportunity to get to know them better.
When talking about two or more people getting to know each other, use the reflexive form **conhecer-se**:

**Como é que vocês dois se conheceram?**
How did you two meet?

**Nós nos conhecemos na faculdade.**
We met at university.

### Hearing or finding out about something

To say that you heard or found out about something, use **saber**:

**Você soube o que aconteceu comigo ontem?**
Did you hear what happened to me yesterday?

**Eu soube do Marcelo.**
I heard it from Marcelo. *or* I heard about Marcelo.

**Procura saber onde ela mora.**
Try and find out where she lives.

In colloquial speech, the expression **ficar sabendo** is often used in this sense:

**Fiquei sabendo que você está namorando.**
I heard you’re dating someone.

**Se meu pai ficar sabendo, estou frito.**
If my dad finds out, I’ve had it.

The imperative **fique/fica sabendo** is used in the sense of ‘I’ll have you know’, ‘for your information’:

**Fique sabendo que a culpa não foi minha.**
I’ll have you know it wasn’t my fault.
Remembering and forgetting

This chapter examines the use of verbs of remembering and forgetting in Portuguese and the constructions associated with them.

### 44.1 Remembering

The usual verb for remembering in Portuguese is *lembrar*. In the sense of ‘to remember’, there are two possible constructions with *lembrar*: either it is used as a straightforward verb, with or without a direct object, or it is used as a reflexive verb, *lembrar-se*, in which case the object has to be introduced with the preposition *de* (see examples below). In some cases, the two constructions are interchangeable, in others they are not.

#### 44.1.1 *lembrar/lembrar-se* with no direct object

When there is no direct object mentioned, the simple and reflexive verbs can be used interchangeably:

- Não lembro. / Não me lembro.
  I don’t remember.
- Estou tentando lembrar. / Estou tentando me lembrar.
  I’m trying to remember.
- Não sei se você lembra. / Não sei se você se lembra.
  I don’t know if you remember.

Note that, in English, we often say ‘I can’t remember’ instead of ‘I don’t remember’. In Portuguese, the verb meaning ‘can’ is not translated unless it carries particular emphasis, as in:

- Não consigo me lembrar.
  I just can’t remember.

#### 44.1.2 *lembrar* + noun; *lembrar-se de* + noun

When the direct object is a noun or noun phrase, both constructions are possible. The simple *lembrar* + noun tends to be used when talking about remembering a piece of information or fact and when talking about the act of retrieving something from your memory or memorizing something, while the reflexive *lembrar-se de* tends to be used when the focus is on the content of the memory. For this reason, *lembrar-se de* is preferred when remembering a person, place or past experience:

- Você lembra o nome dele?
  Can/Do you remember his name?
287345 – lembre esse número!
287345 – remember that number!

Eu me lembro daquele dia.
I remember that day.

Você lembra o que ele disse?
Do you remember what he said? (= Can you remember it?)

Você se lembra do que ele disse?
Do you remember what he said? (= Do you keep it in mind?)

Você se lembra do Paulo?
Do you remember Paulo?

The distinction between these two constructions is further blurred by the fact that there is a tendency in the spoken language to drop reflexive pronouns (see 22.5), so the non-reflexive lembiar is often heard with a prepositional object:

Você lembra do Paulo?

**lembrar-se de + pronoun**

When the direct object is a personal pronoun, lembiar-se de is the only possible construction:

Você se lembra de mim?
Do you remember me?

Não me lembro dela.
I don’t remember her.

But, once again, the reflexive pronoun is often dropped in the spoken language:

Você lembra de mim?

**lembrar que + clause; lembiar-se que + clause**

The construction lembiar que + clause tends to refer to a simple fact that you retrieve from your memory:

Eu lembro que a porta estava trancada quando cheguei.
I remember that the door was locked when I got here.

Você lembrou que temos um aniversário para ir hoje?
Have you remembered that we’ve got a birthday party to go to today?

The reflexive lembiar-se que + clause tends either to mean ‘keep in mind that’ or to give the idea of reminiscing:

Eles devem se lembiar que é preciso manter silêncio durante a prova.
They should remember that silence must be observed during the exam.

Eu me lembro que passamos o dia na praia com uns amigos.
I remember that we spent the day on the beach with some friends.
Once again, the reflexive pronoun is often dropped in colloquial speech, especially when the verb is imperative:

Lembra que você não pode usar o dicionário.
Remember that you’re not allowed to use the dictionary.

Sometimes the subjunctive is required in the que clause when lembra is negative and the content of the que clause is therefore in doubt:

Eu não me lembro que ele estivesse aqui naquela noite.
I don’t remember that he was here that night.

Eu não me lembro que ela tenha dito isso.
I don’t remember she said that.

**lembrar de + infinitive**

The verb lembra can be followed by the preposition de and an infinitive to mean ‘to remember to do’:

Você lembrou de comprar leite?
Did you remember to buy milk?

Ele nunca lembra de apagar a luz.
He never remembers to turn the light off.

Note that ‘remember to . . .’ as a reminder is usually translated não esqueça de . . . ‘don’t forget to . . .’:

Não esqueça de comprar pão!
Remember to buy bread!

**lembrar(-se) de ter + past participle**

Both lembra and lembra-se can be followed by the preposition de, the infinitive of the perfect auxiliary ter and a past participle to mean ‘to remember doing’:

Eu lembro de ter visto esse filme.
I remember seeing this film.

Você se lembra de ter andado de bicicleta na sua infância?
Do you remember riding a bike in your childhood?

The infinitive ter can have a different subject to that of lembra:

Eu não lembro de você ter falado isso.
I don’t remember you saying that.

Ele se lembrava de os policiais terem entrado na casa.
He remembered the police coming into the house.
Other verbs of remembering

recordar(-se) de

The verb *recordar* ‘to recall’ works in the same way grammatically as *lembrar*, but, as its translations suggest, it is a more formal/literary word:

Recordo que acordei cedo naquele dia.
I recall that I woke up early that day.

Ele ainda se recordava daqueles momentos de felicidade.
He still recalled those happy moments.

decorar, memorizar

The verb *decorar* means ‘to memorize’, ‘to learn by heart’, while *memorizar* means ‘to memorize’ in the sense of ‘retain in one’s memory’:

Decore a senha do seu cartão.
Memorize the PIN number for your card.

Os comandos do programa são fáceis de memorizar.
The program’s commands are easy to memorize.

reter, gravar

The verbs *reter* ‘to retain, remember, memorize’ and *gravar* ‘to remember, memorize’ are synonymous, but *gravar* is more colloquial:

Tenho dificuldade para reter números de telefone.
I find it difficult to remember phone numbers.

Não consigo gravar o nome das pessoas.
I can’t memorize people’s names.

Reminding

The verb *lembrar* is also used in a number of constructions with the sense of reminding someone else of something.

lembrar a + noun/pronoun + que + clause

In the sense of ‘remind’, *lembrar* is followed by the preposition *a*:

Você lembra ao Cadu que ele tem que ligar para o banco?
Will you remind Cadu that he has to call the bank?

Ela me lembrou que o encanador vinha às três.
She reminded me that the plumber was coming at three.

Sentences without a *que* clause are also possible:

Isso me lembra: precisamos comprar café.
That reminds me: we need to buy coffee.

Você me lembra?
Will you remind me?
In more formal language, *lembrar* is sometimes used without a noun or pronoun object to introduce a *que* clause:

> O presidente lembrou que a constituição não permitia tal atitude.
> The president recalled that the constitution did not allow such a move.

### 44.2.2 *lembrar a* + noun/pronoun + *de* + noun

This construction means ‘to remind a person about something’:

> Por que você não me lembrou da festa hoje à noite?
> Why didn’t you remind me about the party tonight?

### 44.2.3 *lembrar a* + noun/pronoun + *de* + infinitive

This construction means ‘to remind a person to do’:

> Você me lembra de pagar a conta de luz?
> Will you remind me to pay the electricity bill?

> Tive que lembra à faxineira de colocar o lixo para fora.
> I had to remind the cleaner to put the rubbish out.

### 44.2.4 *lembrar* + noun/pronoun + *a* + noun/pronoun

With this construction, it is the appearance or sound of something or someone that is reminiscent of a person or thing, ‘to remind someone of something/someone’:

> Ela me lembra a minha tia.
> She reminds me of my aunt.

> O namorado dela não te lembra aquele ator?
> Doesn’t her boyfriend remind you of that actor?

In this sense, *lembrar* can also occur without an indirect object:

> Petrópolis lembra uma cidade europeia.
> Petropolis is reminiscent of a European city.

> A banda lembra os Beatles.
> The band sounds like the Beatles.

### 44.2.5 *fazer* + noun/pronoun + *lembrar* + noun/pronoun

This construction has a similar meaning to the previous one, i.e. ‘to remind someone of something/someone’, except that, in this case, it is not a direct resemblance that is referred to, but the memory that something evokes:

> Essa música me faz lembrar aquele verão que passamos na Itália.
> This song reminds me of that summer we spent in Italy.

> Isso fez o Marco lembrar um filme que tinha visto.
> This reminded Marco of a film he had seen.
Forgetting

The verb used to express forgetting, esquecer, has the same two constructions as lembrar, i.e. esquecer and esquecer-se de. In this case, the difference is more one of register: esquecer-se de sounds slightly more formal than esquecer, but, just as with lembrar, the tendency to drop the reflexive pronoun in informal speech means that a hybrid construction – esquecer de – is often heard.

esquecer with no direct object

Não esqueça!
Don’t forget!

Não vou esquecer.
I won’t forget.

Ele deve ter esquecido.
He must have forgotten.

Eu tinha que pagar aquela conta hoje e esqueci.
I was supposed to pay that bill today and I forgot.

esquecer + direct object

Ele esqueceu meu aniversário.
He forgot my birthday.

With a pronoun object, there is a preference for using the de construction in less formal language, often without the reflexive pronoun:

Ela já (se) esqueceu dele.
She’s already forgotten him.

The direct object may be a clause:

Não devemos esquecer que os jovens são o futuro deste país.
We should not forget that young people are the future of this country.

Esqueci onde coloquei os óculos.
I’ve forgotten where I put my glasses.

esquecer de + infinitive

This construction means ‘to forget to do something’:

Esqueci de te dizer que encontrei o seu irmão no fim de semana.
I forgot to tell you that I met your brother at the weekend.

Não esqueça de trancar a porta.
Don’t forget to lock the door.

Forgetting to bring something

The verb esquecer can also be used in the sense of ‘leave behind’:

Você esqueceu o guarda-chuva?
Did you forget your umbrella?
In Portuguese, the sentence with *esquecer* can also contain an indication of where the object was left:

**Esqueci minha carteira em casa.**
I’ve left my wallet at home.

**Não esqueça a roupa no varal.**
Don’t (forget and) leave the washing out on the line.

In English, we usually use ‘to leave’ when the place is mentioned and this is also possible in Portuguese, using *deixar* ‘to leave’:

**Deixei a mochila no ônibus.**
I left my backpack on the bus.
Expressing obligation and duty

This chapter deals with the ideas of obligation and duty and the verbs and expressions associated with them.

**45.1 Expressing obligation and duty with regard to oneself and others**

To express obligation and duty with regard to oneself and others, Portuguese uses the following verbs, all followed by the infinitive:

**ter que**

The verb *ter que* ‘to have to’ is one of the most frequent verbs used in the expression of obligation and duty and is used with present, past or future reference. Its use usually implies that the obligation involved stems from outside the speaker, that is, from external circumstances:

- *Tenho que sair.*
  I have to go out.

- *Você não tem que ir.*
  You don’t have to go.

- *Vamos ter que fazer tudo de novo.*
  We’ll have to do it all again.

- *Ela teve que voltar para casa a pé.*
  She had to walk back home.

- *Eu tinha que levantar cedo no dia seguinte.*
  I had to get up early the next day.

The difference between the preterite and the imperfect, which can both mean ‘had to’ in English, is that the preterite implies that the action was actually done while the imperfect suggests it had not been done at the time referred to:

- *Eu tive que ir ao banco.*
  I had to go the bank. *(and I did)*

- *Eu tinha que ir ao banco.*
  I had to go to the bank. *(but, at that point, I hadn’t been yet)*
There is a more formal variant of *ter que*, *ter de*, which is mostly restricted to the written language:

**O governo teve de recuar nesse ponto.**
The government had to back down on this point.

### 45.1.2 *precisar* + infinitive

The verb *precisar* ‘to need to’ is used when the obligation is seen as stemming from the speaker, as a physical, mental or moral need. In the first persons singular and plural of the present tense, it is often equivalent to the English ‘must’. In other persons and tenses, the translation is usually ‘have/had to’:

- **Preciso tomar banho.**  
  I must have a shower.

- **Precisamos tomar cuidado.**  
  We must be careful.

- **Eu precisei parar para descansar.**  
  I had to stop for a rest.

In negative sentences meaning ‘don’t have to’, *precisar* refers to the absence of need rather than absence of obligation:

- **Você não precisa me esperar.**  
  You don’t have to wait for me.

- **Você não precisava comprar um presente.**  
  You didn’t have to buy a present.

- **Não preciso emagrecer.**  
  I don’t need to lose weight.

### 45.1.3 *dever* + infinitive

The modal verb *dever* ‘must, should’ expresses a strong obligation, often moral or legal. With this meaning, it is mainly used in the present tense:

- **Você deve entregar essa carteira à polícia.**  
  You should/must hand that wallet in to the police.

- **Eles não devem tocar no computador.**  
  They must/should not touch the computer.

- **Você não deve entrar na sala de aula.**  
  You must not go into the classroom.

It is also used in the conditional, or the imperfect in place of the conditional. In this case, *dever* expresses a moral obligation with the implication that what should happen does not, or vice versa:

- **Você não deveriam/deviam estar aqui dentro.**  
  You shouldn’t be in here. (*but you are)*

- **O governo deveria tomar uma atitude.**  
  The government should take action. (*but it probably won’t)*
Eu devia pedir desculpas.
I ought to apologize. *(but I’m not sure I will)*

**é para + personal infinitive**

This expression is commonly used in the spoken language to mean ‘be supposed to’ and is usually found in the present or imperfect tense:

É para a gente esperar aqui.
We’re supposed to wait here.

Era para eles estarem aqui às oito.
They were supposed to be here at eight.

É para levarmos alguma coisa?
Are we supposed to take anything?

**Enquiring whether one is obliged to do something**

When enquiring whether you are obliged to do something, the normal verb to use is *ter que* + infinitive (see 45.1.1):

Tenho que informar a idade?
Do I have to give my age?

Temos que subir a pé?
Do we have to walk up?

Você vai ter que fazer tudo de novo?
Will you have to do it all again?

**Expressing obligation in an impersonal way**

Obligation is sometimes expressed in an impersonal way, without reference to a specific person. In spoken Portuguese, the third person singular form of *ter que* (see 45.1.1) and *precisar* (see 45.1.2) are frequently used with no subject to refer to a general obligation that applies to everyone, usually in the present tense:

Tem que deixar a chave na recepção.
We have to leave the key at reception.

Tem que marcar hora?
Do you have to make an appointment?

Precisa pagar primeiro?
Do you have to pay first?

Precisa pagar na caixa.
You have to pay at the cash desk.

Similarly, the expression *é para* can be followed by an impersonal infinitive with general reference:

É para deixar a porta aberta?
Is the door supposed to be left open?
In more formal language, impersonal obligations may be expressed using the verb *dever* (see 45.1.3) in the impersonal *se* construction or the expression *é preciso* + infinitive:

Deve-se proteger a floresta.
The forest must be protected.

Não se deve mexer em direitos adquiridos.
One should not meddle with established rights.

É preciso lembrar que o povo indígena falava tupi naquela época.
It should be remembered that the indigenous people spoke Tupi at that time.

Other ways of expressing obligation and duty

Obligation and duty are also expressed through the following constructions:

- *estar* or *ser/ver-se* 81 *obrigado a* ‘to be forced to’, ‘to be obliged to’
- *ter (a) obrigação de* ‘to have an obligation to’, ‘to be under an obligation to’
- *estar* or *ver-se na obrigação de* ‘to be obliged to’
- *sentir-se na obrigação de* ‘to feel obliged to’.

Examples:

Ele se viu obrigado a sair da empresa.
He was forced to leave the company.

O Estado tem obrigação de proteger os cidadãos.
The state has an obligation to protect citizens.

Ele se sentia na obrigação de dar satisfações ao pai.
He felt obliged to explain himself to his father.

Expressing unfulfilled obligation

The verbs presented in this chapter can also be used to express unfulfilled obligation, as in sentences such as ‘You should have helped your brother’, ‘You weren’t supposed to say anything to him’.

45.5.1 *deveria/devia* + *ter* + past participle

The conditional or, less formally, the imperfect tense of *dever* is followed by the perfect infinitive to refer to something that ought to have been done but was not, or vice versa:

Você devia ter ajudado o seu irmão.
You should have helped your brother.

Deveriam ter sondado a opinião pública.
They should have sounded out public opinion.

Você não devia ter contado para ninguém.
You shouldn’t have told anyone.
45.5.2 *tinha que/precisava/era para* + infinitive

In colloquial speech, the imperfect tense of the verb phrases *ter que*, *precisar* and *ser para* are used with an infinitive to express what should or should not have happened, or what was or was not supposed to happen:

- Você *não tinha que* falar nada *para* ele.
  You weren’t supposed to say anything to him.

- Você *precisava ver* a cara *dele*!
  You should have seen his face!

- *Era para* você entregar isso *ontem*.
  You were supposed to hand this in yesterday.

- Não *era para* eles saberem.
  They weren’t supposed to know.

45.5.3 *podia ter* + past participle

The imperfect of the verb *poder* can also be used with a perfect infinitive to express unfulfilled obligation with a tone of indignation. Notice that the positive form means ‘could have’ while the negative can mean ‘should not have’:

- Você *podia pelo menos ter ligado*!
  You could at least have called!

- Você *não podia ter feito isso*!
  You shouldn’t have done that! / I can’t believe you did that!

- Eles *não podiam ter dado para trás*!
  They can’t possibly have pulled out!
Expressing needs

This chapter deals with different ways of expressing needs. In the sections below you will learn to express needs in a personal way, through the Portuguese equivalent of phrases such as ‘I have to . . .’, ‘I need to . . .’, ‘we need you to . . .’, ‘they need it’, and also in an impersonal way through expressions such as ‘one has to . . .’, ‘one needs to . . .’, ‘it is necessary’.

46.1 Expressing needs with regard to oneself and others

To express needs or lack of need with regard to oneself or others, Portuguese normally uses the verb *precisar* ‘to need’ as follows.

46.1.1 *precisar* + infinitive

The verb *precisar* + infinitive means ‘to need to’:

*Preciso falar com você.*
I need to talk to you.

*Precisamos achar um lugar para morar.*
We need to find a place to live.

*Eles precisavam ganhar dinheiro.*
They needed to earn money.

*Você não precisa se preocupar comigo.*
You don’t need to worry about me.

46.1.2 *ter que* + infinitive

The verb phrase *ter que* ‘to have to’ expresses a strong need where there is little alternative:

*A impressora quebrou. Você ter que comprar outra.*
The printer’s broken down. I’ll have to buy another one.

*Temos que correr, senão vamos perder o avião.*
We have to hurry, otherwise we’ll miss the plane.

*Você tinha que comer mais, está muito magro.*
You should eat more, you are too thin.
**EXPRESSING NEEDS**

**46.1.3 precisar que + subjunctive**

This construction is used when the subject of the main verb is different from that of the complement verb, i.e. when someone needs someone else to do something:

- **Preciso que você me ajude.**
  I need you to help me.

- **Precisamos que vocês estejam aqui às sete.**
  We need you to be here at seven.

- **Eu precisava que você me falasse isso.**
  I needed you to tell me that.

- **Não preciso que você me lembre disso.**
  I don’t need you to remind me of that.

**46.1.4 precisar de + noun/noun phrase/pronoun**

- **Estou precisando de férias.**
  I’m in need of a holiday.

- **Ela disse que não precisava de nada.**
  She said she didn’t need anything.

- **Não precisei do guarda-chuva afinal.**
  I didn’t need the umbrella after all.

- **Preciso de você.**
  I need you.

**46.1.5 necessitar + infinitive; necessitar que + subjunctive; necessitar de + noun/pronoun**

The verb **necessitar** ‘to require’ forms the same grammatical constructions as **precisar**, being a more formal synonym of the latter:

- **A empresa necessita crescer para sobreviver.**
  The company needs to grow in order to survive.

- **O tiro livre indireto necessita que outro jogador toque na bola.**
  The indirect free kick requires that another player touch the ball.

- **Necessitamos de uma nova estratégia de marketing.**
  We require a new marketing strategy.

**46.2 Asking people about their needs**

The verb **precisar** (see 46.1) is also used to ask people about their needs:

- **Você precisa trocar dinheiro?**
  Do you need to change money?

- **Você precisa que eu te acompanhe?**
  Do you need me to go with you?

- **Você vão precisar de mim?**
  Are you going to need me?
Expressing needs in an impersonal way

Você precisou do dicionário afinal?
Did you need the dictionary in the end?

Você está precisando de alguma coisa do supermercado?
Do you need anything from the supermarket?

Note also the use of **precisar de** with certain question words, as in:

Do que você precisa?
What do you need?

De qual você precisa?
Which one do you need?

Você precisa de quanto tempo?
How much time do you need?

Para que você precisa disso?
What do you need it for?

Expressing needs in an impersonal way

To ask and answer questions about needs in an impersonal way, that is, without reference to a specific person, we use the following expressions:

**46.3 precisar + infinitive**

In colloquial speech, the third person singular of the verb *precisar* is used without an explicit subject to refer to a general requirement:

Precisa reservar mesa?
Is it necessary to book a table?

Precisava enfrentar fila.
You had to queue up.

**46.3.2 ter que + infinitive**

In colloquial speech, the third person singular of *ter que* is used without a subject to express a strong need:

Não tem ônibus que vá para lá, tem que ir de táxi.
There aren’t any buses that go there, you have to go by taxi.

**46.3.3 precisar de + noun/noun phrase**

In colloquial speech, the third person singular of *precisar de* is used without a subject to express a general requirement:

Precisa de documento para entrar?
Do you need ID to get in?

Precisa de muita paciência.
It takes a lot of patience.
**EXPRÉSSING NEEDS**

**46.3.4 ser preciso + infinitive**

This is a more formal way of expressing a need when no specific person is involved:

É preciso tomar cuidado.
Care must be taken.

Foi preciso chamar os bombeiros.
The fire brigade had to be called.

Seria preciso emendar a Constituição.
The Constitution would have to be amended.

**46.3.5 ser preciso + noun**

The expression ser preciso ‘to be necessary’ can also be followed by a noun, but note that the word preciso remains unchanged, even if the following noun is feminine:

É preciso disposição para enfrentar o shopping na véspera de Natal.
You need enthusiasm to face the shopping mall on Christmas Eve.

Foi preciso muita coragem para combater o preconceito que existia.
A good deal of courage was needed to fight the prejudice that existed.

**46.3.6 ser preciso que + subjunctive**

É preciso que o governo intervenha.
The government must intervene.

Para isso, será preciso que a economia volte a crescer.
For this, the economy must start growing again.

**46.3.7 ser necessário + infinitive / ser necessário + noun / ser necessário que + subjunctive**

The word necessário is synonymous with preciso in impersonal expressions of need and enters into the same constructions, the only difference being that, when followed by a noun, necessário usually agrees in gender and number with this noun:

É necessária uma nova política ambiental.
A new environmental policy is needed.

São necessárias medidas drásticas.
Drastic measures are called for.

Talvez seja necessário adiar a reunião.
It may be necessary to postpone the meeting.

Não seria necessário que o presidente se pronunciasse.
It would not be necessary for the president to make a statement.

**46.3.8 ser o caso de + infinitive**

The sense of this expression is ‘the situation calls for doing . . .’, ‘it is appropriate to . . .’:

Não seria o caso de chamar um médico?
Shouldn’t we/they call a doctor?
Acho que é o caso de as duas partes buscarem o meio-termo.
I think the two sides need to seek a compromise.

Expressing strong need

There are stronger synonyms of *preciso* and *necessário* that can be used in similar constructions to express even stronger need. Among these are *essencial* ‘essential’, *imprescindível* ‘crucial, vital’, *indispensável* ‘indispensable, vital’, *fundamental* ‘imperative, essential’:

É *essencial* ter carro.
It’s essential to have a car.

É *imprescindível* que o debate seja o mais extenso possível.
It is crucial that the debate should be as wide-ranging as possible.

*Pontualidade* é *fundamental*.
Punctuality is imperative.
47

Expressing possibility and probability

47.1

Saying whether something is considered possible, probable or impossible

There are many ways of expressing degrees of possibility and probability in Portuguese. Here are some of the most commonly used expressions in the spoken language:

- **pode ser** ‘maybe, it could be’
- **talvez** ‘perhaps, maybe’
- **de repente** ‘maybe’
- **provavelmente** ‘probably’
- **é possível/impossível** ‘it’s possible/impossible’
- **não é possível** ‘it’s not possible’
- **é difícil** ‘it’s unlikely’, **acho difícil** ‘I think it’s unlikely’.

47.1.1 **pode ser**

The expression **pode ser** is used as a response to a question or statement, meaning ‘maybe’, ‘could be’:

- *Acho que vai chover. – Pode ser.*
  I think it’s going to rain. – Could be.
  Are you going to see Ana tomorrow? – Maybe.

It can also be followed by **que** + subjunctive to express a possibility:

- **Pode ser que ele chegue amanhã.**
  He might arrive tomorrow.
- **Pode ser que ela tenha esquecido.**
  She might have forgotten.

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82 In colloquial speech, the indicative is often used when referring to the past: **pode ser que ela esqueceu.**
The expression **não pode ser** can be used to mean ‘that’s impossible’ or to express exasperation:

- **Cem reais por um computador novo? Não pode ser!**
  A hundred reais for a brand new computer? That’s impossible!

- **Não pode ser que você ainda goste dele!**
  You can’t possibly still like him!

- **Você esqueceu a chave? Não pode ser!**
  You’ve forgotten the key? I don’t believe it!

### 47.1.2 **talvez**

The word **talvez** ‘perhaps’ may also be used in a verbless sentence as a response or comment:

- **Quando é que ele volta? – Talvez na semana que vem.**
  When is he back? – Maybe next week.

- **Devíamos ter ligado antes. – É, talvez.**
  We should have called beforehand. – Yes, maybe.

When it precedes a verb, **talvez** requires the subjunctive. In this case, the tense of the subjunctive depends on the time referred to:

- **Talvez seja melhor esperar.**
  Perhaps it’s better to wait.

- **Talvez ele estivesse com vergonha.**
  Perhaps he was embarrassed.

- **Talvez fosse prudente contratar um advogado.**
  Perhaps it would be wise to hire a lawyer.

- **Talvez eles tenham tentado e não conseguido.**
  Perhaps they tried and didn’t succeed.

### 47.1.3 **de repente**

In colloquial speech, **de repente** is frequently used with the meaning of ‘maybe’. Unlike **talvez**, it can be followed by a verb in the indicative:

- **Qual seria um bom dia para você? – Quarta, de repente.**
  What would be a good day for you? – Wednesday, maybe.

- **De repente ela ligou enquanto a gente estava na rua.**
  Maybe she called while we were out.

- **Você tem uma chave de fenda de repente?**
  Do you have a screwdriver maybe?

### 47.1.4 **provavelmente**

The word **provavelmente** ‘probably’ can be used as a response or as a sentence adverb, as in English:

- **Você vai estar aqui no fim de semana? – Provavelmente.**
  Are you going to be here at the weekend? – Probably.
Provavelmente eles vão passar o Natal na Europa.  
They’re probably going to spend Christmas in Europe.

47.1.5  
**é possível/impossível and não é possível**  
These expressions can all be used as responses:

**Você acha que ele vai atrasar? – É possível.**  
Do you think he’ll be late? – It’s possible.

**Será que ele nos paga o jantar? – É impossível.**  
I wonder if he’ll buy us dinner? – That’s impossible.

They can also be followed by que and a clause containing a subjunctive verb:

**Não é possível que todas as lojas estejam fechadas.**  
It’s not possible that all the shops are closed.

**É impossível que ela seja eleita.**  
It’s impossible that she’ll be elected.

**Era possível que o tempo só fosse piorar.**  
It was possible that the weather would just get worse.

The term não é possível can also express exasperation:

**O ar-condicionado pifou de novo? Não é possível!**  
The air conditioning’s broken down again? I don’t believe it!

47.1.6  
**é difícil / acho difícil**  
The word difícil is often used with the sense of ‘unlikely’. It is used most commonly in the constructions é difícil ‘it’s unlikely’ and acho difícil ‘I think it’s unlikely’, both of which can be followed by a personal infinitive construction or que + subjunctive:

**Você acha que o Flamengo vai ganhar o campeonato? – Acho difícil.**  
Do you think Flamengo will win the championship? – I think it’s unlikely.

**É difícil ele vir aqui hoje. / É difícil que ele venha aqui hoje.**  
He’s unlikely to come here today.

**Acho difícil meu pai emprestar o carro para a gente.**  
I think it’s unlikely my dad will lend us the car.

**Acho difícil que ele continue no time.**  
I think he’s unlikely to stay on the team.

47.1.7  
**Other expressions of possibility and probability**

(i) **provável/pouco provável que** + subjunctive ‘likely/unlikely that’:

**É provável que o presidente seja reeleito.**  
It’s likely that the president will be reelected.

**Acho pouco provável que eles se classifiquem para a final.**  
I think it’s unlikely that they’ll get through to the final.
possivelmente ‘possibly’, mostly used in writing:

É uma descoberta que possivelmente mudará o mundo.
It is a discovery that may possibly change the world.

dificilmente, usually used with the future or conditional to express improbability:

Dificilmente ela vai ganhar da campeã mundial.
She’s unlikely to beat the world champion.

Tal solução difícilmente seria aceita pelo queixoso.
Such a solution would be unlikely to be accepted by the plaintiff.

poder + infinitive can be used in the sense of ‘may, might’:

Pode chover mais tarde.
It may rain later.

Ele pode ter esquecido.
He may have forgotten.

In the written language, the future tense of poder is often used with the meaning of ‘may’:

A greve poderá causar transtornos.
The strike may cause disruption.

ser capaz de + infinitive is also used to mean ‘may, might’, particularly in speech:

Ela é capaz de atrasar.
She may be late.

Leva um guarda-chuva que é capaz de chover mais tarde.
Take an umbrella, it might rain later.

In colloquial speech, é capaz can also be followed by que + subjunctive:

É capaz que ela atrasse.
She may be late.

expressions containing the word chance ‘chance’:

A proposta tem poucas chances de ser aprovada.
The proposal has little chance of being approved.

Resta saber se o plano tem alguma chance de êxito.
It remains to be seen whether the plan has any chance of success.

Enquiring whether something is considered possible or impossible

In addition to using the expressions introduced above in questions, you can also ask about the possibility or likelihood of something using the expressions será que . . . ? ‘I wonder if . . . ’ or você acha que . . . ? ‘do you think (that) . . . ?’:

Será que eles esqueceram?
I wonder if they’ve forgotten?

Será que vamos conseguir?
I wonder if we’ll manage it?
EXPRESSING POSSIBILITY AND PROBABILITY

Você acha que ele ganha?
Do you think he’ll win?

Você acha que ela não quis vir?
Do you think she didn’t want to come?

These expressions can also be combined with question words, as in:

Quanto será que custa?
I wonder how much it costs?

Aonde você acha que ele foi?
Where do you think he’s gone?
Expressing certainty and uncertainty

Saying how certain one is of something

Strong certainty

To express strong certainty, Portuguese uses expressions such as the following:

- **não tem/há a menor dúvida (que/de que)** ‘there is absolutely no doubt (that)’
- **não tenho a menor dúvida (de/de que)** ‘I have absolutely no doubt (about/that)’
- **sem dúvida** ‘without a doubt’
- **sem dúvida alguma** ‘with no doubt whatsoever’
- **sem sombra de dúvida** ‘without a shadow of a doubt’
- **com certeza** ‘definitely’, ‘certainly’
- **certamente** ‘certainly’, ‘surely’
- **certo** ‘certain’, ‘guaranteed’
- **é certo que . . .** ‘it’s certain that . . .’, ‘certainly’
- **claro** ‘of course’
- **é claro que . . .** ‘of course . . .’
- **lógico** ‘of course’
- **é lógico que . . .** ‘of course . . .’
- **tenho certeza (que/de que . . .)** ‘I’m sure (that . . .)’
- **tenho certeza absoluta (que/de que . . .)** ‘I’m positive (that . . .)’
- **estou convencido (que/de que . . .)** ‘I’m convinced (that . . .)’

Examples:

- Você tem certeza? – Absoluta!
  Are you sure? – Positive!
- É claro que não vão aparecer.
  Of course they’re not going to show up.
- Foi incêndio criminoso mesmo? – Não tem a menor dúvida disso.
  Was it really arson? – There’s absolutely no doubt about it.
Ela é a melhor jogadora, sem dúvida alguma.
She’s the best player, no doubt whatsoever.

A vitória da oposição é quase certa.
An opposition victory is almost certain.

É certo que o prédio vai ser derrubado.
It’s certain that the building will be pulled down.

Estou convencido de que foi apenas um erro.
I’m convinced it was just a mistake.

**Weak certainty**

achó que . . . ‘I think . . .’

achó que sim/não ‘I think so.’ / ‘I don’t think so.’

Examples:

O Paulo está em casa, não é? – Acho que sim.
Paulo’s at home, isn’t he? – I think so.

Achó que o nosso time vai ganhar.
I think our team is going to win.

Seu pai vai te dar o dinheiro? – Acho que não.
Is your dad going to give you the money? – I don’t think so.

Notice that, in Portuguese, ‘I don’t think . . .’ is usually translated achó que . . . não . . . when referring to something you think is not the case:

Achó que ele não é burro.
I don’t think he’s stupid. (= I’m pretty sure he is not stupid)

The construction não achó que means ‘it is not the case that I think . . .’ and is followed by the subjunctive:

Não achó que ele seja burro, nunca falei isso.
I don’t think he’s stupid, I never said that.

**Uncertainty**

não sei se . . . ‘I don’t know whether . . .’

não tenho certeza ‘I’m not sure’

não tenho certeza de + pronoun ‘I’m not sure of + pronoun’

não tenho certeza (de) que . . . ‘I’m not sure that . . .’

não é certo que + subjunctive ‘it’s not certain that’

duvvido ‘I doubt it’

duvvido que + subjunctive ‘I doubt that . . .’

pode ser (que + subjunctive) ‘maybe ( . . .)’ (see 47.1.1)

talvez (+ subjunctive) ‘perhaps ( . . .)’ (see 47.1.2)

de repente ‘maybe’ (see 47.1.3).
Examples:

Não sei se eu vou.
I don’t know if I’m going.

Você acha que ele vai nos ligar? – Duvido.
Do you think he’ll call us? – I doubt it.

Não tenho certeza disso.
I’m not sure of that.

Você acha que ela gostou de mim? – De repente.
Do you think she liked me? – Maybe.

The expressions não é certo que . . . ‘it’s not certain that . . .’ and duvido que . . . ‘I doubt that . . .’ are followed by a subjunctive:

Duvido que ele apareça.
I doubt he’ll show up.

Não é certo que eles terminem a tempo.
It’s not certain that they’ll finish in time.

The expression não tenho certeza de que . . . may be followed by the subjunctive, but is more often followed by an indicative verb, especially in the spoken language:

Não tenho certeza de que ela vai me ouvir.
I’m not sure she’ll listen to what I have to say.

Enquiring about certainty and uncertainty

Examples:

Devolveram o dinheiro? – Lógico que não.
Did they return the money? – Of course not.

Claro que não vão aceitar isso.
Of course they won’t accept that.

Eles são apenas amigos. – Eu não acho.
They’re just friends – That’s not what I think.

Negative certainty

não ‘no’
claro que não ‘of course not’
lógico que não ‘of course not’
eu não acho ‘that’s not what I think’.

Examples:

Devolveram o dinheiro? – Lógico que não.
Did they return the money? – Of course not.

Claro que não vão aceitar isso.
Of course they won’t accept that.

Eles são apenas amigos. – Eu não acho.
They’re just friends – That’s not what I think.

Enquiring about certainty or uncertainty

The following expressions are commonly used to enquire about certainty or uncertainty:

Você tem certeza? ‘Are you sure?’

Você tem certeza absoluta? ‘Are you absolutely sure?’

Você tem certeza (de) que . . .? ‘Are you sure that . . .?’
EXPRESSING CERTAINTY AND UNCERTAINTY

Você acha? ‘Do you think so?’

Você acha que . . . ? ‘Do you think . . . ?’

Examples:

Você tem certeza que trancou a porta?
Are you sure you locked the door?

Vai chover. – Você acha?
It’s going to rain. – Do you think so?
Expressing supposition

Common expressions of supposition

To express supposition, as in ‘If they come . . .’, ‘Suppose he asks you for the money’, ‘Imagine you won the lottery’, ‘They must be there by now’, there are a range of words and expressions in Portuguese, of which the most common are the following:

**se + future subjunctive / se + imperfect subjunctive**

The first of these two expressions with *se* implies that the supposition is more plausible than the second and, in this case, *se + future subjunctive* is followed by a clause in the future or present; *se + imperfect subjunctive* is followed by the conditional, the imperfect (in place of the conditional) or the imperfect of the verb *ir* followed by an infinitive:

\[
\text{Se ele te pedir em casamento, você aceita/vai aceitar?}
\]

If he proposes, will you say yes?

\[
\text{Se ele te pedisse em casamento, você aceitaria/aceitava/ia aceitar?}
\]

If he proposed, would you say yes?

In the first case, the present tense *aceita* sounds more colloquial than the future *vai aceitar*. In the second case, the conditional *aceitaria* sounds quite formal, the imperfect *aceitava* sounds informal and *ia aceitar* neutral in register.

\[
\text{O que você vai falar se ela ligar para você?}
\]

What are you going to say if she calls you?

\[
\text{O que você falaria/falaria/ia falar se ela ligasse para você?}
\]

What would you say if she called you?

**vamos supor que + subjunctive / supondo que + subjunctive**

The expression *vamos supor que* ‘let’s suppose that, suppose’ is the most common way of positing a hypothetical situation. It can be followed by the present subjunctive referring to a likely supposition or by the imperfect subjunctive referring to an unlikely supposition.

\[
\text{Vamos supor que ele peça dinheiro para você. Você empresta/vai emprestar?}
\]

Suppose he asks you for money. Will you lend him any?

\[
\text{Vamos supor que ele pedisse dinheiro para você. Você emprestaria/emprestava/ia emprestar?}
\]

Suppose he asked you for money. Would you lend him any?
Notice that the tenses used to ask what would happen in such a case are the same as those used after the ‘if’ clauses in 49.1.1.

In colloquial spoken language, hypothetical scenarios are often drawn using the present tense to make them more vivid. In such cases, **vamos supor** is often unconnected to the rest of the sentence:

**Vamos supor, você depara com um ladrão na sua casa. O que você faz?**

Supposing, you come across a thief in your house, what do you do?

An alternative way of introducing a supposition, more used in the written language, is with **supondo que** + subjunctive, which is followed by the same tenses as **vamos supor que**:

**Supondo que isso fosse tecnicamente possível, será que compensaria?**

Supposing this was technically possible, would it be worth the expense?

In more formal written language, the form **suponhamos que** . . . ‘let us suppose that . . .’ is used in place of **vamos supor que** . . .:

**Suponhamos que os republicanos ganhem a eleição.**

Let us suppose the Republicans win the election.

### 49.3 imagine/imagina que + subjunctive

The formal or familiar imperative of the verb **imaginar** ‘to imagine’ can also be followed by a **que** + subjunctive clause to posit a hypothetical situation. Again, the present subjunctive indicates a plausible supposition, the imperfect subjunctive a less plausible one:

**Imagine que você queira comprar uma casa, por exemplo.**

Imagine you want to buy a house, for example.

**Imagina que você tivesse ganho na megasena. O que você faria com o dinheiro?**

Imagine you had won the lottery. What would you do with the money?

### 49.4 faz de conta que + indicative

In colloquial speech, you can also use the familiar imperative expression **faz de conta** ‘pretend’ followed by **que** and an indicative verb to express a supposition:

**Faz de conta que você está me conhecendo pela primeira vez.**

Pretend you’re meeting me for the first time.

### 49.5 vai que + indicative

The colloquial expression **vai que** . . . ‘supposing . . .’ is followed by the indicative:

**Vai que ele se recusa, e ai?**

Supposing he refuses, then what?

**Leva o guarda-chuva. Vai que chove.**

Take your umbrella. Suppose it rains.
**49.1.6 dever + infinitive**

The modal verb *dever* ‘must, should’ followed by an infinitive expresses supposition:

- **Ela deve estar doente.**  
  She must be ill.
- **Devemos chegar por volta do meio-dia.**  
  We should arrive around noon.

It can be followed by a perfect infinitive to express a supposition about the past:

- **Eles devem ter esquecido.**  
  They must have forgotten.
- **Ele já deve ter chegado.**  
  He must have got there by now.

It can also be followed by the verb *estar* and a gerund to express a supposition about an action in progress:

- **Eles devem estar dormindo.**  
  They must be asleep.
- **Ela deve estar achando que a gente não vai.**  
  She must be thinking we’re not coming.

**49.1.7 Future formed with ir + infinitive used to express a supposition**

As in English, the future formed with *ir* + infinitive can be used to express a confident supposition about the present:

- **Ela vai estar em casa agora.**  
  She’ll be at home now.
- **Eles não vão estar trabalhando hoje.**  
  They won’t be working today.
Expressing conditions

This chapter deals with conditions and conditional sentences, normally expressed in Portuguese with the word *se* ‘if’. In the following sections, you will learn to express basic conditions such as ‘If I have the money, I’ll go with you’, ‘If I had the money, I’d go with you’, ‘If I had had the money, I would have gone with you’. You will also learn the Portuguese equivalent of other conditional forms, such as ‘provided (that)’, ‘as long as’, ‘on condition (that)’.

► 20.5 (p. 147)

### 50.1 Open conditions

Open conditions are those that may or may not be fulfilled, e.g. ‘If it rains . . .’, or that may or may not be true, e.g. ‘If it is as you say . . .’. In English, the word ‘if’ is followed by the present tense in open conditions.

#### 50.1.1 *se* + future subjunctive + future/present

Here, the verb in the *se*-clause refers to the future but may not be fulfilled, so the tense used in Portuguese is the future subjunctive. The main clause will normally contain a future tense formed with *ir* + infinitive or the simple future tense in more formal written contexts. The *se*-clause normally precedes the main clause, but may also follow it:

Se chover, vou ficar em casa.
If it rains I’ll stay at home.

Se eu tiver tempo, vou ligar para ele amanhã.
If I have time I’ll call him tomorrow.

Se perder esse jogo, o time não escapará do rebaixamento.
If it loses this game the team will not escape relegation.

In informal speech, the present tense is often used in the main clause even though future action is referred to:

Se eu tiver o dinheiro, vou com você.
If I have the money I’ll go with you.

Pode dormir aqui se quiser.
You can sleep here if you want to.

Se não chegarem às nove, começamos sem vocês.
If you don’t arrive at nine, we’ll start without you.
The main clause may also be an imperative or a question:

Se você encontrar o Sérgio, fala para ele me ligar.
If you meet Sergio tell him to call me.

O que você vai fazer se ganhar o prêmio?
What will you do if you win the prize?

The future subjunctive of ter may be combined with a past participle in the se-clause to refer to a completed action:

Se tiver terminado esse trabalho até amanhã, eu vou com você.
If I’ve finished this job by tomorrow, I’ll go with you.

**se + present + present**

The word se can be followed by the present indicative when the situation expressed in the se-clause is already the case at the time of speaking. In such cases, the main clause is normally in the present tense too:

Se é assim, não tem muito o que fazer.
If that’s the way it is, there’s not a lot we can do.

Se está doendo tanto assim, é melhor chamar a ambulância.
If it’s hurting that much, we’d better call an ambulance.

Se ele não quer ir, é porque ele é preguiçoso.
If he doesn’t want to go it’s because he’s lazy.

**se + verb in the past**

A past tense may be used in the se-clause when the reference is to something that has already happened. The verb in the main clause can be in any appropriate tense:

Se ela chegou da viagem ontem à noite, ela deve estar cansada.
If she got back from her trip last night, she must be tired.

Se ele estava de mau humor, é melhor não incomodá-lo de novo.
If he was in a bad mood, you’d better not bother him again.

**Remote and unreal conditions**

Remote and unreal conditions present a scenario that is either unlikely or impossible, as in ‘If you explained it to him, he would probably understand’, ‘If she were just a bit taller she could be a model’.

Remote and unreal conditions are expressed in Portuguese by using the imperfect subjunctive in the se-clause. The choice of tense used in the main clause depends on the degree of formality, the conditional being formal, the imperfect informal and the imperfect of ir + infinitive neutral (neither formal nor informal):

(i) Less formal examples using the imperfect or ir + infinitive in the main clause:

Se você explicasse para ele, ele provavelmente entendia/ia entender.
If you explained (it) to him, he’d probably understand.

Se ela fosse um pouquinho mais alta, podia/ia poder ser modelo.
If she was just a bit taller she could be a model.
EXPRESSING CONDITIONS

(ii) A more formal example showing the conditional or ir + infinitive:

Se o governo melhorasse a qualidade de ensino, supriria/ia suprir a falta de mão de obra qualificada.
If the government improved the quality of education it would alleviate the shortage of skilled labour.

Unfulfilled conditions

An unfulfilled condition is one that cannot possibly be fulfilled because the opportunity has already past, as in ‘If I’d have known I would have come yesterday’, ‘If you hadn’t spent all that money we wouldn’t be in debt now’.

se + pluperfect subjunctive + perfect conditional/pluperfect

Unfulfilled conditions are expressed in Portuguese by using the pluperfect subjunctive in the se-clause. If the main clause also refers to the past, the tense used is the perfect conditional or, in less formal registers, the pluperfect:

Se você tivesse me pedido, eu teria/tinha emprestado o dinheiro.
If you had asked me I would have lent you the money.

Se ele não tivesse bebido naquela noite, nada disso teria/tinha acontecido.
If he hadn’t had a drink that night, none of this would have happened.

When the verb in the se-clause refers to an ongoing state of affairs rather than a single action, the imperfect subjunctive is used instead of the pluperfect:

Se não fosse o Zeca, minha irmã teria/tinha morrido afogada.
If it hadn’t been for Zeca, my sister would have drowned.

Se eu soubesse na época o que sei agora, nunca teria/tinha entrado nessa.
If I’d have known then what I know now, I’d never have got into this.

se + pluperfect subjunctive + conditional/imperfect/infinitive

The verb of the main clause can be conditional (formal), imperfect (informal) or infinitive after the imperfect of ir when it refers to the present time:

Se você não tivesse gasto todo aquele dinheiro, não estaríamos/estávamos/famos estar endividados agora.
If you hadn’t spent all that money, we wouldn’t be in debt now.

Se nós não tivéssemos ajudado, eles teriam/tinham/iam ter muito o que fazer ainda.
If we hadn’t helped out, they’d still have a lot to do.
Other conditional expressions

50.4

50.4.1 caso + present/imperfect subjunctive

The word caso + present/imperfect subjunctive is a slightly more formal synonym of se meaning ‘if, in the event that, should . . .’. The present subjunctive is used when the main verb is present or future, the imperfect when the main verb is past or conditional:

A greve será inevitável caso o sindicato não ceda.
The strike will be inevitable if the union does not back down.

A empresa a ameaçou de demissão caso ela se recusasse a trabalhar aos domingos.
The company threatened her with dismissal should she refuse to work on Sundays.

50.4.2 Gerund instead of se-clause

In colloquial language, the gerund (words such as virando ‘turning’, sabendo ‘knowing’) can be used to express open conditions:

Virando aqui à esquerda, você já vai ver a igreja na sua frente.
Turning left here, you’ll see the church ahead of you.

Sabendo inglês, você vai conseguir um emprego melhor.
Knowing English, you’ll be able to get a better job.

50.4.3 Imperative instead of se-clause

The imperative can be used to express a condition in informal speech, especially in warnings or threats:

Faz isso e você vai se arrepender.
Do that and you’ll be sorry.

Atrase mais uma vez e você vai para o olho da rua.
Be late one more time and you’ll be out on your ear.

▶ 21.1 (p. 150)

50.4.4 Preterite + preterite

A verb in the preterite tense can be followed by a second preterite in informal language to express a condition and a consequence. The verbs in this construction are always in the third person singular without an explicit subject, but the implied subject is the general ‘you’ and the meaning is ‘If you do X, then Y happens’:

Quebrou, pagou.
If you break it, you pay for it.

Bobeou, dançou.
If you drop your guard, you’ve had it.

This often corresponds to the English use of imperatives in the language of advertising:

Raspou, ganhou!
Scratch and win! (advertisement for scratch card lottery)
**50.4 EXPRESSING CONDITIONS**

**50.4.5 desde que/contanto que + present/imperfect subjunctive**

These expressions correspond to the English ‘as long as’, ‘provided (that)’, ‘providing (that)’. In both cases, the present subjunctive is used when the main verb is present or future and the imperfect subjunctive when the main verb is past:

- Você pode vir qualquer dia, desde que seja à tarde.
  You can come any day as long as it’s in the afternoon.

- Ele aceitou a proposta, contanto que pagassem as despesas dele.
  He accepted the proposal provided they paid his expenses.

**50.4.6 uma vez que + present/imperfect subjunctive**

The expression *uma vez que* ‘once’ also has a conditional meaning:

- O governo declarou que negociaria com os guerrilheiros, uma vez que depusessem as armas.
  The government declared it would negotiate with the guerrillas once they laid down their arms.

In addition, *uma vez* can precede a past participle in this sense:

- Uma vez cadastrado, você pode acessar todo o conteúdo do site.
  Once registered, you can access all the content on the site.

**50.4.7 com a condição de + infinitive; sob a condição de + infinitive; com a condição (de) que + present/imperfect subjunctive; sob a condição de que + present/imperfect subjunctive**

These expressions mean ‘on condition of doing’ when followed by the infinitive and ‘on condition that’ when followed by the subjunctive. The forms with *com* are slightly more frequent:

- Ele foi posto em liberdade com a condição de não se envolver com política.
  He was set free on condition that he did not get involved in politics.

- Eles só concederam entrevista sob a condição de que o local não fosse revelado.
  They only agreed to an interview on condition that the location would not be revealed.

**50.4.8 a não ser que/a menos que + present/imperfect subjunctive**

These expressions correspond to the English ‘unless’. The phrase *a menos que* is slightly more formal and less common than *a não ser que*. Both are normally followed by the present subjunctive, but may be followed by the imperfect subjunctive in a past context (e.g. indirect speech) or when the main verb is conditional:

- Vou ficar aqui, a não ser que você prefira que eu vá embora.
  I’ll stay here, unless you prefer me to leave.

- Ele não faria isso, a menos que fosse idiota.
  He wouldn’t do that unless he were an idiot.
**50.4.9 mesmo que + present/imperfect subjunctive; mesmo + gerund**

The expression *mesmo que* translates ‘even if, even though’:

- *Ela não poderia participar, mesmo que quisesse.*
  She could not take part even if she wanted to.

- *Eles vão levar o campeonato, mesmo que percam esse jogo.*
  They will take the championship even if they lose this game.

In the spoken language, this same idea is more often expressed by placing *mesmo* before a gerund:

- *Eles vão levar o campeonato, mesmo perdendo esse jogo.*
  They’ll take the championship even if they lose this game.

- *Mesmo estudando muito, ele não vai passar na prova.*
  Even if he studies really hard, he won’t pass the exam.

The gerund can have a different subject from the main verb:

- *Vou casar com ele, mesmo meus pais não gostando.*
  I’m going to marry him even if my parents don’t like it.

- *Mesmo nós dois empurrando, o carro não quis sair do lugar.*
  Even with the two of us pushing, the car wouldn’t budge.
51

Expressing contrast or opposition

This chapter deals with the concept of contrast and the words and expressions associated with this. Contrast between different ideas is expressed in English through the use of words such as ‘but’, ‘though’, ‘although’, as in ‘I don’t speak Spanish, but I can get by’, ‘Although the sun’s hot today, there’s a nice breeze’.

51.1 Common expressions of contrast or opposition

51.1.1 mas

The word mas ‘but’ is the one most commonly used to express contrast. Note that many Brazilians pronounce it /majʃ/:

Não falo espanhol, mas consigo me virar.
I don’t speak Spanish, but I can get by.

Ele pode ser chato às vezes, mas, no fundo, ele é boa pessoa.
He can be annoying at times, but basically he’s a good person.

When a negative clause is followed by a positive one that expresses a complete contrast, the form mas sim ‘but rather’ is used, especially in the written language:

A intenção deles não é instruir, mas sim divertir o público.
Their intention is not to educate, but rather to entertain the audience.

Não se trata de uma biografia, mas sim de um romance biográfico.
It’s not a biography, but rather a biographical novel.

51.1.2 porém

The word porém ‘yet, however’ marks a stronger contrast than mas and is mainly used in the written language. It can be placed at the start of its clause or sentence or in second place separated by commas for greater emphasis:

O documentário é chocante, porém instigante.
The documentary is shocking, yet thought-provoking.

Ele adora o Brasil. Porém, não deixa de sentir saudades de sua terra natal.
He loves Brazil. Yet he still misses his homeland.

Essa prática é proibida por lei. A realidade, porém, é outra.
This practice is banned by law. However, the reality of the situation is different.
contudo, entretanto, no entanto, todavia

These words all signal a strong contrast and are formal in register, being used mainly in the written language. Like porém, they may be placed at the start of the sentence, but most often occur in second position separated by commas:

- Há vários problemas. O mais grave, no entanto, é a violência.
  There are a number of problems. The most serious, however, is violent crime.

- O português e o espanhol são muito parecidos. Contudo, existem diferenças fundamentais entre os dois idiomas.
  Portuguese and Spanish are very similar. However, there are fundamental differences between the two languages.

embora + subjunctive

The word embora ‘although’ is followed by the present subjunctive when the main verb is present or future and by the imperfect subjunctive when the main verb is past tense. Although this construction is used in the spoken language, it is not frequently used in colloquial speech.

- Embora o sol esteja forte hoje, tem uma brisa agradável.
  Although the sun is hot today, there is a nice breeze.

- Embora fosse doloroso, tiveram que voltar ao local do crime.
  Although it was painful, they had to return to the scene of the crime.

It can also occur without a following verb:

- Embora cansados, conseguiram chegar ao cume da montanha.
  Though tired, they managed to reach the summit of the mountain.

mesmo que + subjunctive; mesmo

The expression mesmo que ‘even if, even though’ is followed by the present or imperfect subjunctive according to the usual sequence of tenses:

- Mesmo que seja difícil, vou tentar.
  Even if it’s difficult, I’m going to try.

- Eu não iria, mesmo que me implorassem.
  I wouldn’t go even if they begged me.

In the spoken language, mesmo is used with a gerund to convey this meaning:

- Mesmo chovendo, vou sair.
  Even if it’s raining, I’m going to go out.

- O jantar foi ótimo, mesmo tendo sido improvisado.
  The dinner was excellent even though it had been thrown together.

Also, mesmo can be used without a following verb in this contrastive sense:

- Mesmo exausto, ele conseguiu terminar a corrida.
  Even though he was exhausted, he managed to finish the race.

- Mesmo com dinamite não conseguiram arrombar o cofre.
  Even with dynamite they were unable to break open the safe.
The expression *apesar de* ‘despite, in spite of’ can be followed by a noun, a pronoun or an infinitive when the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the main verb:

*Gostamos da viagem apesar do mau tempo.*
We enjoyed the trip despite the bad weather.

*Apesar disso, o time ganhou o campeonato.*
Despite that, the team won the championship.

*Achei o filme interessante, apesar de não entender tudo.*
I found the film interesting despite not understanding everything.

It can also be followed directly by an adjective:

*Apesar de doente, ele continua animado.*
Despite being ill, he remains cheerful.

Also, *apesar de* can be followed by a personal infinitive when the subject of the infinitive is different from that of the main clause or when the infinitive construction precedes the main clause:

*Apesar de a proposta ter o apoio do governo, dificilmente será aprovada.*
Despite the proposal having the support of the government, it’s unlikely to be approved.

The expression *apesar de que* ‘despite the fact that’ is usually followed by a verb in the indicative, unless the following clause refers to a potential, rather than actual, state of affairs, in which case the subjunctive is used:

*Ele foi eleito prefeito, apesar de que muitos não gostam dele.*
He was elected mayor even though many people don’t like him.

*Ninguém consegue bater o recorde, apesar de que alguns tenham tentado.*
No one can break the record, despite the fact that some may have tried.

The phrase *se bem que* ‘though, although’ is usually followed by the indicative expressing an actual fact:

*Gosto de jogar tênis, se bem que não jogo muito bem.*
I like playing tennis, although I don’t play very well.

*O tempo estava ótimo, se bem que esfriava à noite.*
The weather was great, although it got cold at night.

The expression *se bem que* is very common in the spoken language and usually adds an afterthought, a reservation, regarding what has just been said. This can also be a response to what someone else has just said:

*Grajaú é um bairro legal, não é? – É, se bem que é meio longe.*
Grajaú is a nice neighbourhood, isn’t it? – Yes, it’s a bit far away, though.

*Duvido que ele apareça. Se bem que nunca se sabe, não é?* 
I doubt he’ll show up. Mind you, you never know, do you?
In formal writing, *se bem que* is often used at the start of a sentence to mean ‘although’ and, in this case, is followed by the subjunctive:

> **Se bem que não se soubesse na época, a doença era transmitida por ratos.**
> Although it was not known at the time, the disease was spread by rats.

### só que

The expression *só que* ‘only, except (that)’ is commonly used in the spoken language to voice a reservation. When followed by a verb, the verb is indicative:

> **Ela vem essa semana sim, só que na sexta em vez de hoje.**
> She *is* coming this week, only on Friday instead of today.

> **Eu gosto dele, só que ele me cansa um pouco.**
> I like him, except that I find him a bit wearing.

> **No domingo tem churrasco no clube. – É, só que eu tenho que trabalhar.**
> On Sunday there’s a barbecue at the club. – Yeah, only I have to work.

### já

The adverb *já* placed at the beginning of a sentence marks a strong contrast with the previous statement. This usage is mainly found in writing:

> **Os brasileiros adoram futebol. Já os americanos, nem tanto.**
> Brazilians love soccer. Americans, on the other hand, are not so keen.

> **Ela é a favor da ideia. Já o pai dela pensa diferente.**
> She is in favour of the idea. Her father, on the other hand, thinks differently.

### Other ways of expressing contrast or opposition

Here are some other expressions that are commonly used to express contrast or opposition:

- **por um lado** ‘on the one hand’
- **por outro lado** ‘on the other hand’
- **pelo contrário** ‘on the contrary’
- **muito pelo contrário** ‘quite the reverse’
- **ao contrário do que . . .** ‘contrary to what . . .’
- **em compensação** ‘on the other hand, though’
- **em contrapartida** ‘meanwhile’ (*formal*)
- **mesmo assim** ‘even so’
- **enquanto** ‘while’
- **ao passo que** ‘whereas’ (*formal*)
- **senão** ‘otherwise’
- **caso contrário** ‘otherwise’
Examples:

**Por um lado, entendo a posição dele.**
On the one hand, I understand his position.

**Por outro lado, acho que ele extrapolou.**
On the other hand, I think he went too far.

**Eu não achei o filme chato. Pelo contrário, achei bem interessante.**
I didn’t find the film boring. On the contrary, I thought it was really interesting.

**Ele gostou? – Muito pelo contrário, odiou.**
Did he like it? – Quite the reverse, he hated it.

**Ao contrário do que se pode pensar, muitos brasileiros nunca viram uma praia.**
Contrary to what you might think, many Brazilians have never seen a beach.

**O nosso bairro é meio fora de mão. Em compensação, é tranquilo.**
Our neighbourhood is rather out of the way. It’s quiet, though.

**Em contrapartida, a economia argentina não anda tão bem.**
Meanwhile, the Argentinian economy is not faring so well.

**As obras estão bem avançadas. Mesmo assim, ainda há muito o que fazer.**
Construction work is well under way. Even so, there is still a lot to do.

**Os brasileiros gostam de futebol, enquanto os americanos preferem beisebol.**
Brazilians like soccer, while Americans prefer baseball.

**Mais de 45% da energia consumida no Brasil provêm de fontes renováveis, ao passo que a média nos países desenvolvidos é de cerca de 10%.**
More than 45 per cent of the energy consumed in Brazil comes from renewable sources, whereas the average in the developed countries is around 10 per cent.

**Anda logo, senão perdemos o ônibus.**
Get a move on, otherwise we’ll miss the bus.

**O governo deve tomar uma atitude. Caso contrário, a situação só vai piorar.**
The government should take action. Otherwise the situation will just get worse.
Enquiring and making statements about capability or incapability

**poder + infinitive**

The verb *poder* ‘to be able to’ is the most general word for expressing capability. It can express mental or physical capability, though *conseguir* (see 52.1.2) is often preferred for the latter. In addition, *poder* + infinitive is used to express permission, possibility and requests, which are dealt with elsewhere in this book.

- **Pode alcançar aquela prateleira?**
  - Can you reach that shelf?

- **Posso, sim.**
  - Yes, I can.

- **Não posso imaginar nada pior.**
  - I can’t imagine anything worse.

- **Você poderia/podia correr uma maratona?**
  - Could you run a marathon?

- **Você não vai poder dormir depois desse café.**
  - You won’t be able to sleep after that coffee.

The preterite of *poder* means that the subject actually succeeded or failed in carrying out the action of the verb:

- **Não puderam salvar o menino.**
  - They were unable to save the boy. *(i.e. they tried but failed)*

- **Eu pude convencê-lo.**
  - I was able to convince him. *(and he changed his mind)*

The imperfect of *poder* indicates a lack of capability in the past:

- **Não podiam salvar o menino.**
  - They couldn’t save the boy. *(i.e. because they did not have the capability)*

- **Eu achava que podia convencê-lo.**
  - I thought I could convince him. *(but might not actually have done so)*
**conseguir + infinitive**

Although *conseguir + infinitive* often translates as ‘to manage to do, to succeed in doing’, it also corresponds to ‘can, be able to’ especially when talking about physical ability. In other cases, *conseguir* is more emphatic than *poder*, suggesting that a certain amount of effort has gone into trying to carry out a specific action, whereas *poder* refers more to a natural capability:

- **Você consegue fazer dez flexões?**
  Can you do ten press-ups?

- **Não consigo encontrar a rua nesse mapa.**
  I can’t (manage to) find the street on this map.

- **Você conseguiu terminar tudo?**
  Did you manage to get everything finished?

- **Eles não conseguiram abrir a porta.**
  They were not managing to get the door open (*but they may have subsequently*).

- **Eles não conseguiam abrir a porta.**
  They didn’t manage to get the door open (*so they gave up*).

**dar para + infinitive**

The verb *dar* can be used impersonally to mean ‘to be possible’. As an impersonal verb, it only occurs in the third person singular form or the infinitive, but it may be used in all tenses. Generally, when used in a statement, *dar para* refers to a first person subject ‘I, we’ or a general ‘you’ subject. In a question, it will usually refer to a general subject or specifically to the person asked. This is a colloquial expression and extremely common:

- **Dá para entender? – Dá, sim.**
  Can you understand? – Yes, I can.

- **Deu para sentir a diferença?**
  Could you tell the difference?

- **Não dá para dormir com esse barulho.**
  It’s impossible to sleep with this noise.

- **Se desse, eu comprava um carro novo.**
  If I could, I’d buy a new car.

The subject may be specified by using a personal infinitive after *dar para*:

- **Não dá para eu atender agora.**
  I can’t come to the phone/door now.

- **Deu para vocês se entenderem?**
  Were you able to understand each other?

**Using a single verb to express capability or incapability**

With some verbs, especially those to do with the senses, such as ‘see’, ‘hear’, ‘feel’, and some others, such as ‘remember’, ‘find’, the verb ‘can’ may be used in English but not in Portuguese. Instead, Portuguese uses the present or past continuous of these verbs to convey this sense (except in the case of *lembrar* ‘remember’ – see example below):

- **Não estou vendo nada.**
  I can’t see anything.
Enquiring and making statements about learned abilities

Você está me ouvindo?
Can you hear me?

Ele estava sentindo a vibração do motor.
He could feel the vibration of the engine.

Não estou achando os óculos.
I can’t find my glasses.

Não lembro o nome dele.
I can’t remember his name.

**ser capaz de** + infinitive

The expression *ser capaz de* ‘to be capable of, be able to’ can refer either to the skill or ability required to do something or the moral capacity to do something:

**Ele é capaz de ficar dias sem comer.**
He’s able to go for days without eating.

**Ela disse que seria capaz de reconhecer o homem que a agrediu.**
She said she’d be able to recognize the man who attacked her.

**Você seria capaz de matar alguém para se defender?**
Would you be capable of killing someone to defend yourself?

Enquiring and making statements about learned abilities

**saber** + infinitive

To enquire and make statements about learned abilities, as in ‘Can you play the piano?’, ‘She can’t swim’, Portuguese uses the verb *saber*, literally ‘to know (how to)’, not *poder*:

**Você sabe tocar piano?**
Can you play the piano?

**Sei tocar um pouco, sim.**
Yes, I can play a bit.

**Ela não sabe nadar?**
Can’t she swim?

**Sabe sim.**
Yes, she can.

Present

Learned abilities are often expressed by simply using the present tense:

**Ele cozinha muito bem.**
He cooks very well. / He’s a good cook.

**Ela fala chinês fluentemente.**
She speaks Chinese fluently.
Seeking and giving permission

53

53.1

Seeking permission

To seek permission, as in ‘May/Can I come in?’, ‘Let me come in’, ‘Do you mind if I come in?’, Portuguese uses a number of verbs and expressions, of which the most common are the following:

53.1.1 poder + infinitive

Using poder ‘can, may’ is the most straightforward way of asking permission:

Posso entrar?
May/Can I come in?

Posso deixar a minha bolsa aqui?
Can I leave my bag here?

Podemos estacionar aqui?
Can we park here?

Podemos ver o cardápio, por favor?
Can we see the menu, please?

To make a more formal and polite request, the conditional tense of poder may be used:

Poderia falar com o Sr. Ricardo Tavares, por favor?
Could I speak to Mr Ricardo Tavares, please?

Nós poderíamos nos encontrar para falar do assunto?
Could we meet to discuss the matter?

53.1.2 pode + infinitive

In the spoken language, the third person singular of poder is used without an explicit subject to convey the general meaning of ‘Is it OK to . . . ?’:

Pode deixar a bicicleta aqui? – Pode.
Is it OK to leave my bike here? – Yes.

Is it OK to smoke here? – No, it’s not allowed.

Pode pegar um folheto desses?
Is it OK to take one of these leaflets?
In colloquial speech, the third person singular of the verb dar ‘to give’ is used impersonally to mean ‘is it OK?’. It is followed by an infinitive, which may be a personal infinitive with the subject eu ‘I’ or a gente ‘we’:

Is it OK to park here? – Yes, it is.

Dá para eu usar o banheiro?
Is it all right if I use the bathroom?

Dá para a gente deixar as coisas aqui?
Can we leave our stuff here?

Dá para repetir, por favor?
Could you repeat that, please?

dá licença, com licença

The expression dá licença means ‘excuse me’ and is said when you are about to do something that may be considered rude. It can be pronounced with question intonation if you really want the other person’s permission, but usually it is pronounced with statement intonation as you go ahead with what you intend to do.

Dá licença, vou descer aqui.
Excuse me, I’m getting off here. (could you let me through?)

Dá licença um minutinho, eu preciso atender o telefone.
Excuse me a moment, I have to answer the phone.

Brazilians also say dá licença when taking up an offer or invitation that might cause inconvenience or be considered intrusive. For example, when you invite a Brazilian into your home, he or she will normally say dá licença while walking through the door. Similarly, if you invite a Brazilian guest to sit down, he or she will say dá licença while doing so.

The expression com licença is synonymous with dá licença, except that it sounds slightly more formal and impersonal:

Com licença, senhoras e senhores.
Excuse me, ladies and gentlemen.

Com licença, por aqui, senhor.
This way please, sir, if you don’t mind.

déixar + infinitive

The verb deixar ‘to let’ can be used in two ways to ask permission:

(i) With the imperative of deixar followed by eu ‘I’ + infinitive. Either the formal or the familiar imperative may be used, as in speech both deixe and deixa are run together with eu and pronounced /dejʃew/ with equal stress on the two syllables:

Deixa eu dar uma pensada.
Let me think about it.
Deixe eu explicar para o senhor.
Let me explain, sir.

In this construction, eu is the subject of a personal infinitive. In formal grammar, the formal imperative should be followed by the object pronoun me, but this construction (e.g. deixe-me explicar) is only found in formal writing.

(ii) By using você me deixa/vocês me deixam + infinitive? ‘will you let me . . . ?’ with question intonation, as in:

Você me deixa segurar o bebê um pouco?
Will you let me hold the baby for a minute?

Vocês deixam a gente ficar aqui?
Will you let us stay here?

importar-se/incomodar-se se + future subjunctive;
importar-se/incomodar-se que + present subjunctive

The verbs importar-se and incomodar-se both mean ‘to mind’ and are practically interchangeable. If there is any difference, it is that importar-se implies having an intellectual or moral objection, while incomodar-se refers to physical discomfort. Both verbs can be used in two possible constructions: with se followed by a future subjunctive ‘do you mind if I . . . ’ or with que followed by a present subjunctive, ‘do you mind me . . . ing’:

Você se importa se eu me sentar aqui?
Do you mind if I sit here?

Vocês se incomoda que eu fume?
Do you mind me smoking?

Vocês se importam se eu for embora mais cedo?
Do you mind if I leave early?

Vocês se incomoda se ele deixar a bicicleta aqui?
Do you mind if he leaves his bike here?

Giving permission

When giving permission in response to a request made with poder (53.1.1, 53.1.2) or dar (53.1.3), the simplest response is to repeat the verb in the third person singular:

Posso entrar? – Pode.
Can I come in? – Yes.

Is it OK to park here? – Yes.

Is it OK to pay with a card? – Yes.

Other responses you may use to give permission are:

claro ‘yes, of course’
fique/fica à vontade ‘feel free’
não faça cerimônia ‘don’t stand on ceremony’
Stating that permission is withheld

por favor ‘please do’, ‘go ahead’
está bom ‘OK’, ‘all right’ (pronounced /ta bo/)
tudo bem ‘all right’, ‘it’s fine’
tá ‘OK’ (the spoken form of está)
toda ‘of course’ (response to dá licença)
com toda ‘of course’ (response to com licença).

Examples:

Posso usar o banheiro? – Claro, fique à vontade.
May I use the bathroom? – Of course, feel free.

Sentem, amigos, não façam cerimônia.
Sit down, everybody, don’t stand on ceremony.

Você se importa se eu ligar o ventilador? – Não, por favor.
Do you mind if I turn on the fan? – No, go ahead.

Deixa eu dar uma olhada no seu dicionário. – Está bom.
Let me have a look in your dictionary. – All right.

Você se incomoda que eu fume? – Não, tudo bem.
Do you mind me smoking? – No, it’s fine.

Só um minutinho. – Tá.
Just a moment. – OK.

Com licença. – Com toda.
Excuse me. – Of course.

Stating that permission is withheld

When denying permission in response to a request made with poder (53.1.1, 53.1.2) or dar (53.1.3), the simplest response is to repeat the verb in the third person singular with the negative não, which may be repeated:

Posso deixar a bolsa aqui? – Não pode, não.
Can I leave my bag here? – No, you can’t.

Pode estacionar aqui? – Não, não pode.
Is it OK to park here? – No, it isn’t.

Dá para usar o telefone? – Não, não dá não.
Is it OK to use the phone? – No, it’s not.

Other expressions are:

sinto muito, mas . . . ‘I’m sorry, but . . .’
desculpe/desculpa, mas . . . ‘sorry, but . . .’
eu preferiria/preferia que não ‘I’d rather you didn’t’
è proibido ‘it’s not allowed’
in felizmente ‘unfortunately’
de jeito nenhum ‘certainly not’.
Examples:

**Posso estacionar aqui? – Sinto muito, mas aqui é proibido.**
Can I park here? – I’m sorry, but it’s not allowed here.

**Pode me ajudar? – Desculpe, mas não dá.**
Can you help me? – I’m sorry, but I can’t.

**Você se incomoda se eu fumar? – Eu preferiria/preferia que não.**
Do you mind if I smoke? – I’d rather you didn’t.

**Posso deixar a mala aqui? – Infelizmente não dá.**
Can I leave my suitcase here? – Unfortunately that’s not possible.

**Você me deixa dirigir o seu carro? – De jeito nenhum!**
Will you let me drive your car? – Certainly not!

Signs normally use the word **proibido**, followed by an infinitive, to signal that something is not allowed:

**É proibido fumar.**
No smoking.

**Proibido estacionar.**
No parking.
Asking and giving opinions

54.1 Asking someone’s opinion

The following are the verbs and constructions most commonly used to ask people their opinion:

54.1.1 achar

The most frequent verb in this context is achar ‘to think’. The constructions used to ask someone’s opinion are:

- O que (é que) você acha? ‘What do you think?’
- O que (é que) vocês acham? ‘What do you think?’ (to more than one person)
- O que você acha de . . . ? ‘What do you think of . . . ?’
- O que vocês acham de . . . ? ‘What do you think of . . . ?’ (to more than one person)
- Você acha que . . . ? ‘Do you think (that) . . . ?’

Examples:

- Vamos sair? O que você acha?
  Shall we go out? What do you think?

- O que você achou do filme?
  What did you think of the film?

- O que vocês acharam da minha sugestão?
  What did you think of my suggestion?

- Você acha que vai chover?
  Do you think it’s going to rain?

The expression o que você(s) acha(m) de . . . can be followed by a personal infinitive to put forward a suggestion:

- O que você acha de a gente jantar fora?
  What do you think about us eating out? / How about us eating out?

- O que vocês acham de eu convidar o Tom?
  What do you think about me inviting Tom? / How about me inviting Tom?
When asking for someone’s first impression of something, e.g. something they are eating or something they are seeing or have just seen for the first time, the preterite of *acha* is normally used in Portuguese:

*O que é que vocês acharam do bolo?*
What do you think of the cake? (*i.e. that you are eating or have just eaten*)

*Olha meu vestido novo. O que é que você achou?*
Look at my new dress. What do you think?

The subjunctive is occasionally used after *você acha que*. The use of the subjunctive implies that the person asking the question does not think so:

*Vocês acha que ele seja o melhor candidato?*
Do you think he’s the best candidate? (*because I don’t think so*)

*Vocês acha que ele é o melhor candidato?*
Do you think he’s the best candidate? (*impartial question*)

**pensar**

The verb *pensar* ‘to think’ refers more to the process of thinking and is therefore not used to ask for a straightforward verdict on something, as is the case with *achar*, but rather to ask for a person’s reasoned thoughts on a subject. The constructions commonly used are:

*O que (é que) você pensa de . . . ?* ‘What do you think of . . . ?’

*O que (é que) você pensa sobre/a respeito de . . . ?*  
‘What do you think about . . . ?’

Examples:

*O que você pensa dos últimos avanços da tecnologia?*  
What do you think of the latest advances in technology?

*O que vocês pensam a respeito desse tema?*  
What do you think about this topic?

The question *você pensa que . . . ?* ‘do you think (think) . . . ?’ differs from *você acha que . . . ?* in that, instead of asking for a person’s own individual feeling about something, you are asking for a considered view based on objective data:

*Vocês pensa que o presidente vai ser reeleito?*  
Do you think the president will be re-elected? (*based on the data available*)

*Vocês acha que o presidente vai ser reeleito?*  
Do you think the president will be re-elected? (*in your personal opinion*)

**acreditar, crer**

The verbs *acreditar* and *crer* both mean ‘to believe’ and can be used to ask a person’s opinion. Of the two, *acreditar* is more frequently used:

*Vocês acreditam que as novas medidas vão surtir efeito?*  
Do you believe the new measures will be effective?

*Vocês crê que houve motivação política no crime?*  
Do you believe that the crime was politically motivated?
As with achar (see 54.1.1), the subjunctive may be used in the que clause to imply scepticism on the part of the speaker. When used after acreditar and crer, the subjunctive changes the intention of the question from asking for an opinion to asking whether the person actually believes that the statement is true:

Você acredita que ele é inocente?
Do you think that he’s innocent? (*i.e. what’s your view?*)

Você acredita que ele seja inocente?
Do you believe he’s innocent? (*i.e. do you believe claims that he is innocent?*)

opinar

The verb opinar ‘to give an opinion’ is more formal and is often used in interviews and similar situations. The following are typical examples of its use:

O senhor quer opinar sobre os últimos acontecimentos?
Would you like to give us your view on the latest developments?

Você pode opinar sobre essa questão?
Could you give us your opinion on this issue?

qual (é) a sua opinião?

This phrase, meaning ‘what is your opinion?’, sounds rather formal and is more likely to be used in an interview or survey than in everyday conversation. Note that the verb é is optional after qual. The phrase is normally followed by the prepositions sobre ‘on, about’ or a respeito de ‘concerning’:

Qual a sua opinião a respeito?
What’s your opinion on that?

Qual é a sua opinião sobre esse projeto?
What is your opinion about this project?

Other ways of asking for someone’s opinion

The following expressions may also be used to ask someone’s opinion:

Na sua opinião, o que/como/qual . . . ? ‘In your opinion, what/how/which . . . ?’
Como você vê isso? ‘How do you see this?’
Você concorda comigo (que . . .)? ‘Do you agree with me (that . . .)?’
Você não acha (que . . .)? ‘Don’t you think (that . . .)?’
Queria ouvir a sua opinião sobre . . . ‘I’d like to hear your opinion on . . .’.

Expressing opinions

Personal opinions can be conveyed simply by asserting an idea directly, using an indicative verb:

O Rio é uma cidade linda.
Rio is a beautiful city.

Os brasileiros são muito bem-humorados.
Brazilians are very good-humoured.
In addition, there are certain verbs and expressions that are associated more specifically with opinions, the most common of which are:

**achar**

The verb *achar* ‘to think’ is found in set phrases, such as:

- *acho que . . . / eu acho que . . .* ‘I think (that) . . .’
- *achamos que . . . / nós achamos que . . .* ‘we think (that) . . .’
- *acho que sim* ‘I think so’
- *acho que não* ‘I don’t think so’
- *eu não acho* ‘that’s not what I think’

Examples:

- Acho que deveríamos tentar.
  I think we ought to try.
- O Rafael chega hoje? – Acho que sim.
  Is Rafael arriving today? – I think so.
- Você acha que vai chover? – Acho que não.
  Do you think it’s going to rain? – I don’t think so.
- Acho que vai chover. – Eu não acho.
  I think it’s going to rain. – I don’t.

Note that the English ‘I don’t think . . .’ has two possible interpretations, which call for different translations in Portuguese. Compare the following sentences:

- **Eu acho que não vai chover.**
  I don’t think it’s going to rain. (*i.e. in my opinion, it will not rain*)
- **Eu não acho que vai chover.**
  I don’t think it’s going to rain. (*i.e. I don’t agree that it will rain*)

After *não acho que . . .* the subjunctive may be used when you want to disagree with a statement previously made by someone else:

- **O Brasil vai ganhar a Copa. – Eu não acho que o Brasil ganhe.**
  Brazil will win the World Cup. – I don’t think Brazil will win.
- **Acho que ela gostou do presente. – Eu não acho que ela tenha gostado.**
  I think she liked the present. – I don’t think she liked it.
- **Acho que ele estava com vergonha. – Eu não acho que ele estivesse com vergonha.**
  I think he was embarrassed. – I don’t think he was embarrassed.

When saying what you think of a person or thing, *achar* can be used with a noun or pronoun object followed by an adjective. This is equivalent to the use of ‘to find’ as in ‘I found the film boring’, ‘I find him unbearable’, but also translates ‘I think something/someone is . . .’:

- **Achei o filme chato. / Achei chato o filme.**
  I found the film boring or I thought the film was boring.
Expressing opinions

Acho ele insuportável. (spoken)
I find him unbearable or I think he’s unbearable.

Achamos o restaurante muito caro. / Achamos muito caro o restaurante.
We found the restaurant very expensive or We thought the restaurant was very expensive.

An infinitive can be used in this construction in place of a noun/pronoun:

Acho melhor trancar a porta.
I think it’s better to lock the door.

Achei fácil chegar na casa dele.
I found it easy to get to his house.

Notice that the word ‘it’ is not translated in the above example. The infinitive may also be a personal one with its own subject:

Acho estranho ele ter falado isso.
I find it strange that he said that or I think it’s strange he said that.

Achamos um absurdo eles serem tratados desse jeito.
We found it outrageous them being treated like that.

Finally, note that it is more common to use the preterite tense of achmar when giving your first impression of something (see 54.1.1):

Achei lindo o seu cabelo assim.
I think your hair looks lovely like that.

The verb pensar ‘to think’ is used when giving a reasoned opinion based on objective facts:

Penso que a economia vai continuar a crescer.
I think that the economy will continue to grow.

Pensamos que ele é a pessoa certa para este cargo.
We think that he is the right person for this post.

Note the difference between eu pensava que . . . ‘I used to think, I was thinking, I had been thinking, I thought (until I discovered otherwise) that’ and eu pensei que . . . ‘(in response to something that happened) I thought that . . . ’: eu pensava que is followed by the imperfect or conditional indicative; eu pensei que can be followed by these indicative tenses when there is a degree of certainty in what you are thinking, but is followed by the imperfect subjunctive when what you are thinking turns out to be mistaken:

Eu pensava que ele era um cara sério.
I used to think that he was a reliable guy.

Quando ele disse isso, pensei que ele era um cara sério.
When he said that, I thought he was a reliable guy.

Pensei que ele fosse um cara sério, mas acabei me decepcionando.
I thought he was a reliable guy, but I ended up being disappointed.
Quando vi as nuvens, pensei que ia chover.
When I saw the clouds, I thought it was going to rain.

Pensei que fosse chover hoje, mas não caiu uma gota.
I thought it was going to rain today, but there wasn’t a drop.

**acreditar, crer**

These verbs, which both mean ‘to believe’, can be used to give an opinion in sentences such as the following:

**Eu acredito que o chefe tinha razão.**
I believe/think that the boss was right.

**Acredo que sim.**
I believe so.

**Creio que não.**
I don’t believe so.

When these verbs are used in the negative, a subjunctive can be used in the que clause to imply that you do not believe what has been claimed:

**Não creio que isso seja um problema.**
I don’t believe this is a problem. (*contrary to what you have just said*)

**considerar**

The verb **considerar** ‘to consider, regard, feel’ is used in the same way as **achar**. Here are some examples:

**Considero o João meu melhor amigo.**
I consider João (to be) my best friend.

**Consideramos prudente diversificar as aplicações.**
We consider it wise to diversify your investments.

**Considero um absurdo ele ter sido absolvido.**
I consider it an outrage that he has been acquitted.

**Eu me considero uma pessoa compreensiva.**
I regard myself as being an understanding person.

**Considero que o governo precisa fazer mais na área da saúde.**
I feel that the government needs to do more in the area of healthcare.

The expression **não considero/consideramos que** is followed by the subjunctive:

**Não consideramos que isso constitua crime.**
We do not feel that this constitutes a crime.

**Other ways of expressing an opinion**

Here are some other phrases commonly used to express opinions:

**na minha opinião** ‘in my opinion’

**para mim, . . .** ‘for me, . . .’, ‘as far as I’m concerned’
a meu ver ‘in my view’
por mim ‘if it was me’, ‘if it was down to me’
se dependesse de mim ‘if it was up to me’.

Examples:

Na minha opinião, ele não passa de um vigarista.
In my opinion, he's nothing more than a conman.

Para mim, ele é um dos melhores jogadores de todos os tempos.
As far as I'm concerned, he's one of the best players of all time.

O presidente agiu corretamente, a meu ver.
The president acted correctly, in my view.

Por mim, essa lei teria sido abolida há muito tempo.
If it was down to me, this law would have been abolished a long time ago.

Se dependesse de mim, o cara estava na cadeia.
If it was up to me, the guy would be in prison.

Reporting on other people’s opinions

To report on other people’s opinions, the verbs achar, pensar, acreditar, crer and considerar can all be used with a third person subject. The verb dizer ‘to say’ or, more colloquially, falar, can also be used to report other people’s opinions:

Ele disse que gostou do filme.
He said he liked the film.

Ela achou o livro interessante.
She found the book interesting.

Other expressions used for reporting on the opinions of others

para ele/ela/eleles, . . . ‘as far as he is/she is/ they are concerned’
segundo . . . ‘according to . . .’
na opinião de . . . ‘in . . .’s opinion’
se dependesse de . . . ‘if it were up to . . .’.

Examples:

Para ele, o resultado foi marmelada.
As far as he is concerned, the result was a fix.

Segundo moradores do bairro, é perigoso sair à noite.
According to residents of the neighbourhood, it is dangerous to go out at night.

Na opinião do técnico, o jogador não merecia ser expulso.
In the coach’s opinion, the player did not deserve to be sent off.

Se dependesse dela, a boate seria interditada.
If it were up to her, the nightclub would be closed down.
Expressing agreement, disagreement and indifference

Expressing agreement

Set phrases

There are a number of set phrases used to express agreement. Below is a list of the most common:

- tá ‘OK, all right, right’
- está bem ‘all right’, ‘very well’
- está certo ‘OK, all right, right’
- tudo bem ‘fine’
- por mim, tudo bem ‘it’s fine by me’
- está bom ‘OK’, ‘fine’
- é ‘yes’
- pois é ‘that’s right’
- certo ‘right’
- exato ‘exactly’
- é isso ‘that’s it’
- é isso aí ‘that’s right’
- aí é que está ‘that’s (just) the point’
- claro/lógico ‘of course’
- com certeza ‘definitely’, ‘for sure’
- sem dúvida ‘without a doubt’.

In all those expressions that contain the verb form está, this is normally pronounced /ta/ in everyday conversation. The extremely common expression tá ‘OK’, which is originally derived from está, is never pronounced está and is therefore written as tá. The expression está bem is only used in more formal contexts and the es- part is usually pronounced. It can be thought of as the more formal equivalent of tá. The word é is used for ‘yes’ when simply endorsing what someone has said.
Examples:

Que tal pegar um cineminha? – Tá/está bom/tudo bem.
What about catching a movie? – OK/right/fine.

Eu te encontro às sete. – Tá/está bom/está certo.
I’ll meet you at seven. – OK/right/right.

Precisamos pintar a casa. – É, eu sei.
We must paint the house. – Yes, I know.

O governo não faz nada. – Pois é/é isso/é isso aí.
The government doesn’t do anything. – That’s right.

Deveriam melhorar o transporte coletivo. – Exato.
They should improve public transport. – Exactly.

Se ele não perguntar, nunca vai saber. – Claro/lógico.
If he doesn’t ask, he’ll never know. – Of course.

Isso vai dar a maior confusão. – Com certeza/sem dúvida.
This is going to cause real trouble – Definitely/without a doubt.

55.2 Expressing disagreement

concordar

The verb concordar ‘to agree’ is also used to express agreement:

(Eu) concordo. ‘I agree.’

Conordo com você. ‘I agree with you.’

Conordo plenamente. ‘I totally agree.’

ter razão

The expression ter razão means ‘to be right’ and is used in a number of phrases to express agreement:

(Você) tem razão. ‘You’re right.’

(Você) tem toda a razão. ‘You’re quite right.’

(Você) está coberto/a de razão. ‘You’re absolutely right.’

55.2 Expressing disagreement

The words and phrases most commonly used in the expression of disagreement are the following:

não ‘no’

não sei ‘I don’t know’

não sei bem ‘I’m not sure’

de jeito nenhum ‘certainly not’, ‘no way’

você acha? ‘do you think so?’

eu não acho ‘I don’t think so’, ‘that’s not what I think’

não é verdade ‘that’s not true’
não é isso ‘it’s not that’
(você) está errado/a ‘you’re wrong’
(você) está enganado/a ‘you’re mistaken’
não concordo (com você/íssao) ‘I don’t agree (with you/that)’
discordo totalmente (disso) ‘I disagree completely (with that)’
como assim? ‘what do you mean?’
imagina! ‘come off it!’
que nada! ‘come off it!’ ‘no way!’
bobagem! ‘rubbish!’

Examples:

Então você vai comigo? – Não sei. / Não sei bem.
So you’re coming with me? – I don’t know. / I’m not sure.

Vou levar o seu carro. – De jeito nenhum!
I’m going to take your car. – Certainly not!

Ela é um pouco estranha. – Você acha? / Eu não acho.
She’s a bit strange. – Do you think so? / I don’t think so.

Você está com ciúmes. – Não é isso. / Não é verdade.
You’re jealous. – It’s not that. / That’s not true.

É culpa sua. – Como assim?
It’s your fault. – What do you mean?

Ela está a fim de você. – Imagina!
She has a thing for you. – Come off it!

Ele falou que é ator. – Que nada! Ele trabalha na padaria.
He said he’s an actor. – No way! He works at the baker’s.

Dizem que o mundo vai acabar ano que vem. – Bobagem!
They say the world’s going to end next year. – Rubbish!

Asking about agreement and disagreement

To ask people whether they agree or disagree with something, we use expressions such as the following:

(você) concorda? ‘do you agree?’
(você) não concorda? ‘don’t you agree?’
(você) concorda comigo? ‘do you agree with me?*

você acha? ‘do you think so?’

você não acha? ‘don’t you think?’
está bom? ‘is that OK?’
tá? ‘OK?’
certo? ‘right?’
tudo bem? ‘is that OK?’
se você está de acordo ‘if you’re in agreement’, ‘if it’s OK with you’.

Examples:

Deviam reembolsar o dinheiro, não concorda comigo?
They should refund the money, don’t you agree with me?

Você não acha melhor voltar amanhã?
Don’t you think it would be better to come back tomorrow?

Te ligo mais tarde, está bom?/tá?/certo?/tudo bem?
I’ll call you later, all right?/OK?/right?/is that OK?

Se você está de acordo, podemos começar amanhã.
If it’s OK with you we can start tomorrow.

Expressing indifference
To express indifference, use expressions such as the following:

(para mim,) tanto faz ‘I don’t mind’, ‘it makes no difference (to me)’
por mim . . . ‘I don’t mind’, ‘it’s fine by me’
não importa ‘it doesn’t matter’
não me importa/não importa para mim ‘it doesn’t matter to me’
dá no mesmo ‘it comes to the same thing’
não interessa ‘it makes no difference’
não me interessa ‘I don’t care’
e daí? ‘so what?’
(não) estou nem aí (para . . .) ‘I couldn’t care less (about . . .)’
estou me lixando (para . . .) ‘I couldn’t care less (about . . .)’.

Examples:

Do you want water or juice? – I don’t mind.

Que tal jantarmos fora? – Por mim . . .
How about we go out for dinner? – I don’t mind.

Tem que escrever em letra de forma? – Não importa.
Do you have to write it in block capitals? – It doesn’t matter.

Não sei se pago com cheque ou com cartão. – Dá no mesmo.
I don’t know whether to pay by cheque or by card. – It comes to the same thing.

Mas eu não fiz por mal. – Não interessa.
But I didn’t mean any harm. – It makes no difference.

Ele está puto com você. – E daí?
He’s furious with you. – So what?

Não estou nem aí para o que eles acham.
I couldn’t care less what they think.
Expressing emotional attitudes
Expressing desires and preferences

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Expressing desires

To express desire, Portuguese normally uses the following verbs and expressions:

- **querer** ‘to want’
- **gostar de** ‘to like’
- **estar com/ter vontade de** ‘to feel like’
- **estar a fim de** ‘to feel like’, ‘to be in the mood for’
- **desejar** ‘to wish’.

**56.1 querer**

► 16.3.13 (p. 122)

The verb **querer** ‘to want’ is probably the most frequently used to express desires, either present or past. To say what you want now, you can use:

(i) The present tense, for example:

- **Quero um suco de laranja, por favor.**
  I want an orange juice, please.

- **Queremos conhecer Paris.**
  We want to visit Paris.

(ii) The future tense formed with **ir**, as an alternative to the present tense when the actual thing you want will be brought or will occur at some point in the future. This construction is often used when ordering in restaurants:

- **Você querer um misto quente.**
  I’ll have a toasted ham and cheese sandwich.

- **Você querer assistir aquele documentário hoje à noite.**
  I want to watch that documentary tonight.

(iii) **queria/queríamos**: this is equivalent to ‘would like’ or ‘wanted’ in that it is less direct and abrupt than **quero/queremos** and therefore used when you want to sound more polite:

- **Eu queria uma água sem gás, por favor.**
  I’d like a still mineral water, please.
EXPRESSING DESIRES AND PREFERENCES

When talking about the past, the imperfect of *querer* is used to talk about recurring desires or those that were unfulfilled, at least at the time referred to:

- Ele sempre queria sair com a gente.
  He was always wanting to go out with us.

- Nós queríamos conhecer Paris.
  We wanted to visit Paris. (i.e. that was our as yet unfulfilled intention at the time)

The preterite of *querer* refers to something that you have wanted to do or that you wanted to do and actually did:

- Ele sempre quis ser médico.
  He’s always wanted to be a doctor.

- Quisemos conhecer Paris.
  We wanted to visit Paris (and that’s why we went there).

The construction *queria ter* + past participle expresses an unfulfilled desire ‘would like to have’:

- Eu queria ter visto a cara dele.
  I would like to have seen his face.

- Queríamos ter ficado mais tempo.
  We would like to have stayed longer.

*gostar de*

The conditional of *gostar* is used with the preposition *de* and an infinitive to express a wish or a polite request:

- Eu gostaria de ter uma casa na praia.
  I’d like to have a house at the beach.

- Gostaríamos de agradecer a sua hospitalidade.
  We’d like to thank you for your hospitality.

- Eu gostaria de trocar esses dólares.
  I’d like to change these dollars.

- Gostaria de ter conhecido o seu pai.
  I would like to have met your father.

*estar com/ter vontade de* + infinitive

These expressions mean ‘to feel like’ and they can only be used before an infinitive. The first, *estar com*, is used to talk about a momentary desire, while *ter* is used to talk about a lasting or recurrent desire.
Expressing desires

Estou com vontade de tomar sorvete.
I feel like (eating) ice cream.

Ela estava com vontade de desistir.
She felt like giving up.

Às vezes tenho vontade de mudar de vida.
Sometimes I feel like changing everything about my life.

Não tenho vontade de passar por aquilo tudo de novo.
I don’t feel like going through all that again.

The verb ficar can be used instead of estar com/ter to signal a change from not wanting to wanting:

Quando tomo café, fico com vontade de fumar.
When I drink coffee I feel like smoking.

Depois da viagem à Argentina, fiquei com vontade de conhecer outros países.
After the trip to Argentina, I felt I wanted to visit other countries.

The expression dar vontade de is used either with or without an explicit subject with the meaning of ‘make (me) want to’. It may be preceded by the unstressed pronouns me and te in colloquial speech and the third person pronoun lhe in more formal contexts, but it is also used without a pronoun object:

Quando tomo café, me dá vontade de fumar.
When I drink coffee, I feel like smoking.

O frio dá vontade de ficar em casa.
The cold makes you want to stay at home.

Não te dá vontade de gritar?
Doesn’t it make you want to scream?

Ele senta no jardim quando lhe dá vontade.
He sits in garden when he feels like it.

estar a fim de + infinitive/noun/pronoun

The expression estar a fim de ‘to feel like, be in the mood for/to’ is more colloquial than estar com vontade, and refers to mood rather than desire. It is usually followed by an infinitive:

Não estou a fim de trabalhar hoje.
I don’t feel like working today. / I’m not in the mood for work today.

Estou a fim de dançar.
I feel like dancing. / I’m in the mood for dancing.

Unlike estar com/ter vontade de, estar a fim de can be followed by a noun or pronoun:

Estou a fim de novas experiências.
I’m in the mood for new experiences.

Não estou muito a fim de comida japonesa.
I’m not really feeling like Japanese food.
Expressing Desires and Preferences

Note that estar a fim de is used is colloquial speech to refer to a person you feel attracted to, ‘to have a thing for, fancy’:

Ele está a fim da Leticia.
He’s got a thing for Leticia.

desejar

The verb desejar ‘to wish’ is a more formal synonym of querer. It can also be used in the sense of ‘would like to’ but is not normally used to express one’s own wishes. It is most commonly used to address customers and strangers:

Podemos entregar em casa se desejar.
We can deliver it to your home if you wish.

Quem deseja falar com ele?
Who shall I tell him is calling? (on the phone)

Enquiring about desires

The same verbs as above can be used to enquire about desires:

Informal:

O que é que você quer fazer?
What do you want to do?

Você gostaria de morar no interior?
Would you like to live in the country?

O que é que você está com vontade de comer?
What do you feel like eating?

Você está a fim de sair?
Do you feel like going out?

Formal:

O senhor deseja aguardar?
Do you wish to hold? (on the phone)

O que vocês desejam tomar?
What would you like to drink?

Gostaria de deixar recado?
Would you like to leave a message?

Expressing preferences and enquiring about preferences

preferir

The verb most used for expressing preferences, both in statements and in questions, is preferir ‘to prefer’. Remember that the second e of preferir changes to i when there is an o or an a in the next syllable, e.g. prefiro ‘I prefer’. Like querer, it can also be followed by an infinitive:
Expressing preferences and enquiring about preferences

Você prefere chá ou café?
Do you prefer tea or coffee?

Prefiro café.
I prefer coffee.

O que é que você prefere fazer?
What do you prefer to do?

Prefiro sair para tomar um drinque.
I prefer to go out for a drink.

Qual você prefere?
Which one do you prefer?

Como prefere a carne?
How do you prefer your steak?

Prefiro malpassada.
I prefer it rare.

Note also the use of preferir with the preposition a:

Prefiro o cinema ao teatro.
I prefer the cinema to the theatre.

Prefiro cerveja a vinho.
I prefer beer to wine.

Prefiro o vermelho ao azul.
I prefer the red (one) to the blue.

The verb preferir can be softened by using the conditional or imperfect tense, as in English ‘I would prefer . . .’:

Eu preferiria/preferia ir sozinho.
I’d prefer to go on my own.

Você preferia sentar lá fora?
Would you prefer to sit outside?

gostar mais de

The construction gostar mais ‘to like more/better’, ‘to like most/best’ is an alternative way to express a preference. The noun, pronoun or infinitive that follows is preceded by the preposition de:

De qual você gosta mais?
Which one do you like better/best?

Gosto mais da verde.
I like the green one more/most.

Gosto mais de surfar na Internet do que assistir TV.
I like surfing the Internet more than watching TV.
Expressing desires and preferences involving others

**querer/preferir que + subjunctive**

Desires and preferences involving others, as in ‘I want you to come with me’ and ‘I’d rather you didn’t tell anyone’, are expressed in Portuguese with a construction involving a subjunctive verb in a *que* clause. Look at the following examples:

- **Quero que você me acompanhe.**
  I want you to come with me.

- **Eu queria que você me ajudasse.**
  I wanted you to help me.

- **Prefiro que você não conte para ninguém.**
  I’d rather you didn’t tell anyone.

- **Prefiro que você fale com ele.**
  I prefer you to talk to him.

- **Eu preferiria/preferia que você falasse com ele.**
  I’d prefer you to talk to him.

**gostaria que + subjunctive; desejar que + subjunctive**

The words *gostaria* ‘would like’ and *desejar* ‘to wish, would like’ can be followed by the same construction:

- **Gostaria que você me falasse a verdade.**
  I would like you to tell me the truth.

- **O senhor deseja que feche a janela?**
  Would you like me to close the window, sir?
Expressing likes and dislikes

How to say you like or dislike someone or something

The verb *gostar* ‘to like’ is the one most commonly associated with likes and dislikes. It can occur on its own when it is clear from the context who or what you are talking about; otherwise it is followed by the preposition *de* and then a noun, a pronoun or an infinitive:

Vocês gostam de frutos do mar? – Gosto muito.
Do you like seafood? – Yes, I do, very much.

One peculiarity of *gostar*, as well as other verbs of liking and disliking, is that it is normally used in the preterite tense when you are giving your first impression of something, for example when trying some food, or commenting on a friend’s appearance. The present tense is used more to refer to general likes and dislikes or when you have had some time to form an opinion. Look at these examples:

A sopa está boa? – Eu gostei.
Is the soup good? – I like it.

Que tal essa camiseta azul? – Não gosto.
What about this blue T-shirt? – I don’t like it.

Ele é um banana. – ‘Banana’, gostei!
He’s a wimp. – ‘Wimp’, I like it!

gostar *do* + noun/pronoun

The expression *gostar de* can be followed by a noun or pronoun to say what or who you like:

Gosto muito da Silvia.
I really like Silvia.

Gostamos deles.
We like them.

Não gosto de repolho.
I don’t like cabbage.

Remember that the preterite tense is used to express first impressions:

Gostei do seu novo visual.
I like your new look.

Não gostei desse sorvete.
I don’t like this ice cream.
EXPRESSING LIKES AND DISLIKES

Note that ‘it/them’ is not usually translated when referring to things:

Você come sushi? – Ai, eu não gosto.
Do you eat sushi? – Oh no, I don’t like it.

Esses copos são lindos. – É, eu também gostei muito.
These glasses are beautiful. – Yes, I really like them, too.

gostar de + infinitive

The expression gostar de can also be used with an infinitive to say that you like or liked doing something:

Eu gosto de assistir televisão.
I like watching television.

Não gostamos de dormir com a janela fechada.
We don’t like sleeping with the window closed.

Enquiring about likes and dislikes

The verb gostar can also be used in questions to ask others about their likes and dislikes:

Você gosta de tomar banho de mar?
Do you like going in the sea?

Vocês gostam de peixe?
Do you like fish?

Você não gosta do irmão dela?
Don’t you like her brother?

The preterite tense is used when asking about a person’s first impression:

Você gostou do meu relógio?
Do you like my watch?

Que tal o bolo? Gostaram?
How’s the cake? Do you like it?

É a sua primeira vez no Brasil. E aí, gostou?
It’s your first time in Brazil. So, do you like it?

Often, gostar is combined with question words:

De qual você gostou?
Which one do you like? / Which one did you like?

O que é que vocês gostam de fazer nos fins de semana?
What do you like doing at weekends?

Por que você não gostou?
Why didn’t you like it? / Why don’t you like it?
Other ways of expressing likes and dislikes

57.3.1 adorar, amar

The verb *adorar* ‘to love, like very much’ is used to express a strong liking. It is followed directly by a noun, pronoun or infinitive:

- Eu adoro dançar.
  I love dancing.
- Adoro chocolate.
  I love chocolate.
- Ela te adora.
  She adores you.
- O Jaime adora o mar.
  Jaime loves the sea.

Like *gostar*, *adorar* is usually used in the preterite to convey a first impression:

- Adorei o seu sapato!
  I love your shoes!
- Essa cor ficou ótima na parede. Adorei.
  That colour looks great on the wall. I love it.

Occasionally, *amar* ‘to love’ is used in colloquial speech for very emphatic expressions of liking:

- Eu amo aquele filme.
  I just love that movie.
- Amei o seu apartamento!
  I just love your apartment!

57.3.2 não gostar, desgostar, odiar, detestar

The idea of disliking is usually expressed with the negative of *gostar*:

- Não gosto de futebol.
  I dislike football.
- Não gosto de atrasar.
  I dislike being late.

The verb *desgostar* ‘to dislike’ is rarely used and, when it is, it is normally combined with *não*, as in the following example:

- Eu não desgosto dele, mas não temos afinidade.
  I don’t dislike him, but we have nothing in common.

Stronger dislike may be expressed with *odiar* and *detestar*, both meaning ‘to hate’. Both verbs can be followed by a noun, pronoun or infinitive. Remember that the *i* of *odiar* becomes *ei* in those forms that are stressed on the stem, e.g. *eu odeio* ‘I hate’, *ele odeia* ‘he hates’, *elas odeiam* ‘they hate’, but *nós odiamos* ‘we hate’:

- Odeio levantar cedo.
  I hate getting up early.
Detesto vinho doce.
I hate sweet wine.

Por que é que você me odeia tanto?
Why do you hate me so much?

Like gostar and the other verbs of liking and disliking, these verbs are used in the preterite tense to convey a first impression:

O que é que você acha dessa cor? – Odiei.
What do you think of this colour? – I hate it.

57.3.3 Verbs of liking and disliking followed by que

Verbs such as gostar, adorar, odiar and detestar can also be followed by a que clause with a verb in the subjunctive to talk about facts that you like or dislike:

Eu gosto que ele me traga presentes.
I like him bringing me presents. / I like the fact that he brings me presents.

Ela não gostava que os filhos brincassem na rua.
She didn’t like her children playing in the street.

Adoro que me papariquem.
I love people pampering me.

Eu ia detestar que meu marido me tratasse assim.
I would hate my husband to treat me like that.

57.3.4 uma delícia, delicioso, gostoso

The expression uma delícia and the adjective delicioso can be used to refer to food, like ‘delicious’ in English, but also to any pleasant sensation. Note that both are used with ser when making a general statement and with estar when commenting on a particular situation:

As sobremesas daquele restaurante são uma delícia.
The desserts in that restaurant are delicious.

Esse bolo está uma delícia.
This cake is delicious.

Acho uma delícia ficar deitado à beira da piscina.
I think it’s lovely to lie beside the pool.

Você precisa dar um mergulho. A água está deliciosa hoje.
You should go for a dip. The water’s lovely today.

É delicioso no inverno sentar ao pé da lareira.
It’s lovely in winter to sit by the fire.

The word gostoso can be used in the same way:

Essa sopa está muito gostosa.
This soup is very tasty.

É gostoso sentar no jardim à noite.
It’s nice to sit in the garden in the evening.
Miscellaneous expressions

A range of other colloquial expressions can be used to express likes and dislikes. The following are among the most common:

- **É ótimo/maravilhoso!** ‘It’s great/wonderful!’
- **É legal.** ‘It’s nice.’
- **É superlegal!** ‘It’s really nice!’
- **É maneiro.** ‘It’s cool.’
- **É um luxo!** ‘It’s great!’
- **Irado!** ‘Awesome!’ (*slang used by young people*)
- **É (muito) agradável/desagradável.** ‘It’s (very) pleasant/unpleasant.’
- **É horrível.** ‘It’s horrible.’ (*talking about an object or in a general statement*)
- **Está horrível.** ‘It’s horrible.’ (*talking about the food you are eating, the current weather, etc.*)
- **Não aguento . . .** ‘I can’t bear/stand . . .’
- **Ele é simpático/legal.** ‘He’s friendly/nice.’
- **Ela é insuportável.** ‘She’s unbearable.’
Expressing surprise

Expressing surprise with regard to someone or something

58.1 Set expressions

Ah, é? ‘Oh yes?’
Verdade? ‘Really?’
Jura? ‘Really?’
Sério? ‘Really?’
Fala sério! ‘You’ve got to be kidding!’
Mentira! ‘No!’ ‘You’re kidding!’
Que bom! ‘That’s great!’
É estranho isso. ‘It’s strange, that.’
Não me diga! ‘You don’t say!’
Gente! ‘Heavens!’
Nossa! ‘Gosh!’
Não pode ser! ‘That’s impossible!’
Que coisa! ‘What a thing to happen!’
Que horror! ‘How awful!’
Não acredito! ‘I don’t believe it!’
Meu Deus! ‘My goodness!’ ‘My God!’
Meu Deus do céu! ‘My God!’

58.2 Expressing surprise with regard to someone or something

ser estranho/incrível + personal infinitive/subjunctive

These constructions, meaning ‘it’s strange/incredible that . . .’ can be used to express surprise at a fact. In Portuguese there are two possible constructions: the first involves the
Expressing surprise with regard to someone or something

personal infinitive and is preferred in the spoken language; the second, involving a que + subjunctive clause, has a more formal ring to it:

É estranho ele não ter chegado ainda.
It’s strange he hasn’t got here yet.

É incrível eles pensarem assim.
It’s incredible that they think like that.

Era estranho ela estar lá sem o marido.
It was strange her being there without her husband.

É estranho que o presidente não tenha sido informado.
It is strange that the president was not informed.

É incrível que um médico formado não soubesse disso.
It’s amazing that a trained doctor did not know that.

In the last example, the verb soubesse is imperfect subjunctive referring to an ongoing state of affairs in the past even though the main verb is present tense, which would normally be followed by a present subjunctive. Compare this with the previous example, where a perfect subjunctive is used to refer to a single event in the past.
Expressing satisfaction and dissatisfaction

Expressing satisfaction

There are a number of set phrases used to express satisfaction:

- **Isso!** ‘That’s it!’, ‘That’s right!’
- **Ótimo!** ‘Great!’
- **É ótimo/a.** ‘It’s great.’
- **Está ótimo.** ‘That’s great.’
- **Perfeito!** ‘Perfect!’
- **Maravilha!** ‘Fantastic!’
- **Beleza!** ‘Brilliant!’
- **Excelente!** ‘Excellent!’
- **Valeu!** ‘Good one!’, ‘Nice one!’
- **Está bom.** ‘That’s fine.’, ‘That’s enough.’
- **Está bom assim.** ‘That’s fine like that.’, ‘That’s enough.’
- **Chega.** ‘That’s enough.’
- **Gostei.** ‘I like it/them.’
- **Acho ótimo.** ‘I think it’s fine.’
- **Estou (muito) satisfeito/a com . . .** ‘I’m (very) pleased with . . .’
- **Estou/fiquei contente.** ‘I’m happy, pleased.’

**Isso!** is used, for example, when showing someone how to do something, or when the other person is trying to work out exactly what it is you want:

- **Agora clica em ‘Enviar’. Isso!**
  Now click on ‘Send’. That’s it!
- **– Quero uma passagem para Tera . . . Teras . . .**
- **– Teresópolis?**
- **– Isso!**
  ‘I’d like a ticket to Tera . . . Teras . . .’
  ‘Teresópolis?’
  ‘That’s it!’
**59.3**

**Enquiring about satisfaction or dissatisfaction**

The following expressions are commonly used to enquire about satisfaction or dissatisfaction:

- **Está tudo bem?** ‘Is everything OK?’
- **Está bom assim?** ‘Is it all right like that?’
Tudo bem aí? ‘Everything OK?’
O que é que você acha? ‘What do you think?’
Que tal . . . ? ‘How is . . . ?’
Está satisfeito/a (agora)? ‘Are you satisfied (now)?’
É isso que você quer? ‘Is that what you want?’
Era isso que você queria? ‘Was that what you wanted?’
Foi isso que você pediu? ‘Was this/that what you ordered/asked for?’

In the question ‘What do you think?’, the preterite tense is often used when asking for a person’s first impression of something:

Comprei esse vestido hoje. O que é que você achou?
I bought this dress today. What do you think of it?

Que tal . . . ? followed by a noun can be used to ask how someone is finding something:

Que tal o seu hotel?
What’s your hotel like? / How’s your hotel?

Que tal a pizza?
How’s the pizza?
60

Expressing hope

60.1

Saying what one hopes or others hope to do

To express this idea, Portuguese uses the verb esperar ‘to hope’ followed by an infinitive:

- Espero estudar Direito.
  I hope to study law.

- O Sérgio espera passar na prova.
  Sergio hopes to pass the test.

- Esperamos receber o dinheiro amanhã.
  We hope to receive the money tomorrow.

60.2

Expressing hope with regard to others

When the expression of hope involves a subject other than that of the main verb, as in ‘We hope you enjoy yourselves’, the following constructions are used:

60.2.1

esperar que + subjunctive

This is by far the most frequent way of expressing hope involving others and is used in all registers. When the hope expressed refers to the present or future, the verb in the que clause must be in the present subjunctive:

- Espero que não chova.
  I hope it doesn’t rain.

- Esperamos que vocês se divirtam.
  We hope you enjoy yourselves.

- Meus pais esperam que eu estude Medicina.
  My parents hope I will study medicine.

Hope with regard to something in the past is expressed with the present tense of esperar and, in formal grammar, with the perfect subjunctive in the que clause. In colloquial speech, the preterite indicative is usually used instead:

- Espero que você tenha se divertido. (formal)
  I hope you enjoyed yourself.

- Espero que você se divertiu. (colloquial)

- Espero que eles tenham conseguido achar o lugar. (formal)
  I hope they managed to find the place.

- Espero que eles conseguiram achar o lugar. (colloquial)
To say what you or others hoped or were hoping would happen, use esperar in the imperfect indicative and the verb in the que clause in the imperfect subjunctive:

- Eu esperava que você chegasse mais cedo.
  I was hoping you’d arrive earlier.
- Ela esperava que a convidassem também.
  She hoped they’d invite her too.
- Esperávamos que eles tivessem esquecido.
  We were hoping they had forgotten.

Notice the use of the pluperfect subjunctive in the last example to express something you hoped had happened before the time referred to.

**tomara que + subjunctive**

The expression tomara que ‘let’s hope (that)’ may be used to express hope about the present, the future or the past.

- Tomara que não chova.
  Let’s hope it doesn’t rain.
- Tomara que ela goste.
  Let’s hope she likes it.
- Tomara que eles tenham chegado sãos e salvos.
  Let’s hope they got there safe and sound.

When expressing hope about the past, as in the last example, the preterite indicative is very often used in colloquial speech:

- Tomara que eles chegaram sãos e salvos. (colloquial)

**Expressing hope in response to a question or statement**

To express hope in response to a question or statement from someone else, you can use the following expressions:

- Espero que sim. ‘I hope so.’
- Espero que não. ‘I hope not.’
- Espero. ‘I hope so.’
- Tomara! ‘Let’s hope so!’

Examples:

- Será que vamos poder ir também? – Espero que sim.
  I wonder if we’ll be able to go too? – I hope so.
- Acho que ele esqueceu. – Espero que não.
  I think he’s forgotten. – I hope not.
Expressing hope in response to a question or statement

Será que você tirou a nota que precisava? – Espero.
Do you think you got the mark you needed? – I hope so.

Tenho certeza que você vai conseguir. – Tomara (que sim)!
I’m sure you’ll succeed. – Let’s hope so!

Será que tem prova hoje? – Tomara que não.
I wonder if we’re having a test today? – Let’s hope not.
Expressing sympathy

This chapter explains how to tell someone that you are sorry or glad about something that has happened to them, e.g. the loss of a job or a promotion.

### Saying one is sorry about something

#### Set phrases

- **Que pena!** ‘What a pity!’
- **É uma pena.** ‘It’s a pity.’
- **Sinto muito.** ‘I’m sorry (to hear that).’
- **É lamentável.** ‘It’s a terrible shame.’
- **Lamento muito/profundamente.** ‘I am deeply saddened.’
- **Que horror!** ‘How awful!’
- **Que tristeza!** ‘How sad!’
- **Coitado/a!** ‘Poor thing!’
- **Coitado/a de você!** ‘Poor you!’
- **Coitada da Júlia! / Coitada da sua mãe!** ‘Poor Julia!’ / ‘Your poor mother!’
- **Coitadinho/a!** ‘Poor little thing!’

**Sinto muito** can be used as a response to any kind of sad news, including bereavement. **Lamento muito/profundamente** are more formal expressions of regret.

**Coitado/a** has to agree in gender (masculine or feminine) and number (singular or plural) with the person or persons referred to. On its own, it can refer to the person you are talking to or the person you are talking about, but you can specify by appending a noun or pronoun with the preposition *de*, as shown above. The diminutive **coitadinho/a** is used in response to less serious situations or when referring to a child or pet, for example.

For condolences, use the set phrases:

- **Meus pêsames.** ‘My condolences.’
- **Meus sentimentos (a você e à sua família).** ‘My sympathies (to you and your family).’

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The expressions *que pena* ‘what a pity’ and *é uma pena* ‘it’s a pity’ can be followed by an infinitive:

*Que pena derrubar aquele prédio lindo!*  
What a pity to pull down that lovely building!

*É uma pena jogar fora toda essa comida.*  
It’s a pity to throw all this food away.

The infinitive may also be personal, i.e. have its own subject:

*Que pena a Regina não ter vindo!*  
What a pity Regina didn’t come!

*É uma pena ele ser tão teimoso.*  
It’s pity he’s so stubborn.

Alternatively, both expressions can be followed by a *que* clause. In formal grammar, particularly in the written language, the *que* clause must contain a verb in the subjunctive, but in colloquial speech the indicative is normally used instead:

*Que pena que a Regina não tenha vindo/não veio!*  
What a pity Regina didn’t come!

*É uma pena que ele seja/é tão teimoso.*  
It’s a pity he’s so stubborn.

When followed by a *que* clause, *é uma pena* is often shortened to just *pena que*:

*Pena que eles não tenham conseguido/não conseguiram.*  
Pity they didn’t succeed.

The verb *sentir* ‘to be sorry’ can be followed by the preposition *por* and a noun phrase:

*Sinto muito pela morte do seu pai.*  
I’m so sorry about the death of your father.

*Sentimos muito pelo acidente que você sofreu.*  
We’re very sorry about your accident.

*Sinto muito pelo que aconteceu com o seu filho.*  
I’m so sorry about what happened to your son.

Note that, when talking about someone’s death, the preterite of *sentir* can be used without *por* to mean ‘was/were sorry to hear about’:

*Senti muito a morte da sua tia.*  
I was sorry to hear about the death of your aunt.
sinto/sentimos muito + personal infinitive; sinto/sentimos muito + que + subjunctive

The verb sentir can also be followed by a personal infinitive or a que clause with a subjunctive verb to express sympathy about a fact. The subjunctive construction sounds more formal, with the present subjunctive used to refer to the present or future and the perfect subjunctive to refer to a past event:

- Sinto muito você estar doente.
- Sinto muito que você esteja doente.
  I’m very sorry (to hear) that you are ill.

- Sentimos muito você ter perdido o emprego.
- Sentimos muito que você tenha perdido o emprego.
  We’re very sorry (to hear) that you’ve lost your job.

lamentar + noun phrase/infinitive/personal infinitive; lamentar + que + subjunctive

The verb lamentar ‘to regret’ is used in the same grammatical constructions as sentir as an expression of concern, but it is more formal and dispassionate than sentir and tends to be used to express consternation rather than direct sympathy. Consider these examples:

- Lamentamos muito seu descontentamento.
  We are very sorry to hear that you are not satisfied.
- Lamento saber sobre o ocorrido.
  I am sorry to hear about what happened.
- Lamentamos a chuva ter estragado a festa.
  Lamentamos que a chuva tenha estragado a festa.
  We regret that the rain spoilt the celebrations.

Saying one is glad about something

Set phrases

- Que bom! ‘I’m so glad!’ ‘That’s good!’
- Que ótimo! ‘That’s great!’
- Que maravilha! ‘That’s fantastic!’
- Ainda bem! ‘Just as well!’
- Fico contente que . . . ‘I’m glad . . .’, ‘I’m pleased . . .’
- Que alívio! ‘What a relief!’
- É um alívio (que . . .) ‘It’s a relief (that . . .).’

All these expressions can be followed by a que clause. Que bom!, Que ótimo! and Que maravilha! may be followed by a subjunctive in the que clause, but the indicative is much more common in everyday speech. Fico contente que . . . and É um alívio que . . . are usually followed by the subjunctive, although the indicative is also heard in colloquial speech. The other expressions are followed by the indicative:

- Que bom que você veio!/que você tenha vindo!
  I’m so glad you came.
Que ótimo que você foi promovido!/que você tenha sido promovido!
It’s great that you’ve been promoted!

Que maravilha que vocês vão casar!/que vocês casem!
It’s fantastic that you’re getting married!

Ainda bem que está tudo bem.
Just as well that everything is OK.

Fico contente que você tenha gostado/que você gostou.
I’m glad you liked/enjoyed it.

Que alívio que eles estão bem!
What a relief that they’re OK!

É um alívio que ninguém tenha ficado ferido/que ninguém ficou ferido.
It’s a relief that no one was injured.

Que bom/ótimo/maravilha/alívio! and É um alívio can also be followed by an infinitive:

Que bom você estar aqui!
I’m so glad you’re here!

Que maravilha ganhar um prêmio desses!
How fantastic to win a prize like that!

É um alívio ele ter voltado para casa.
It’s a relief that he’s come home.
Apologizing and expressing forgiveness

62

62.1

Apologizing

62.1.1

Set phrases

Desculpa. ‘Sorry.’
Desculpe. ‘Sorry.’ (formal)
Desculpem. ‘Sorry.’ (to more than one person)
Desculpa/desculpe o atraso. ‘Sorry I’m late.’
Desculpe a demora. ‘Sorry to keep you waiting.’ ‘Sorry for the delay.’
Desculpa qualquer coisa. ‘Sorry if I/we put you to any trouble.’
Perdão. ‘Sorry.’
Sinto muito. ‘I’m very sorry.’
Foi mau. ‘Sorry.’, ‘My bad.’ (colloquial)
Foi sem querer. ‘I didn’t mean to.’ ‘It was an accident.’
Não fiz/foi por mal. ‘I didn’t mean any harm.’
Não (me) leve a mal. ‘Don’t take it the wrong way.’ ‘Don’t take it to heart.’

Desculpa/e/em and Perdão can be used as polite ways of apologizing to strangers, e.g. for bumping into someone. They can also be used for more serious apologies to people you know. Sinto muito is used for less spontaneous apologies, usually for something quite serious. Foi mau is a more colloquial expression of apology.

Desculpa qualquer coisa is a polite formula, usually said when leaving someone’s house after a visit, or on parting when you think that the other person may have been inconvenienced or embarrassed in some way.

► Chapter 21 (p. 150)
Excuse/reason for the apology

The expressions above are often followed, or sometimes preceded, by a sentence giving an excuse or reason for the apology:

Desculpa, sentei no seu lugar.
Sorry, I sat in your place.

Não aceitamos cartão, senhor. Desculpe.
We don’t take credit cards, sir. Sorry.

Ih, pisei no seu pé. Foi mau, cara.
Oops, I stepped on your toe. Sorry about that, mate/buddy.

Sinto muito, mas não vou poder ir com você.
I’m really sorry, but I won’t be able to go with you.

Desculpa / Desculpe / Desculpem + infinitive

► Chapter 21 (p. 150)

The various set forms of desculpar can be followed by an infinitive in sentences such as ‘Sorry to bother you’, ‘Sorry I woke you up’. This infinitive can have its own subject when it is necessary to specify:

Desculpe incomodar, mas posso pedir uma informação?
Sorry to bother you, but can I ask you something?

Desculpa eu ter te acordado.
Sorry I woke you up.

Desculpem nós termos atrasado tanto.
Sorry we are so late.

Sinto muito + infinitive

► 16.1.1 (p. 116)

Sinto muito is also followed by an infinitive:

Sinto muito não poder te emprestar o dinheiro.
I’m really sorry I can’t lend you the money.

Sentimos muito não estar aí com você.
We’re sorry for not being there with you.

It can be a perfect infinitive when referring to something in the past:

Sinto muito não ter te falado antes.
I’m really sorry I didn’t tell you before.

Formal apologies

A more formal way of apologizing is to use the expression pedir desculpas por . . . ‘to apologize for . . .’:

Peço desculpas pelo meu comportamento.
I apologize for my behaviour.
Pedimos desculpas pelo transtorno.
We apologize for the inconvenience.

Pedimos-lhes as mais sinceras desculpas.
Please accept our sincerest apologies.

In formal writing, such as business correspondence, the verb lamentar may be used instead of sentir:

Lamentamos informar que, por motivos que fogem ao nosso controle, . . .
We regret to inform you that, for reasons beyond our control, . . .

Expressing forgiveness

To grant forgiveness, the following set expressions may be used:

Tudo bem. ‘It’s fine.’ ‘It’s all right.’

Não foi nada. ‘It was nothing.’

Nada. ‘It’s OK.’

Está bom. ‘It’s OK.’

Não importa. ‘It doesn’t matter.’

Não tem importância. ‘It doesn’t matter.’

Não tem problema. / Sem problema. ‘No problem.’

Não faz mal. ‘Never mind.’

Imagina. ‘Don’t be silly.’
Expressing fear or worry

Common expressions of fear

The idea of being or getting frightened or worried is normally expressed in Portuguese using the following words and phrases:

- *estar com medo/ter medo* ‘to be scared/afraid/frightened’
- *ficar com medo* ‘to get scared/afraid/frightened’
- *dar medo* ‘to be scary/frightening’
- *estar assustado* ‘to be frightened’
- *ficar assustado/assustar-se* ‘to get frightened’
- *estar preocupado* ‘to be worried’
- *ficar preocupado* ‘to get worried’
- *preocupar-se (com . . .)* ‘to worry (about . . .)’.

The difference between *estar com medo* and *ter medo* is that the first expresses a momentary fear while the second expresses a general fear. Both may be followed by the preposition *de* and a noun, pronoun or infinitive referring to the thing feared:

- *Estou com medo de pular na água.*
  I’m scared to jump into the water.

- *Tenho medo de cachorro.*
  I’m afraid of dogs.

- *Você tem medo de avião?*
  Are you afraid of flying?

- *Você não está com medo?*
  Aren’t you frightened?

- *Não tenho medo de morrer.*
  I’m not afraid of dying.

These expressions can also be followed by a personal infinitive:

- *Estou com muito medo de ele descobrir a verdade.*
  I’m very afraid of him finding out the truth.
Você não tem medo de os seus filhos se envolverem com drogas?
Aren’t you afraid of your children getting into drugs?

Estou com medo de eles terem se perdido.
I’m afraid that they may have got lost.

ficar com medo (de + noun/pronoun/infinitive)
The phrase ficar com medo highlights the transition from not being scared to being scared, e.g. in response to something that happens. When talking about the present, it is equivalent to ‘to get scared/afraid/frightened’ in English, but when talking about the past or the future, it is often equivalent to ‘to be scared/afraid/frightened’:

Quando escurece, fico com medo.
When it gets dark I get scared.

Depois de ser assaltado, ele ficou com medo de sair de casa.
After being mugged, he was afraid to go out of the house.

Você acha que vai ficar com medo?
Do you think you’ll be frightened?

estar com/ficar com/ter medo (de) que + subjunctive
These constructions can be followed by a que clause meaning ‘to be scared/afraid/frightened that . . .’. The verb in the que clause has to be in the subjunctive: the present subjunctive referring to present or future time and the imperfect subjunctive when the whole sentence is set in the past:

Eles estavam com medo de que os ladrões voltassem.
They were afraid the thieves would come back.

Temos medo que os nossos filhos sufram preconceito.
We are afraid that our children may suffer prejudice.

This is a slightly more formal alternative to the personal infinitive construction explained in 63.1.1.

dar medo (de + noun/pronoun/infinitive)
The expression dar medo ‘to be scary/frightening’ can have a specific or non-specific subject:

Aquele cachorro dá medo.
That dog is frightening.

Dá medo olhar para baixo.
It’s scary to look down.

O avião balançou muito? – É, deu medo.
Was the flight very bumpy? – Yes, it was scary.

The pronouns me and te may be used to specify who is frightened:

Não te deu medo?
Weren’t you scared? / Didn’t it scare you?
Só de pensar nisso me dá medo.
It frightens me just to think about it.

The expression *dar medo de* + noun/pronoun/infinitive means ‘to make one scared of/to do’, ‘to put one off (doing)’:

**Esse tipo de notícia dá medo de viajar.**
That type of news story puts you off travelling.

**Aquela experiência me deu medo de cachorro.**
That experience made me frightened of dogs.

**63.1.5 estar assustado; ficar assustado/assustar-se**

The word *assustado* means ‘frightened’ in the sense of ‘startled’, ‘shaken’ ‘alarmed’, a more physical feeling of fear:

**Os moradores do bairro estão assustados com o aumento da criminalidade.**
Residents of the neighbourhood are alarmed at the increase in crime.

**Fiquei assustado quando ouvi o grito.**
I got a fright when I heard the scream.

**Eu me assuste quando eu vi o quanto ele envelheceu.**
I got a fright when I saw how much he had aged.

The expression *ficar assustado* is slightly more informal than *assustar-se*, but the meaning is the same.

**63.1.6 estar/ficar preocupado**

The phrases *estar/ficar preocupado* ‘to be/get worried’ can be followed by the preposition *com*:

**Estou preocupado com o Marcelo.**
I’m worried about Marcelo.

**Minha mãe fica preocupada se eu não ligar.**
My mum gets worried if I don’t call.

**Ele estava muito preocupado.**
He was very worried.

**63.1.7 preocupar-se**

The expression *preocupar-se* ‘to be worried, to worry’ can also be followed by the preposition *com*:

**Não se/te preocupe.**
Don’t worry.

**Você não precisava se preocupar.**
You needn’t have worried.

**Não se preocupem comigo.**
Don’t worry about me.
Other ways of expressing fear

The following sentences illustrate other common expressions used to convey the idea of fear:

O meu medo é que eles se percam.
What I’m afraid of is that they’ll get lost. / My fear is that . . .

A nossa preocupação é que ele dê para trás.
What we’re worried about is that he’ll back out. / Our worry is that . . .

Dizem que a sucuri consegue engolir uma pessoa. – Que medo!
They say that anacondas can swallow people. – Scary!

Eu estava morrendo de medo.
I was really scared.

Morro de medo de aranha.
I’m petrified of spiders.

Levei/tomei um susto!
I got such a fright!

Que susto!
That/You made me jump! / That/you gave me such a fright!

Você me deu um susto!
You frightened the life out of me!

Tenho pavor de altura.
I’m terrified of heights.

Eles ficaram apavorados.
They were terrified.
Expressing gratitude

Expressing gratitude

Set phrases

The following are the words and phrases most commonly used to express gratitude in Portuguese:

Obrigado/a. ‘Thank you.’ ‘Thanks.’

Muito obrigado/a. ‘Thank you very much.’

Muitíssimo obrigado/a. ‘Thank you very much indeed.’

Obrigadão. ‘Thanks a lot.’

Valeu. ‘Cheers.’ ‘Thanks.’

Agradeço/Agradecemos. ‘I/We thank you.’

Agradecido/a. ‘Much obliged.’

É muita gentileza sua. ‘It’s very kind of you.’

É muito gentil da sua parte. ‘It’s very kind of you.’

Te agradeço muito. ‘I’m very grateful to you.’

Agradeço muito a você/vocês todos. ‘I’m very grateful to you/you all.’

Agradeço do fundo do meu coração. ‘I thank you from the bottom of my heart.’

Não sei como agradecer. ‘I don’t know how to thank you.’

Só tenho que agradecer. ‘All I can do is to say thank you.’

Meus/Nossos agradecimentos (a . . .). ‘My/Our thanks (to . . .).’

Obrigadão and valeu are colloquial expressions, mainly used by younger people.

Obrigado/a por + noun/infinitive

Obrigado/a is by far the most common word for ‘Thank you’ or ‘Thanks’, used in both formal and informal contexts. The masculine form obrigado is used by males and the feminine form obrigada by women. It can be followed by the preposition por:

Obrigado pelo seu e-mail.
Thank you for your e-mail.

Obrigado pela presença.
Thank you for coming. (*said to guests attending your party*)
The preposition *por* can also introduce an infinitive. Very often this is a perfect infinitive referring to a past action:

- **Obrigado por ter ligado.**
  Thanks for calling.

- **Muito obrigado por me apoiar sempre.**
  Thank you very much for always supporting me.

The infinitive may also be personalized with *você* or *vocês*:

- **Obrigado por você ter me ajudado tanto.**
  Thank you for helping me so much.

- **Obrigado por vocês terem montado essa surpresa para mim.**
  Thank you for arranging this surprise for me.

**agradecer**

The verb *agradecer* ‘to thank, be grateful, appreciate’ sounds more formal as an expression of thanks. It is also much used in the written language. More often than not, the person to whom the thanks are addressed is not explicitly mentioned, since it is implicit that the thanks are addressed to the listener or reader. The thing you are expressing gratitude for either follows the verb immediately or is introduced by the preposition *por*. The construction with *por* is less formal than that without:

- **Agradecemos a/pela ajuda.**
  We are grateful for your help.

- **Agradeço o/pelo carinho.**
  I appreciate your warmth and affection.

- **Quero agradecer o excelente artigo sobre a saúde pública.**
  I would like to thank you for the excellent article on public healthcare.

- **Agradecemos sua carta de 9 de novembro último.**
  Thank you for your letter dated November 9th.

The person to whom thanks is being given is introduced with the preposition *a*:

- **Agradeço aos meus pais o/pelo apoio que me deram.**
  I am grateful to my parents for the support they have given me.

- **Agradeço a todos (por) esse lindo presente.**
  I am grateful to you all for this lovely present.

To say ‘I thank you for doing . . .’ with a following infinitive, three constructions are possible: *agradecer* + *a* + noun/pronoun + infinitive, *agradecer* + *a* + noun/pronoun + *por* + infinitive, *agradecer* + *por* + noun/pronoun + infinitive. The infinitive will very often be a perfect infinitive referring to a past action:

- **Agradeço a você ter me convidado.**
  I thank you for inviting me.

- **Agradeço a você por ter me convidado.**
  I appreciate you inviting me.

- **Agradeço por você ter me convidado.**
  I thank you for inviting me.

Of these three sentences, the first is the most formal and the third the least formal.
Note that *agradecer* can also translate ‘to say thank you’ in sentences such as:

- **Mandei umas flores para agradecer.**
  I sent some flowers to say thank you.
- **Agradeça aos seus pais por mim/da minha parte.**
  Say thank you to your parents for/from me.
- **Ele nem agradeceu.**
  He didn’t even say thank you.

### Expressions of gratitude in formal correspondence

There are a number of set phrases used to express gratitude in formal correspondence:

- **Agradeço/agradecemos a sua carta de 17 de maio último.**
  Thank you for your letter of May 17th.
- **Grato por sua carta solicitando informações sobre nossos produtos.**
  Thank you for your letter requesting information about our products.
- **Agradeceria/agradeceríamos se me/nos enviasse(m) a atual lista de preços.**
  I/we would be grateful if you would send me/us the current price list.
- **Agradeço/agradecemos desde já.**
  Thanking you in advance.
- **Agradeço/agradecemos a atenção.**
  Thanking you for your attention.

### Responding to an expression of gratitude

In English, it is not considered necessary to respond to thanks, although, depending on the individual speaker and the circumstances, people say things such as ‘You’re welcome’, ‘That’s OK’, ‘Don’t mention it’. Brazilians usually say something in response to thanks, however brief. The following is a list of the most commonly used expressions:

- **Nada.** ‘OK.’, ‘That’s OK.’
- **De nada. / Por nada.** ‘You’re welcome.’
- **Não tem de quê.** ‘Don’t mention it’ (*formal, rather old-fashioned*)
- **Imagina!** ‘Don’t be silly!’, ‘No need to thank me!’
- **Obrigado/a eu.** ‘Thank you.’ (*returning thanks*)
- **Eu que agradeço.** ‘It’s me who should be thanking you.’
- **Você não precisa me agradecer.** ‘There’s no need to thank me.’
The language of persuasion
Giving advice and making suggestions

65.1 Giving advice and making suggestions that do not involve the speaker

65.1.1 se eu fosse você + conditional/imperfect/imperfect of ir + infinitive

The phrase *se eu fosse você, . . . / se fosse você, eu . . . / eu, se fosse você, . . .* ‘if I were you’ is one of the most common expressions for giving advice and making suggestions that do not involve the speaker. The advice itself is expressed using the conditional (rather formal), the imperfect (informal) or the imperfect of the verb *ir* ‘to go’ followed by an infinitive (neutral register):

- **Se fosse você, eu tentaria/tentava/ia tentar falar com ele.**
  
  If I were you, I’d try talking to him.

- **Se eu fosse você, não iria/ia.**
  
  If I were you, I wouldn’t go.

- **Eu, se fosse você, arranjaria/arranja/ia arranjar outro emprego.**
  
  If I were you, I’d find another job.

Alternative expressions with a similar meaning and construction are:

- **No seu lugar, eu . . . or**
  
- **Se eu estivesse no seu lugar, . . . / Se estivesse no seu lugar, eu . . . / Eu, se estivesse no seu lugar, . . .**
  
  If I were in your situation . . . / If it was me, . . .

Examples:

- **No seu lugar, eu não o perdoaria/o perdoava/ia perdoá-lo.**
  
  If it was me, I wouldn’t forgive him.

- **Eu, se estivesse no seu lugar, tomaria/tomava/ia tomar um empréstimo.**
  
  If it was me, I’d take out a loan.

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83 When the main verb is *ir* ‘to go’, the *ir* + infinitive construction is obviously impossible.
Por que você(s) não . . . ? + present

Por que você(s) não . . . ? ‘Why don’t you . . .?’ is another common expression used for giving advice and making suggestions:

- Por que você não compra um computador novo?
  Why don’t you buy a new computer?

- Por que vocês não assistem um DVD?
  Why don’t you watch a DVD?

- Por que você não volta na terça?
  Why don’t you go/come back on Tuesday?

E se você(s) . . . ? + future/imperfect subjunctive

E se você(s) . . . ? ‘What if you . . .?’ can be followed by a future subjunctive to make a straightforward suggestion or by an imperfect subjunctive to make a more tentative one:

- E se você me mandar o arquivo por e-mail?
  What if you e-mail me the file?

- E se vocês mudassem para mais perto da sua filha?
  What if you moved closer to where your daughter lives?

Imperative

► Chapter 21 (p. 150)

The imperative can be used to give advice and suggestions. In speech you will nearly always use the familiar imperative to give advice, but the formal imperative may be encountered in written advice and suggestions:

- Compra! Está muito barato.
  Buy it! It’s really cheap.

- Meu primo é advogado. Liga para ele!
  My cousin is a lawyer. Give him a call!

- Faça o check-in online e economize tempo. (written)
  Check in online and save time.

Você(s) podia(m) . . . + infinitive

Você(s) podia(m) . . . ‘You could . . .’. This is the imperfect of poder used in place of the conditional. The conditional poderia(m) could also be used, but it would sound rather formal.

- Você podia usar o terceiro quarto como escritório.
  You could use the third bedroom as an office.

- Vocês podiam alugar um carro e fazer uns passeios.
  You could rent a car and go on some trips.
Giving advice and making suggestions that do not involve the speaker

65.1.6 *Você(s) deve(m)*/devia(m) . . . + infinitive

*Você(s) deve(m) . . .* ‘You must/should . . .’ expresses a forceful recommendation:

*Você deve procurar um médico.*
You must/should see a doctor.

*Você(s) devia(m) . . .* ‘You ought to . . .’ (imperfect for conditional) expresses a less forceful suggestion. Note that the conditional *deveria(m)* could also be used here, but would sound rather formal.

*Você(s) devia(m) conhecer o Nordeste.*
You ought to/should visit the northeast of Brazil.

*Você não devia deixar sua carteira jogada na mesa.*
You shouldn’t leave your wallet lying around on the table.

65.1.7 *Você tem/vocês têm que . . .* + infinitive; *você(s) tinha(m)* que . . . + infinitive

*Você tem/vocês têm que . . .* ‘You must/have to . . .’ is used in colloquial speech to make a strong recommendation:

*Se vocês forem a Salvador, têm que comer acarajé.*
If you go to Salvador, you must have acarajé (bean fritters).

*Você tem que conhecer a minha prima, ela é uma figura.*
You must meet my cousin, she’s a real character.

The recommendation can be made less emphatic by using the imperfect *tinha(m)* que:

*Você tinha que perguntar para o meu pai. Ele deve saber.*
You ought to ask my dad. He should know.

65.1.8 *É melhor (você/vocês) . . .* + infinitive

*É melhor . . .* ‘It’s better/best to . . .’ can be followed by a simple infinitive when giving general advice that also applies to the person addressed:

*É melhor ir de táxi.*
It’s better to go by taxi.

*É melhor não deixar objetos de valor no quarto.*
It’s best not to leave valuables in the room.

But a personal infinitive can also be used after *É melhor* when giving specific rather than general advice:

*É melhor você pedir desculpas.*
It’s best if you apologize. / You’d best apologize.

*Seria melhor vocês deixarem as coisas aqui.*
It would be better if you left your stuff here.
Aconselho você(s) a + infinitive

Aconselho você a . . . ‘I (would) advise you to . . .’ is a slightly more formal way of giving advice:

Aconselho você a não andar de bicicleta sem capacete.
I advise you not to ride a bike without a helmet.

Aconselho vocês a lerem as instruções com muita atenção.
I advise you to read the instructions very carefully.

Sugiro que você(s) . . . + subjunctive

Sugiro que você(s) . . . ‘I (would) suggest you . . .’, from the verb sugerir, is followed by the present subjunctive:

Sugiro que você volte amanhã.
I suggest you come back tomorrow.

Sugiro que vocês não deixem as janelas abertas.
I would suggest you don’t leave the windows open.

Sugiro can be followed by an infinitive when making a general suggestion:

Sugiro fazer uma lista das pendências.
I suggest making a list of the outstanding items.

Suggesting a course of action involving the speaker

Vamos + infinitive

Vamos . . . followed by the infinitive means ‘Let’s . . .’ when pronounced with statement intonation:

Vamos pedir uma pizza.
Let’s order a pizza.

Vamos descansar um pouco.
Let’s have a bit of a rest.

When pronounced with question intonation, Vamos . . . is equivalent to ‘Shall we . . .?’:

Vamos pedir uma pizza?
Shall we order a pizza?

Vamos descansar um pouco?
Shall we have a bit of a rest?

Por que não . . .? + present

Por que não . . .? may used with a first person plural verb or, more colloquially, with a gente and a third person singular verb to make a suggestion involving the speaker:

Por que não dividimos um prato?
Why don’t we share a main course?

Por que é que a gente não chama o Fábio?
Why don’t we invite Fábio?
Podíamos / A gente podia . . . + infinitive

Podíamos . . . or, more colloquially, A gente podia . . . ‘We could . . . ’ is also used to make a suggestion:

A gente podia jantar fora.
We could go out for dinner.

Podíamos ir de táxi.
We could go by taxi.

Devíamos / Tínhamos que . . . ; A gente devia / tinha que . . . + infinitive

Devíamos / Tínhamos que . . . or, more colloquially, A gente devia / tinha que . . . is used for ‘We should . . .’:

A gente tinha que ir ao supermercado.
We ought to go to the supermarket.

Devíamos contratar um recepcionista.
We should hire a receptionist.

Que tal nós . . . / Que tal a gente . . . + infinitive

Que tal nós . . . ? or, more colloquially, Que tal a gente . . . ? ‘What about if we . . . ?’, ‘How about we . . . ?’ is followed by an infinitive. Remember that the infinitive takes the ending -mos after nós:

Que tal nós termos uma festa?
What about if we have a party?

Que tal a gente ir ao shopping?
How about we go to the mall?

O que é que você acha de nós / da gente + infinitive; O que é que você acha se nós / a gente + subjunctive

O que é que você acha de nós / da gente . . . ? ‘What about us . . . ?’ is followed by an infinitive. Remember that, after nós, the infinitive takes the ending -mos:

O que é que você acha da gente comer peixe hoje?
What about us having fish today?

O que é que você acha de nós convidarmos a Rita?
What about us inviting Rita?

O que é que você acha se nos / a gente . . . ? ‘What do you think if . . . ?’ is followed by a future subjunctive to express a straightforward suggestion and by an imperfect subjunctive to express a more tentative one:

O que é que você acha se nós pedirmos uma garrafa de vinho?
What do you think about ordering a bottle of wine?

O que é que você acha se a gente pintasse o quarto de verde?
What do you think about painting the bedroom green?
65.2.7  **E se . . . ? + subjunctive**

*E se . . . ?* ‘What if . . . ?’ is followed by a future subjunctive to express a straightforward suggestion and by an imperfect subjunctive to express a more tentative one:

- **E se mudarmos a mesa de lugar?**
  What if we move the table somewhere else?

- **E se a gente pegasse um táxi?**
  What if we took a cab?

65.2.8  **É melhor nós/a gente . . . + infinitive**

*É melhor nós/a gente . . .* ‘It’s better/best if we . . .’ is followed by an infinitive. Remember that, after *nós*, the infinitive takes the ending *-mos*:

- **É melhor a gente ir à pé.**
  It’s best if we walk.

- **Seria melhor nós procurarmos um advogado.**
  It would be better for us to get a lawyer.

### Asking for advice and suggestions

65.3  **Question word + present tense**

*Question word + present tense* This is the simplest way of asking for advice or suggestions, equivalent to the English ‘question word + shall I . . .?’:

- **O que é que eu faço?**
  What shall I do?

- **Onde eu coloco os copos?**
  Where shall I put the glasses?

- **Quem é que a gente convida?**
  Who shall we invite?

65.3.2  **Question word + poder + infinitive**

*Question word + poder + infinitive*:

- **O que é que eu posso fazer?**
  What can I do?

- **Como é que eu posso negar sem ofendê-los?**
  How can I say no without offending them?

65.3.3  **Question word + conditional/imperfect/imperfect of *ir* + infinitive**

*Question word + conditional/imperfect/imperfect of *ir* + infinitive*:

- **O que você faria/fazia/ia fazer?**
  What would you do?

- **Qual você compraria/comprava/ia comprar?**
  Which one would you buy?
Such questions can be expanded with the phrases *se fosse você* ‘if it was you’ or *no meu lugar* ‘in my place’:

- Como você responderia/respondia/ia responder a isso se fosse você?
  How would you answer that if it was you?
- Qual você escolheria/escolhia/ia escolher no meu lugar?
  Which one would you choose in my place?

### aconselhar, recomendar, sugerir

The verbs *aconselhar* ‘to advise’, *recomendar* ‘to recommend’ and *sugerir* ‘to suggest’ may be used to ask for advice or suggestions:

- O que você me aconselha?
  What do you advise me to do?
- O que você me recomenda?
  What you recommend I do?
- O que você sugere (que eu faça)?
  What do you suggest (I do)?
Making requests

Common expressions of request

**por favor; por gentileza; favor**

The expression *por favor* means ‘please’ when making a request. In making requests to strangers it is used as in English, but in making informal requests to family and friends, it is not normally used, and using it in such situations can sound overbearing and insistent. Instead, the softening effect of ‘please’ in English is rendered by means of a questioning intonation (see 66.1.2):

- **Aguarde na linha, por favor.** *(to a stranger)*
  Hold the line, please.

- **Me passa o sal?** *(to friend or family)*
  Will you pass me the salt, please?

A more formal and polite variant of *por favor* is *por gentileza*:

- **Só um momento, por gentileza.**
  Just a moment, please.

- **Qual o nome da senhora, por gentileza?**
  What name is that please, madam?

*Favor* + infinitive is equivalent to the English ‘Kindly . . .’, ‘Please . . .’ and is usually seen on signs:

- **Favor não fumar.**
  Please do not smoke.

- **Favor fechar a porta.**
  Please close the door.

Present tense used to express a request

A request can be expressed using a question in the present tense. This is equivalent to the English ‘Will you . . .?’ and can be used in most situations. When addressing strangers it is normally accompanied by *por favor* ‘please’ (see 66.1.1):

- **Você leva essa sacola?**
  Will you carry this bag?

- **Você me ajuda um pouco?**
  Will you help me a minute?
As in English, using the imperative is a fairly abrupt way of making a request, even if it is accompanied by por favor ‘please’. Generally speaking, the familiar imperative is used in speech with people you would address as você, while the formal imperative is used with people you would address as o senhor/a senhora, e.g. a customer, and always in writing, e.g. on notices:

Para com isso!
Stop that!

Me dá esse copo!
Give me that glass!

Certifique-se de que a sua poltrona está na posição vertical.
Make sure your seat is in the upright position. (announcement or notice)

Since the familiar imperative is identical to the third person singular of the present tense, there is no difference in form between requests expressed in the familiar imperative and those expressed in the present tense, as shown in 66.1.2, except that the latter may include the subject pronoun você. The difference is in the intonation, which can range from a brusque imperative tone to a polite question intonation depending on the circumstances:

Para aqui!
Stop here!

(Você) para aqui?
Will you stop here?

faça/faz o favor de + infinitive
The expression faça/faz o favor de + infinitive ‘kindly . . .’ is used to make polite requests, usually to strangers. It can have a connotation of impatience when used in speech:

Faça o favor de usar o e-mail informado no anúncio.
Kindly use the e-mail address given in the advertisement.

Garçom, faça/faz o favor de passar um pano nessa mesa.
Waiter, do you think you could give this table a wipe?

(Você) pode . . . ? + infinitive
(Você) pode . . . ? is used to mean ‘Can you . . . ?’:

Pode vir aqui um pouco?
Can you come here a minute?

Pode dar um recado para ela?
Can you give her a message?

Você pode me deixar na rodoviária?
Can you drop me at the bus station?
66.1.6 (Você) poderia ... ? + infinitive

The conditional (Você) poderia ... ? ‘Could you ...?’ is used in more formal situations where a greater degree of politeness is called for. As this expression is normally used to address strangers, the pronoun você is usually left out:

Poderia me passar a Contabilidade?
Could you put me through to the Accounts department?

Poderia me dizer de onde sai o ônibus para Parati?
Could you tell me where the bus to Parati goes from?

66.1.7 Você se importa/incomoda de ... ? + infinitive

Você se importa/incomoda de ... ? ‘Would you mind ...?’ is followed by the infinitive:

Você se importa de me mandar as fotos por e-mail?
Would you mind sending me the pictures by e-mail?

Você se incomoda de me explicar como funciona?
Would you mind explaining to me how it works?

Note that importar seems to be more common than incomodar in this usage.

66.1.8 Formal written requests

There are a number of formulae used for making requests in formal contexts, especially in business correspondence. These usually involve the verbs pedir ‘to ask’, solicitar ‘to request’ or agradecer ‘to be grateful, to appreciate’. The examples below are typical of such requests:

Pedimos a gentileza de nos enviarem seu catálogo mais recente.
Please send us your latest catalogue.

Solicitamos o obséquio de nos informarem os termos e condições de frete.
Please advise us of your shipping terms.

Agradeceria se me enviasse seu material de vendas.
I would be grateful if you would send me your sales literature.
In the spoken language, directions and instructions are often given using the present tense, with or without the subject pronoun você:

- **Você continua reto até o segundo sinal e aí vira à esquerda.**
  You keep going straight as far as the second set of traffic lights and then turn left.

- **Você desce na próxima estação.**
  You get off at the next station.

- **Você paga na caixa e depois entrega a ficha no balcão.**
  You pay at the cash desk and then hand over the ticket at the counter.

The familiar imperative has the same form as the third person singular of the present tense, so directions given in the imperative are the same as those given in the present except for the inclusion of the pronoun você:

- **E(x)tra aquí a direita.**
  Turn right here.

- **Desce em frente à Prefeitura.**
  Get off outside the Town Hall.

- **Vai à farmácia e compra um protetor solar.**
  Go to the chemist’s and buy some sunblock.

The formal imperative may occasionally be used when giving directions to strangers verbally, but it is always used in written instructions:

- **Siga em frente até o segundo semáforo e depois vire à esquerda.**
  Continue straight ahead until the second set of traffic lights and then turn left.

- **Desembarque na Estação Sé e faça transferência para Linha 3.**
  Get off at Sé station and change on to Line 3.
Não perca o seu bilhete.
Do not lose your ticket.

Feche todos os aplicativos e reinicie o computador.
Close all applications and restart the computer.

**67.1.3 ter que + infinitive**

Spoken directions and instructions sometimes contain the expression ter que ‘to have to’. Remember that, in colloquial speech, the third person singular can be used without an explicit subject to give a general instruction:

\[ \text{Você tem que pagar na caixa e depois pedir no balcão.} \]
You have to pay at the cash desk and then order at the counter.

\[ \text{Tem que pegar senha e esperar o número.} \]
You have to take a ticket and wait for your number.

**67.1.4 The infinitive**

The infinitive is often used as an alternative to the formal imperative in written instructions such as operating manuals, recipes, etc.:

\[ \text{Abrir o registro de gás e regular o botão de controle de chama de acordo com a necessidade.} \]
Turn on the gas supply and adjust the flame control knob as required.

\[ \text{Colocar o feijão numa bacia grande e deixar de molho por 3 horas.} \]
Place the beans in a large basin and leave to soak for 3 hours.

**67.2 Giving orders**

**67.2.1 The imperative or the present tense**

\[ \text{15.3 (p. 110); Chapter 21 (p. 150)} \]

As with directions and instructions, orders may be given in the imperative or using the present tense.

\[ \text{Sai daqui!} \]
Get out!

\[ \text{Cala a boca!} \]
Shut up!

\[ \text{Me larga!} \]
Let go of me!

\[ \text{Você vai embora daqui agora!} \]
You get out of here now!

Spoken orders are normally given using the familiar imperative, as in the examples above. The formal imperative is encountered in written orders, such as:

\[ \text{Pare} \]
Stop (*on a road sign*)

\[ \text{Retire seu cartão.} \]
Remove your card.
67.2 The future tense with *ir* + infinitive

The future tense formed with the verb *ir* ‘to go’ + infinitive can also be used to give an order:

- Você não vai mais sair com esse rapaz, ouviu?
  You will not go out with this boy again, do you hear?
- Você vai me obedecer!
  You will do as you’re told!

67.2.3 *Vê se você* + present tense; *Trata/Trate de* + infinitive

*Vê se você* . . . ‘Make sure you . . .’ is a colloquial expression used to give orders:

- Vê se você não volta tarde.
  Make sure you don’t get home late.
- Vê se você arruma esse quarto já!
  Get this room tidied up now!

*Trata/Trate de* + infinitive is a slightly more formal expression with a similar meaning ‘See to it that . . .’:

- Trata de cortar esse cabelo!
  See to it that you get that hair of yours cut!
- Trate de resolver isso o mais rápido possível.
  See to it that you get this sorted out as soon as possible.
68

Making an offer or invitation and accepting or declining

68.1

Making an offer or invitation

68.1.1

convidar, pagar

Invitations can be made with the verb convidar ‘to invite’:

Quero convidar você para jantar lá em casa.
I’d like to invite you to dinner at our house.

Não precisa pagar nada. Convido você. / Você está convidado.
You don’t need to pay anything. It’s my treat.

An offer to treat someone can also be expressed with the verb pagar:

Vamos nesse bar. Eu te pago um chope.
Let’s go into this bar. I’ll buy you a beer.

Quero pagar o seu almoço.
I want to treat you to lunch.

68.1.2

Imperative

► Chapter 21 (p. 150)

The imperative can be used to make an invitation. An oral invitation to one person will usually be expressed with the familiar imperative:

Sentat aqui e toma um drinque com a gente.
Sit down here and have a drink with us.

The formal imperative may be encountered in written invitations:

Venha conhecer o nosso showroom.
Come and visit our showroom.

68.1.3

Deixa que eu + present

In colloquial speech, Deixa que eu ... ‘Leave it, I’ll ...’ can be used to offer to do something that the other person is intending to do:

Deixa que eu pago.
No, that’s OK. I’ll get this.
Deixa que eu levo a sua mala.
Here, let me carry your suitcase.

Vamos + infinitive
An invitation that includes the speaker can be expressed with Vamos ... ‘Let’s ...’ followed by an infinitive. With a question intonation, the meaning is ‘Shall we ...?’:

Vamos sair amanhã à noite.
Let’s go out tomorrow night.

Vamos comer pizza?
Shall we have pizza?

Por que não ...? + present
Por que não ...? is used to mean ‘Why don’t ...?’:

Por que você não dorme lá em casa?
Why don’t you stay over at our place?

Por que você não janta com a gente?
Why don’t you have dinner with us?

Present of querer + infinitive/noun
The verb querer ‘to want’ is used in informal invitations and offers. In more formal situations, it would sound rather abrupt.

Tem churrasco aqui hoje. Quer vir?
We’re having a barbecue here today. Do you want to come?

Você quer uma água?
Do you want a glass of water?

Present of aceitar + noun
The verb aceitar ‘to accept’ is used when offering something in a formal or polite way. Depending on the person addressed, it can be preceded by você(s), o senhor/a senhora or no explicit subject:

Aceita um cafêzinho? – Aceito.
Would you like a coffee? – Yes, thank you.

Você aceitam uma bebida?
Would you like something to drink?

Present of desejar + infinitive/noun
The verb desejar ‘to wish to/for’ is used for formal and polite invitations and offers. It can be regarded as a more formal synonym of querer (see 68.1.5) and is often equivalent to ‘would like’ in English:

Deseja deixar um telefone de contato?
Do you wish to leave a contact number?

O senhor deseja uma sobremesa?
Would you like a dessert, sir?
**MAKING AN OFFER OR INVITATION AND ACCEPTING ORDECLINING**

### 68.1.9 querer que + subjunctive

This construction can be used for both informal and more formal invitations and offers:

- **Você quer que a gente leve alguma coisa?**
  Do you want us to bring anything?

- **O senhor quer que chame um táxi?**
  Would you like me to call a taxi, sir?

### 68.1.10 poder + infinitive

The modal verb *poder* ‘can’ followed by an infinitive may also be used to make formal or informal offers and invitations:

- **Pode ficar aqui se quiser.**
  You can stay here if you like.

- **Posso deixar vocês no shopping se quiserem.**
  I can drop you at the mall if you want.

### 68.1.11 queria/gostaria que + imperfect subjunctive

The words *queria* and *gostaria* both mean ‘I would like’. Of the two, *gostaria* sounds more heartfelt or more formal. Both are followed by *que* + imperfect subjunctive to express a polite invitation:

- **Eu queria que você viesse conhecer a minha casa.**
  I’d like you to come and visit my home.

- **Gostaríamos que vocês estivessem presentes no nosso casamento.**
  We’d like you to be present at our wedding.

### 68.1.12 queria/gostaria de + infinitive

Both *queria* and *gostaria de* can be followed by an infinitive as another way of phrasing an invitation or offer:

- **Queríamos convidar vocês para um jantar aqui em casa.**
  We’d like to invite you to dinner here at our house.

- **Gostaria de oferecer meus serviços como guia.**
  I’d like to offer my services as a guide.

### 68.1.13 Tenho/Temos o prazer de + infinitive

*Tenho/Temos o prazer de . . . ‘I/We are pleased to . . .’* is an expression commonly used in formal invitations and offers, especially in writing:

- **Tenho o prazer de convidar você para o lançamento do meu livro.**
  I am pleased to invite you to the launch of my book.

- **Temos o prazer de oferecer a você um produto de altíssima qualidade.**
  We are pleased to offer you a product of the highest quality.
Teria/Teríamos muito prazer em + infinitive
Teria/Teríamos muito prazer em . . . ‘I/We would be delighted to . . .’ is another formal expression used to express an invitation:

Teríamos muito prazer em recebê-lo aqui para um coquetel.
We would be delighted to welcome you here for cocktails.

Accepting or declining an offer or invitation
The expressions normally used to accept an offer or invitation are as follows:

Muito obrigado/a. (formal/informal)
Thank you very much.

Então tá, obrigado. (informal)
OK then, thanks.

Falou. (very informal)
OK.

Combinado. / Fechado. (informal)
It’s a deal.

Eu topo. (informal)
I’ll take you up on that. / Count me in.

Vou adorar. (informal)
I’d love to.

Com muito prazer. (formal)
I’d/We’d be delighted.

É muita gentileza sua. / É muito gentil da sua parte. (formal)
That’s very kind of you.

Claro. (neutral)
Of course.

Aceito o convite. (neutral)
I accept your invitation.

Invitations and offers can also be accepted by repeating the verb of wanting used in the question:

Você quer que eu te acompanhe? – Quero.
Do you want me to go with you? – Yes, I do.

Você aceita uma água? – Aceito.
Would you like a glass of water? – Yes, please.

The following expressions are used to decline an invitation or offer:

Obrigado/a. (neutral)
No thank you.

Quero não, obrigado. (informal)
No thanks.

Estou bem, obrigado. (neutral)
I’m fine, thanks.
Enquiring whether an invitation is accepted or declined

When enquiring whether an invitation is accepted or declined, use the present tense. Note that the verb *vir* ‘to come’ can only be used if you are currently in the place referred to, otherwise the verb *ir* ‘to go’ must be used instead:

Vocês vem para a nossa festa?
Are you coming to our party? *(if you are in the party venue, e.g. your home)*

Vocês vai para a nossa festa?
Are you coming to our party? *(if you are not in the party venue)*

Vocês vai comigo?
Will you come with me? *(i.e. to a different place from here)*
Expressing temporal relations
69

Talking about the present

Like English, Portuguese has a present simple tense, e.g. *eu estudo* ‘I study’ and a present continuous tense, e.g. *eu estou estudando* ‘I am studying’. When talking about actions in the present, the use of the two tenses is largely the same in the two languages, apart from a few small differences mentioned below.

Note that the English present continuous can also be used to talk about the future, as in ‘I'm flying to New York tomorrow’. The Portuguese present continuous tense is never used with future reference.

The present simple

(i) To report facts that are generally true or true in the present:

*Os brasileiros falam português.*
Brazilians speak Portuguese.

*O Brasil é muito maior do que a França.*
Brazil is much bigger than France.

*Ele é dono da loja.*
He’s the owner of the shop.

(ii) To express timeless ideas or emotions:

*O Rio de Janeiro é lindo.*
Rio de Janeiro is beautiful.

*Eu gosto de jazz.*
I like jazz.

*É uma ótima ideia.*
It’s a great idea.

(iii) Talking about ongoing actions:

*Eles moram em Curitiba.*
They live in Curitiba.

*O que você faz na vida?*
What do you do for a living?
Trabalho num banco.
I work in a bank.

(iv) Talking about habitual actions. Such statements are often qualified with an adverb indicating frequency, such as geralmente ‘usually’, sempre ‘always’, nunca ‘never’, quase nunca ‘hardly ever’, muitas vezes ‘often’, raramente ‘rarely, seldom’. These adverbs are placed immediately before the verb as in English:

Eu geralmente assisto o jornal das dez.
I usually watch the ten o’clock news.

Ele nunca atrasa.
He’s never late.

Raramente saímos à noite.
We seldom go out in the evening.

(v) Describing present states or conditions with the verb estar ‘to be’:

Está frio hoje.
It’s cold today.

Estamos muito cansados.
We’re very tired.

The present continuous

The present continuous is used as follows:

(i) Describing an action that is happening at the time of speaking:

Estou tentando abrir essa gaveta.
I’m trying to open this drawer.

O telefone está tocando.
The phone’s ringing.

Os vizinhos estão fazendo muito barulho.
The neighbours are making a lot of noise.

(ii) Describing an action that is ongoing but not happening right now:

Estou estudando japonês.
I’m studying Japanese.

Eles estão montando um negócio.
They’re setting up a business.

Estamos construindo uma casa na praia.
We’re building a house at the beach.

(iii) To emphasize the temporary nature of what is normally an ongoing action:

Estamos morando na casa dos meus pais.
We’re living at my parents’ place.

Ela está trabalhando numa loja.
She’s working in a shop.

Estou nadando três vezes por semana.
I’m going swimming three times a week.
To emphasize the temporary nature of what is normally a timeless or ongoing emotion. In English, the present continuous is sometimes used in such circumstances, but the present simple is often preferred:

*Você está gostando do novo emprego?*
Are you liking/enjoying your new job?

*Estou achando que eles esqueceram.*
I think (=I’m starting to think) they’ve forgotten.

*Essa planta está precisando de água.*
That plant needs (=is in need of) water.

*Ela está querendo sair da empresa.*
She wants (at this particular time) to leave the company.

To describe present states and circumstances with verbs other than *estar*:

*Por que você está sendo tão agressivo?*
Why are you being so aggressive?

*Está fazendo calor lá fora.*
It’s hot outside.

*Está ventando muito.*
It’s very windy.

### Expressing habitual action with *costumar* + infinitive

Habitual action in the present can be expressed using the present tense of the verb *costumar* ‘to be in the habit of, to usually . . .’:

*Costumo correr de manhã.*
I usually go running in the mornings.

*O ônibus costuma atrasar.*
The bus is quite often late.

*Eles costumam jantar fora de vez em quando.*
They are in the habit of going out for dinner occasionally.

### Saying how long one has been doing something

#### Present simple/present continuous + *há/faz* + time phrase

Sentences such as ‘I’ve been waiting a long time’, ‘We’ve lived here for five years’ express a continuous action or state that started in the past and continues in the present. Such actions or states are expressed with the perfect simple or perfect continuous tense in English, whereas Portuguese uses the present tense followed by an expression of time (e.g. *muito tempo* ‘a long time’) introduced with *há* or *faz*, which, in this context, translate as ‘for’. Note that *faz* in this position sounds rather colloquial, while *há* can be used in both formal and informal registers. The present simple is used to talk about general, longer-term actions or states and the present continuous to talk about more momentary, shorter-term actions or states:

*Estou esperando faz muito tempo.*
I’ve been waiting (for) a long time.
Moramos aqui há cinco anos.
We’ve lived/been living here for five years.

Você está aqui há muito tempo?
Have you been here long?

85 Many native speakers make the verb fazer agree in number (singular or plural) with what follows, e.g. faz muito tempo but fazem cinco anos. This is a non-standard usage condemned by grammarians, who classify faz as an impersonal verb here and therefore invariable.

faz + time phrase + que + present simple/present continuous

This construction means the same as the previous one, but with a difference of emphasis. Here the emphasis is on the period of time rather than the action itself:

Faz duas horas que estou esperando!
I’ve been waiting for two hours!

Faz quanto tempo que você está aqui?
How long have you been here?

Já faz cinco anos que moramos aqui.
It’s five years we’ve been living here now.

Faz mais de uma hora que ele está assim.
He’s been like that for over an hour.

When the period of time refers to an action that has not yet taken place, a translation with ‘it’s . . . since . . .’ is also possible:

Faz seis meses que não vejo a Cristina.
I haven’t seen Cristina for six months. / It’s been six months since I saw Cristina.

estar + há + time phrase + sem + infinitive/estar sem + infinitive + há + time phrase

This expression can also be used to say how long it is that you have not done something:

Estou há seis meses sem ver a Cristina. / Estou sem ver a Cristina há seis meses.
I haven’t seen Cristina for six months.

Você está há quanto tempo sem fumar? / Você está sem fumar há quanto tempo?
How long is it since you smoked? (= How long have you not been smoking?)

continuar + gerund

This construction with the gerund describes an action or series of repeated actions that started in the past and is still going on, although the exact length of time is not specified:

Continua chovendo.
It’s still raining.

Eles continuam se vendo de vez em quando.
They still see each other occasionally.
continuar + sem + infinitive

This construction describes an action that still has not taken place at the present moment:

O paciente continua sem comer.
The patient is still not eating.

Eles continuam sem se falarem.
They’re still not speaking to one another.
Talking about the future

In English you can talk about the future in a number of different ways. You can use the future with ‘will’, as in ‘I’ll call you later’; a construction with ‘going to’, as in ‘It’s going to rain’; the present continuous, as in ‘I’m seeing Sue tomorrow’ or even the present simple, as in ‘I leave for Brazil in the morning’. In Portuguese, the options are to use the verb *ir* ‘to go’ followed by an infinitive, the present simple or the inflected future tense. The last is almost entirely restricted to the written language, narrowing the options down to two in the spoken language. In some cases these two forms are interchangeable, in others they are not.

**70.1 Talking about future events**

This section considers the Portuguese equivalents of the English future with ‘will’.

**70.1.1 Present of *ir* + infinitive**

In the spoken language and informal written style, the present of the verb *ir* ‘to go’ is used with an infinitive to talk about future actions and events:

- **A casa vai ser vendida para quitar a dívida.**
  The house will be sold to pay off the debt.

- **Vamos precisar de mais leite.**
  We’ll need more milk.

- **A festa vai começar quando todo mundo estiver aqui.**
  The party will start when everyone’s here.

**70.1.2 Present simple**

The present simple is used in speech to express spontaneous statements about the future, such as:

- **Te ligo mais tarde.**
  I’ll call you later.

- **Eu levo para você.**
  I’ll carry it for you.

- **A Laura nos ajuda, não é, Laura?**
  Laura will help us, won’t you, Laura?
Inflected future tense

The inflected future tense is normally only used in the written language and corresponds to the use of *ir* + infinitive, presented in 70.1.1:

- **A casa será vendida para quitar a dívida.**
  The house will be sold to pay off the debt.

- **O presidente se pronunciará amanhã.**
  The president will make a statement tomorrow.

- **As crianças voltarão às aulas na semana que vem.**
  The children will go back to school next week.

Present subjunctive

The ‘will’ future is sometimes rendered using the present subjunctive when the grammar of the sentence requires it:

- **Espero que você me perdoe.**
  I hope you will forgive me.

- **Estou com medo que ele caia.**
  I’m afraid he’ll fall.

Talking about scheduled events in the future

When talking about actions or events that are scheduled for a specific time in the future, Portuguese, like English, uses the present simple:

- **Vou embora para o Brasil amanhã.**
  I leave for Brazil tomorrow.

- **O jogo começa às 20h00.**
  The game starts at 8 p.m.

- **Eles voltam em setembro.**
  They’re back in September.

Talking about plans and intentions for the future

The section presents the Portuguese equivalents of the future expressed with ‘going to’ or with the present continuous in English, as well as other ways of expressing plans and intentions.

Present of *ir* + infinitive

In all registers, the present tense of the verb *ir* ‘to go’ is used with an infinitive to express planned and intended actions or events in the future. Planned and intended actions are those thought about in advance and planned by the subject of the sentence; this is different from the scheduled actions described in 70.2, where the action is imposed upon the subject by external forces.

- **Vou comprar um dicionário novo.**
  I’m going to buy a new dictionary.
Vou ver o Davi amanhã.
I’m seeing Davi tomorrow.

Uma vez o telhado consertado, vão pintar a casa inteira.
Once the roof is repaired, they’re painting the whole house.

A casa vai ser vendida para quitar a dívida.
The house is going to be sold to pay off the debt.

Present simple referring to the future
When it is used with its full meaning of ‘to go’, the verb ir cannot be preceded by the auxiliary ir, so it is used in the present simple to refer to the future. Thus, eu vou can mean ‘I go’, ‘I will go’, ‘I’m going’ or ‘I’m going to go’:

Vou para São Paulo amanhã.
I’m going to São Paulo tomorrow.

Vamos para casa primeiro.
We’re going to go home first.

Eles vão embora semana que vem.
They’re leaving next week.

pretender + infinitive; planejar + infinitive
Another way of expressing a future intention is to use the verb pretender ‘to intend to, plan to’, usually in the present simple, followed by an infinitive:

Pretendo cursar Medicina.
I intend to study medicine.

O que é que você pretende fazer com essa roupa velha?
What are you planning to do with those old clothes?

Ele pretende passar um ano no Brasil.
He plans to spend a year in Brazil.

Pretendemos voltar amanhã.
We’re planning to come back tomorrow.

The verb planejar ‘to plan’ can also be followed by an infinitive, but it is not usually used to talk about personal plans and intentions, and therefore rarely occurs in this construction in everyday conversation. It is more commonly used in contexts where an actual plan has been devised and is to be implemented:

O governo planeja cortar os gastos em 25%.
The government plans to cut spending by 25 per cent.

A empresa planeja dobrar seu faturamento até o final do ano.
The company plans to double its turnover by the end of the year.

estar pensando em + infinitive
The phrase estar pensando em . . . ‘to be thinking of . . .’ with an infinitive is another way of expressing a more thoughtful intention:

Estou pensando em fazer uma faculdade.
I’m thinking of doing a university degree.
Expressing the future from a past perspective

Quem é que você está pensando em convidar para a festa?
Who are you thinking of inviting to the party?

Já estou pensando em desistir.
I’m already considering giving up.

Expressing the future from a past perspective

When recounting past events, it is often necessary to refer to actions and events that are in the future in relation to the time you are referring to, as in ‘He said he would call’, ‘They were going to depart the next morning’, ‘We were planning to stay for a week’.

Imperfect of ir + infinitive

The most common way of expressing the future from a past perspective is to use the imperfect of the verb ir ‘to go’ followed by an infinitive. This corresponds to the English ‘would’ or ‘was/were going to’:

Ele disse que ia ligar.
He said he would call.

Eles iam partir na manhã seguinte.
They were going to depart the next morning.

The verb ir can also be in the imperfect subjunctive if the grammar of the sentence calls for it:

Pensei que fosse chover.
I thought it was going to rain.

Eu não acho que ela fosse fazer uma coisa dessas.
I don’t think she would do something like that.

Conditional tense

The conditional tense can be used to express the idea of ‘would’ when referring to the future from a past perspective. The conditional has a rather ponderous and formal ring to it and therefore tends to be avoided in the spoken language and hardly used at all in colloquial speech. Its place is taken by the imperfect of ir + infinitive (see 70.4.1) or the imperfect tense (see 70.4.3):

Ele disse que voltaria ainda hoje.
He said he would be back today.

Ela sabia que o chefe não estaria naquele dia.
She knew the boss wouldn’t be in that day.

Imperfect indicative

In colloquial speech, the imperfect indicative is usually used in place of the conditional tense. The wider context and the sense of the sentence usually make it clear that the imperfect is being used with reference to future time:

Ele disse que voltava ainda hoje.
He said he would be back today.
Ela sabia que o chefe não estava naquele dia.
She knew the boss wouldn’t be in that day.

**Imperfect subjunctive**

When the grammar of the sentence calls for it, ‘would’ with reference to a future action or event may be rendered by the imperfect subjunctive:

- **Ela estava com medo de que ele descobrisse a verdade.**
  She was afraid he would find out the truth.

- **Esperávamos que eles fossem compreensivos.**
  We hoped they would be sympathetic.

**Imperfect of pretender/estar pensando em + infinitive**

Past expressions of intent can be expressed with the imperfect of *pretender* ‘to intend to, plan to’ or *estar pensando em* ‘to be thinking of’, followed by an infinitive:

- **Eu não pretendia ficar tanto tempo assim.**
  I wasn’t planning to stay as long as that.

- **A gente estava pensando em viajar esse fim de semana.**
  We were thinking of going away this weekend.

- **Quando é que você pretendia voltar?**
  When were you intending to come back?

**Other ways of expressing the future**

The following phrases are also used to express imminent future action:

- **estar prestes a + infinitive** ‘to be preparing to’, ‘to be about to’

- **estar para + infinitive** ‘to be on the point of’, ‘to be just about to’.

The first is more formal, and the second implies greater imminence:

- **Eu estava prestes a sair quando o telefone tocou.**
  I was about to go out when the phone rang.

- **O bebê dela está para nascer a qualquer dia.**
  Her baby’s due any day now.

- **Estou para te ligar há duas semanas.**
  I’ve been meaning to phone you for two weeks.
Talking about the past

71.1 Talking about events that are past and complete

71.1.1 The preterite

To talk about actions or events that took place in the past and ended in the past, as in ‘I had dinner and went to bed’, ‘Cabral arrived in Brazil in 1500’, ‘We didn’t find the restaurant’, Portuguese uses the preterite tense:

- **Jantei e fui para a cama.**
  I had dinner and went to bed.
- **Cabral chegou ao Brasil em 1500.**
  Cabral arrived in Brazil in 1500.
- **Não encontramos o restaurante.**
  We didn’t find the restaurant.

71.1.2 The present or historic present

In narrative contexts, ranging from telling a friend about a recent incident to written accounts of historical events, the present tense is often used to make the account more vivid and to add dramatic quality. This also occurs in English, but to a lesser extent than in Portuguese:

- **Aí ele olha para mim e diz assim: ‘Me dá seu telefone.’**
  Then he looks/looked at me and says/said, ‘Give me your phone number.’
- **Nos próximos anos, os portugueses desbravam e colonizam o país.**
  In the years that followed, the Portuguese opened up and colonized the country.

71.2 Saying how long ago something happened

Using **há** with a time phrase in combination with a verb in the preterite serves to indicate how long ago something happened:

- **O escritor morreu há quinze anos.**
  The writer died fifteen years ago.
- ** RECEBEMOS A NOTÍCIA HÁ ALGUNS MINUTOS.**
  We got the news a few minutes ago.

In the spoken language, it is extremely common to add the word **atrás** ‘back’ after the time phrase, but purists argue that this is redundant and should not be used in writing:

- **Ela me ligou há dois dias atrás.**
  She called me two days ago.
Talking about long-lasting past events

A sentence such as ‘We lived in Brazil for five years’ refers to a past event that lasted for a considerable period of time, ‘five years’, but that is nevertheless over at the time of speaking. In such cases, Portuguese uses the preterite tense:

Moramos no Brasil durante cinco anos.
We lived in Brazil for five years.

Ela passou seis meses na Itália.
She spent six months in Italy.

Fiquei duas horas esperando o ônibus.
I was there for two hours waiting for the bus.

Talking about past events related to the present

In sentences such as ‘He’s drunk too much’, ‘I’ve finished the book’, ‘She’s broken her leg’, English uses the perfect tense to describe a past event that has a bearing on the present. Portuguese uses the preterite in such cases:

Ele bebeu demais.
He’s drunk too much.

Terminei o livro.
I’ve finished the book.

Ela quebrou a perna.
She’s broken her leg.

The context usually makes it clear whether the preterite corresponds to the English simple past or perfect tense in a particular situation. Compare:

Ela foi esquiar ano passado e quebrou a perna.
She went skiing last year and broke her leg.

Acho que ela quebrou a perna. Vamos chamar a ambulância.
I think she’s broken her leg. Let’s call an ambulance.

The sense of the English perfect tense is often implied by using the adverb já. The basic meaning of this adverb is ‘already’ but it would often be left untranslated in English:

Você já leu Harry Potter?
Have you read Harry Potter?

Já molhei as plantas.
I’ve watered the plants.

Portuguese also uses the preterite in sentences such as ‘I haven’t finished yet’, ‘He’s always wanted to be an actor’, ‘I’ve been to the bank twice today’, referring to events that have occurred over a period of time including the present:

Não terminei ainda.
I haven’t finished yet.
Referring to the immediate past

Ele sempre quis ser ator.
He’s always wanted to be an actor.

Já fui ao banco duas vezes hoje.
I’ve been to the bank twice today.

Referring to a prolonged or repeated action that began in the past and is still in progress

In sentences such as ‘He’s been reading the whole morning’, ‘We’ve been living here since 2002’, ‘He’s been complaining since he got here’, referring to prolonged or repeated action that began in the past and is still going on, Portuguese uses the present tense:

Ele já está a manhã inteira lendo.
He’s been reading the whole morning.

Moramos aqui desde 2002.
We’ve been living here since 2002.

Ele está reclamando desde que chegou aqui.
He’s been complaining since he got here.

Notice that the present simple is used for longer-term actions and the present continuous for shorter-term actions. Compare:

Ele reclama desde que chegou aqui há dois anos.
He’s been complaining since he arrived here two years ago.

Ele está reclamando desde que chegou aqui há uma hora.
He’s been complaining since he got here an hour ago.

Referring to the immediate past

acabar de + infinitive

The preterite of acabar is used in combination with the preposition de and an infinitive to express the idea of ‘have/has just’ as in the sentence ‘He’s just arrived’:

Ele acabou de chegar.
He’s just arrived.

Acabamos de jantar.
We’ve just had dinner.

Acabei de limpar essa cozinha!
I’ve just cleaned this kitchen!

To refer to a recent action from a past perspective, as in ‘They had just arrived’, use the pluperfect of acabar instead of the preterite:

Eles tinham acabado de chegar.
They had just arrived.

Eu tinha acabado de limpar a cozinha.
I had just cleaned the kitchen.
Note that, in more formal written language, ‘have/has just’ is expressed with the present of *acabar* and ‘had just’ with the imperfect:

O livro acaba de ser lançado.
The book has just come out.

Cabral acabava de chegar ao Brasil.
Cabral had just arrived in Brazil.

**agora (mesmo) + preterite**

Actions in the recent past can also be expressed using the preterite with the adverb *agora* ‘just now’ or, more emphatically, *agora mesmo* ‘just this minute’:

Eu cheguei agora.
I’ve just got here. / I got here just now.

Falei com o Cláudio agora mesmo.
I’ve just this minute spoken to Claudio. / I spoke to Claudio just a minute ago.

**Referring to actions and developments that have been happening in the recent past**

**The perfect tense**

To refer to actions and developments that have been taking place in the recent past, as in ‘I’ve been studying hard lately’, ‘The market has been growing in recent years’, Portuguese uses the perfect tense:

Tenho estudado muito ultimamente.
I’ve been studying hard lately.

O mercado tem crescido muito nos últimos anos.
The market has been growing substantially in recent years.

Note that the perfect tense is not used in Portuguese when the length of time is specified, as in ‘He’s been working here for two years.’ In such cases, the present tense is used (see 69.4.1).

**vir/andar + gerund**

The present tense of the verbs *vir* ‘to come’ and *andar* ‘to go’ can be combined with a gerund to describe what has been taking place in the recent past. Of the two, *andar* is more often used in less formal contexts:

A empresa vem crescendo a cada ano.
The company has been growing year by year.

O que é que você anda fazendo ultimamente?
What have you been up to lately?

Both verbs may also be used in the imperfect from a past perspective:

A situação vinha melhorando aos poucos.
The situation had gradually been improving.

Ele andava dizendo que ia casar.
He’d been saying he was going to get married.
71.8 Describing past states or actions in progress over an unspecified period of time

In sentences such as ‘I was tired’, ‘We used to live there’, the beginning or the end of the state and the action are not specified. To describe states or actions in progress in an open period of time, as in these examples, Portuguese uses the imperfect:

**Eu me lembro que fazia muito calor naquele dia.**
I remember that it was very hot that day.

**O Jaime estava doente.**
Jaime was ill.

**Naquela época eu trabalhava no centro da cidade.**
At that time I worked/used to work/was working in the city centre.

**Morávamos lá na época.**
We used to live there then. / We were living there at the time.

In contrast to the preterite, the imperfect cannot refer to states or actions that took place in a closed period of time, even when these may have been prolonged or repeated. Compare the sentences above with the ones below, which contain verbs in the preterite:

**Fez muito calor ontem.**
It was very hot yesterday.

**O Jaime esteve doente a semana inteira.**
Jaime was sick the whole week.

**Já trabalhei no centro da cidade.**
I have worked in the city centre *(before now).*

**Moramos lá durante cinco anos.**
We lived there for five years.

71.9 Talking about past habitual actions

71.9.1 The imperfect

To ask and give information about actions that occurred regularly in the past, over an unspecified period, the imperfect is used. This may sometimes be accompanied by a time phrase indicating frequency, such as **todo dia** ‘every day’, **muitas vezes** ‘often’, **nunca** ‘never’, **de vez em quando** ‘occasionally, from time to time’, etc.:

**Ele vinha aqui todo dia.**
He used to come here every day.

**Meus avós falavam italiano.**
My grandparents spoke Italian.

**Eu corria de vez em quando.**
I used to go running occasionally.
Imperfect of costumar + infinitive

Past habits can also be referred to by using the imperfect of the verb costumar ‘to be in the habit of’ followed by an infinitive. This construction sounds rather formal/literary and is not often used in colloquial speech:

Como meu pai costumava dizer, o gosto não se discute.
As my father used to say, there’s no accounting for taste.

Ela costumava levantar todos os dias às cinco horas da manhã.
She used to get up at five o’clock in the morning every day.

Talking about actions that were taking place when something else happened

Imperfect of estar + gerund + preterite

To refer to an action that was in progress when some other event happened, e.g. ‘We were having dinner when the police arrived’, the action in progress is described using the imperfect of estar followed by a gerund, and the action that intervened is expressed using the preterite:

Estávamos jantando quando a polícia chegou.
We were having dinner when the police arrived.

Eu estava dormindo quando você ligou.
I was asleep when you called.

The intervening action may be unstated but implied by the context:

Então, estava falando do meu encontro com a Silvia.
Yes, so I was talking about when I met Silvia. (i.e. before I was interrupted).

The imperfect

In more formal and literary style, the simple imperfect may be used instead of the construction with estar:

A família jantava quando o telefone tocou.
The family were having dinner when the telephone rang.

But in speech and informal writing, the construction with estar is preferred, apart from a few fixed phrases:

O que é que eu falava mesmo?
What was I saying again?

Desculpe, o senhor dizia?
Sorry, you were saying?
Talking about a past event or action that occurred before another past event or action

The pluperfect

The pluperfect is used as in English to refer to an event or action that occurred before the main past events and actions described in the sentence:

Ele tinha esquecido a carteira e estava sem dinheiro.
He’d forgotten his wallet and had no money on him.

Eu tinha ligado antes de ir para lá.
I had called before going there.

The preterite

The preterite is often used in Portuguese where a pluperfect would be used in English, especially when the time relations are clear from the context:

Comi o sanduíche que trouxe de casa.
I ate the sandwich I had brought from home.

Ele disse que esqueceu a carteira.
He said he had forgotten his wallet.

Referring to a prolonged or repeated action that began at an earlier time and was still in progress at a point in the past

In sentences such as ‘He had been watching TV the whole day’, ‘They had been living there since 1950’, ‘I had been surfing for as long as I could remember’, referring to a prolonged or repeated action that began at an earlier time and was still in progress at the point in the past you are describing, Portuguese uses the imperfect tense:

Ele já estava o dia inteiro assistindo TV.
He had been watching TV the whole day.

Eles moravam lá desde 1950.
They had been living there since 1950.

Eu pegava onda desde que me entendia por gente.
I had been surfing for as long as I could remember.

Notice that the imperfect simple is used for longer-term actions and the imperfect continuous for shorter-term actions (see 71.5).

When the length of time is specified, the imperfect tense is used in combination with havia/fazia, which, in this case, translates as ‘for’ (see 69.4.1, 69.4.2):

Eles não se viam havia dois anos.
They hadn’t seen each other for two years.

Fazia quatro meses que ela trabalhava lá.
She’d been working there for four months.
Appendices

Appendix I: Regular verb forms
► Chapter 15

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## Appendix II: Principal irregular verbs

**Chapter 16**

NB: Tenses that are not shown here follow the regular pattern for the particular conjugation, -ar, -er or -ir. In all verbs, the pluperfect, imperfect subjunctive and future subjunctive can be derived from the third person plural of the preterite.

Forms shown: first person singular, third person singular, first person plural, third person plural.

### caber  ‘to fit’

**Pres. indic.** caibo, cabe, cabemos, cabem  
**Preterite** coube, coube, coubemos, couberam  
**Pres. subj.** caiba, caiba, caibamos, caibam  

### dar  ‘to give’

**Pres. indic.** dou, dá, damos, dão  
**Preterite** dei, deu, demos, deram  
**Pres. subj.** dê, dé, demos, deem  

### dizer  ‘to say’

**Pres. indic.** digo, diz, dizemos, dizem  
**Preterite** disse, disse, dissemos, disseram  
**Pres. subj.** diga, diga, digamos, digam  
**Fut./Cond.** direi/diria, etc.  
**Past part.** dito  

### estar  ‘to be’

**Pres. indic.** estou, está, estamos, estão  
**Preterite** estive, esteve, estivemos, estiveram  
**Pres. subj.** estje, esteja, estejamos, estejam  

### fazer  ‘to do’

**Pres. indic.** faço, faz, fazemos, fazem  
**Preterite** fiz, fez, fizemos, fizeram  
**Pres. subj.** façã, faça, façamos, façam  
**Fut./Cond.** farei/faria, etc.  
**Past part.** feito
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<td><strong>pôr</strong></td>
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<td><strong>querer</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Pres. subj.</td>
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<td><strong>saber</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td><strong>ser</strong></td>
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<td><strong>ter</strong></td>
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<td>tive, teve, tivemos, tiveram</td>
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<td><strong>trazer</strong></td>
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<td>trago, traz, trazemos, trazem</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>trouxe, trouxe, trouxemos, trouxeram</td>
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<td>Pres. subj.</td>
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<td><strong>vir</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Imperf. indic.</td>
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Appendix III: Verbs with irregular past participles

17.2.2

abrir ‘to open’
   aberto

cobrir ‘to cover’
   coberto

dizer ‘to say’
   dito

escrever ‘to write’
   escrito

fazer ‘to do’
   feito

pôr ‘to put’
   posto

ver ‘to see’
   visto

vir ‘to come’
   vindo

Appendix IV: Verbs with both a regular and an irregular past participle

17.2.3

NB: The longer form shown first is used after the verbs ter and haver to form the perfect tenses; the shorter form shown second is used after the verb ser to form the passive and as an adjective.

aceitar ‘to accept’
   aceitado, aceito
   aceitado, aceito

acender ‘to light, turn on’
   acendido, aceso

dispersar ‘to disperse’
   dispersado, disperso

elegir ‘to elect’
   elegido, eleito

entregar ‘to hand over, deliver’
   entregado, entregue

expressar ‘to express’
   expressado, expresso

exprimir ‘to express’
   exprimido, expresso

expulsar ‘to throw out, expel’
   expulsado, expulso

extinguir ‘to extinguish’
   extinguido, extinto

fritar ‘to fry’
   fritado, frito

ganhar ‘to win, earn’
   ganhado, ganho

gastar ‘to spend, wear out’
   gastado, gasto

imersir ‘to immerse’
   imergido, imerso

limpar ‘to clean’
   limpado, limpo

matar ‘to kill’
   matado, morto

pagar ‘to pay’
   pagado, pago

pegar ‘to get’
   pegado, pego

prender ‘to fix; to arrest’
   prendido, preso

salvar ‘to save’
   salvado, salvo

soltar ‘to release’
   soltado, solto

submersir ‘to submerge’
   submerso

suprimir ‘to do away with’
   suprimido, supresso

suspende ‘to suspend’
   suspendido, suspenso
Appendix V: Second person verb forms

Although not in common use, second person verb forms are occasionally encountered, e.g. in poetry, songs, other works of literature and in religious texts. Here is an overview of the tu and vós forms of regular and irregular verbs:

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<td>decidis</td>
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<td>tu falavas</td>
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<td>decidias</td>
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<td>tu falaste</td>
<td>comeste</td>
<td>decidiste</td>
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<td>vós falastes</td>
<td>comestes</td>
<td>decidistes</td>
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<td>Pluperf.</td>
<td>tu falaras</td>
<td>comeras</td>
<td>decidiras</td>
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<td>vós faláreis</td>
<td>comereis</td>
<td>decídireis</td>
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<td>Future</td>
<td>tu falarás</td>
<td>comerás</td>
<td>decidirás</td>
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<td>vós falareis</td>
<td>comereis</td>
<td>decídireis</td>
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<td>tu falarias</td>
<td>comerias</td>
<td>decidirias</td>
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<tr>
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<td>decidíreis</td>
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<td>comei</td>
<td>decidi</td>
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</table>

Radical-changing verbs (see 16.1): tu form is the same as the third person + s, e.g. tu sobes; vós forms are regular.

Semi-irregular verbs (see 16.2): tu form is the same as the third person + s, but note: tu produzis 'you produce'; vós forms regular, but note: vós credes (< crer), vós ledes (< ler), vós rides (< rir).

Irregular present tenses: dar > tu dáis, vós dais; estar > tu estás, vós estais; haver > tu háis, vós haves; ir > tu vais, vós ides; pôr > tu pões, vós pondes; ser > tu és, vós sois; ter > tu tens, vós tendes; ver > tu vês, vós vedes; vir > tu vens, vós vindes. NB also: tu dizes, fazes, queres, trazes.

Irregular imperfets: pôr > tu punhas, vós púnheis; ser > tu eras, vós éreis; ter > tu tinhas, vós tinheis; vir > tu vinhas, vós vinheis.
Irregular preterites: tu form is the same as the first person singular + (e)ste, e.g. tu fizeste (<fazer), tu disseste (<dizer); vós form is the same as the first person singular + (e)stes. Exceptions are: dar > tu deste, vós destes; ir/ser > tu foste, vós fostes; vir > tu vieste, vós viestes.

Irregular present subjunctives: tu form is the same as the first/third person form + s, e.g. tu digas (<dizer); vós form: replace -a of first/third person form with -ais, e.g. vós digais. Exceptions are: dar > tu dês, vós deis; ir > tu vás, vós vades.

Imperative: tu form is the same as the third person singular of the present indicative; vós form is the same as the vós form of the present indicative without the final s, e.g. ide! ‘go!’ Exception is: ser > (tu) sê, (vós) sede.
Bibliography


**Corpus of Brazilian Portuguese:**

CETENFolha/NILC: Corpus of Electronic Text Extracts from the *Folha de S. Paulo* newspaper, part of the NILC/São Carlos corpus compiled by the Núcleo Interinstitucional de Linguística Computacional (NILC) of the University of São Paulo available at: http://acdc.linguateca.pt/cetenfolha.
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Portuguese words and phrases are listed in bold, and their English equivalents in italic; general topics are listed in roman type; n or nn after a section reference indicates that the topic will be found in a note or notes.

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